

# **Work–Life Balance in the Australian Financial Sector: A Mixed Methods Study**

**By**

**© A K M Mominul Haque Talukder**

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for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

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## **Dedication**

*To my late father...*

**W**ho inspired me to undertake higher education. He was an instrumental influence, and the first person who would have been excited to know that my dissertation was complete.

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## **Statement of Originality**

The work presented in this thesis is, to the best of my knowledge and belief, original except as acknowledged in the text. I hereby declare that I have not submitted this material, either in full or in part, for a degree at this or any other institution.

.....

(A K M Mominul Haque Talukder)

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## Abbreviations

AAPOR:	American Association of Public Opinion Research
APA:	Australian Postgraduate Award
CFA:	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
DEEWR:	Department of Education, Employment and Work Relations
EFA:	Exploratory Factor Analysis
ERP:	Extra-Role Performance
FIW:	Family Interfering Work
FSOP:	Family Supportive Organisational Perception
FSSB:	Family Supportive Supervisory Behaviour
FWC:	Family-Work Conflict
HILDA:	Household, Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia
IPRS:	International Postgraduate Research Scholarship
IRP:	In-Role Performance
JP:	Job Performance
JS:	Job Satisfaction
LS:	Life Satisfaction
NESB:	Non-English Speaking Background
NSW:	New South Wales
OC:	Organisational Commitment
OECD:	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PCA:	Principal Component Analysis
PFD:	Perceived Family Demand
PWD:	Perceived Work Demand
SEM:	Structural Equation Modelling
SS:	Supervisor Support
WFC:	Work–Family Conflict
WFE:	Work–Family Enrichment
WIF:	Work Interfering Family
WLB:	Work–Life Balance
WLC:	Work–Life Conflict

## Presentations and Publications

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## Abstract

One in two Australians is not satisfied with their current work–life balance (WLB). A recent study (Johnson, 2016) reported that 42 per cent of employees thought their WLB had worsened during the previous five years, with the most common reason being longer working hours. Almost 14 per cent of Australian workers work very long hours, defined as more than 50 hours a week, which is slightly higher than the OECD average of 13 per cent of workers. The financial sector is especially noted as being notorious for its poor WLB in recent times, due to long hours, weekend work and an intensely stressful working environment. The financial service is Australia’s largest industry, contributing to 9.3 per cent of the national economy during 2015. Despite this significant contribution, there is a dearth of academic research on WLB in the financial sector in Australia. The aim of this research was to explore the conceptualisation and lived experience of WLB, and to investigate empirically the antecedents and outcomes of WLB. More specifically, the study explored the research questions:

1. How is WLB defined? How is WLB experienced by employees? How is WLB experienced by supervisors?
2. How is supervisor support related to employees’ demands, conflicts and work-life balance?
3. How is perceived work and family demand related to work-family conflict and family- work conflict?
4. Does work-family conflict and family- work conflict influence each other?
5. Does work-family conflict and family-work conflict affect work-life balance?
6. How does work-life balance influence employees’ attitudes?
7. Does employees’ attitude influence job performance?
8. Does work-life balance relate to employees’ job performance?

This research approach harnessed mixed methods in phases where the findings and conclusions derived from the first phase led to the formulation of questions, data collection and data analysis in second phase. For instance, first research question considered the definition and lived experiences of work-life balance and explored

through interviews. The remaining research questions were concerned to the antecedents and outcomes of work-life balance and investigated through structural equation modelling. The first stage was exploratory, involving in-depth interviews with 14 participants from four different banks in Sydney, Australia. The data were transcribed and analysed using thematic analysis. The findings were used in concert with extant work-life literature to create a survey questionnaire. In the second stage a pilot study was undertaken with 106 respondents. Following the pilot study, the main study was adopted with a sample size of 305 through an online panel in Australia. Using AMOS the data were analysed, and the hypotheses were tested and validated.

While addressing the first research question, the findings reported that the definition and experience of WLB differs from employee to supervisor, thus supporting an ongoing debate over the conceptualisation of WLB. Regarding second research question, results showed that supervisor support was positively associated with WLB, while inversely related to perceived family demand, work-family conflict, and family-work conflict and no significant link to perceived work demand. The findings further reported that WLB was positively associated with employee attitudes, e.g. job satisfaction (JS), life satisfaction (LS) and organisational commitment (OC), and thus gained support for the third research question. Addressing the fourth research question, the results showed positive relations between job satisfaction, life satisfaction and organisational commitment and job performance. The results further reported a significant positive relation between work-life balance and job performance, thus addressing last research question.

The study was made in response to the limited existing research on work-life balance in the Australian financial sector, despite its substantial contribution to the economy. The study visited the conceptualisation and lived experience and investigated the relationship between antecedents and outcomes of WLB. The research contributed to the existing literature by identifying a notable mechanism by which supervisor support promoted WLB through demands and conflicts stemming from work and family domains. It also showed how WLB influenced JS, LS and OC and the JP. Findings from the study could guide employers, employees, and managers involved in the financial sector to implement policies which aim to augment job performance and promote balance between work, home and life. The research-related, practical implications and limitations are also discussed.

## **Abbreviations used in Chapter 1**

FSC-UBS: Financial Services Council - UBS

OECD: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development

WLB: Work-Life Balance

# Chapter 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Background

Work–life balance (WLB) is a central concern in everyday discourses (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003; Guest, 2002; Kossek, Valcour, & Lirio, 2014; Maertz & Boyar, 2011; Haar, Russo, Suñe, & Ollier-Malaterre, 2014). It is attracting increasing scholarly attention for its potential to advance positive outcomes for both individuals and organisations (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014; Greenhaus, Ziegert, & Allen, 2012; Kossek, Valcour, & Lirio, 2014). During the past three decades considerable research has been devoted to understanding the intersection of employees’ work and life roles (Allen, 2013). However, the current interest in work–life balance emanates from the perception that excessive workplace demands have negative consequences for important life spheres such as family and leisure (Hilbrecht, Shaw, Johnson, & Andrey, 2008). Today’s managers and professionals are not only working far more than previous generations, but are also experiencing the ‘sting of reality’, with work demands increasingly spilling into and overshadowing their family and personal life (MacInnes, 2005). In the US, one study highlights the phenomenon of ‘extreme jobs’ characterised by gruelling working hours, unpredictable workflows, fast work pace with tight deadlines, work-related events outside business hours, and 24/7 availability to clients (Hewlett & Luce, 2006; Hochschild, 1997). Another study reports only about a third (36%) of US workers are satisfied with the manner in which their employers assist them in balancing work and family and other personal life demands—a drop from 42% in 2009 (Clay, 2011).

In Australia, one in two people are dissatisfied with their current work-life balance status. A recent study reported that 42 per cent of employees thought their work–life balance had worsened during the previous five years, with the most common reason for this being longer working hours (Johnson, 2016). Almost 14 per cent of Australian workers work very long hours, which is defined as more than 50 hours a week, slightly above the OECD average of 13 per cent of workers (OECD, 2015). A survey of small business employees by Bankwest reported that two in five workers

had little work–life balance. Disturbingly, one in ten reported having no work–life balance (Leggatt, 2015). Employees are working for longer. Taking breaks at work appears to be a thing of the past: one in five, or 3.8 million, Australian workers do not take lunch breaks, with many reporting it is because they are too busy (Cameron & Denniss, 2016).

Although the present study focuses on WLB in the broader sense, it is to be noted that many researchers have used a more specific focus on work–family balance (e.g. Lyness & Kropf, 2005; Wierda-Boer, Gerris, & Vermulst, 2008). Thus, although ‘life’ outside of work includes multiple life domains that may interact to one another, work and family remain generally the two most important domains in a person’s life, making the study of work-family balance entirely relevant to the understanding of WLB. There is a felt need to balance and integrate family needs and career requirements (Sturges & Guest, 2004), and research on the work-family interface has increased dramatically in the past two decades (Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997). The changing social structures arising out of the emergence of dual career couples, single parent families, a growing number of parents with dependent care responsibilities for children, and ageing parents, have all contributed to increasing research in the area of WLB.

The composition of the workforce has changed in recent years, with an increasing proportion of employees having regular family responsibilities in addition to their work responsibilities (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). For many of these employees, the expectations resulting from participating in the work role and in the family role are often incompatible, resulting in high levels of work-family conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). These conflicting demands between the work role and the family role are considered to be a potential source of employee absenteeism, turnover and reduced productivity, as well as burnout or reduced levels of well-being at work (Hammer, Bauerand, & Grandey, 2003). In the modern world, where there are rising dependencies on global market forces, there is an ever-greater burden on those of working age in the delivery of products and services. This, in turn, has had a negative effect on the health and well-being of workers (Baptiste, 2007).

Past researchers (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992) reported that a balanced engagement in work and family roles is expected to be associated with individual

well-being because such balance reduces work–family conflict and stress, both of which detract from well-being. As many organisations and employees seek ways to better manage the tensions between work and other life demands, there has been a growing body of research examining work–family and work–life issues (Byron, 2005; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Practitioner and academic interest in this area evolved from substantial demographic and technological shifts, such as the increased participation of women in the workforce, changes in family structures and the increase of flexible work options, leading to more complex attempts to understand the psychological processes at play in the work-life interface. There is increasing worldwide recognition that work–life issues are highly salient for many people and a crucial determinant of their well-being (Spector et al., 2004).

## **1.2 Aim of the Study**

The aim of the study was to explore the conceptualisation, lived experience, antecedents and outcomes of work–life balance of employees and supervisors working in the financial sector in Sydney, Australia. The specific research questions for the study will be explained in the next chapter at the end of the literature review.

## **1.3 Significance of the Study**

The financial sector is especially noted as being notorious for its poor work-life balance in recent times; instead it is recognised for its long hours, weekend work, and an intensely stressful working environment (OECD, 2015). The financial service is the Australia’s largest industry, contributing to 9.3 per cent of the national economy in 2015 (FSC-UBS, 2016), so it is surprising that only a handful of academic researchers have specifically focused on the sector. It is argued that, if employees of the financial sector cannot cope well at work due to a mismatch between the demands of their work and their life and family, the whole financial sector may be in jeopardy, putting the entire Australian economy into peril.

Effective work–life balance and its practices are good for any business, and the benefits can be directly measured financially by such means as increased productivity; improved recruitment and retention; lower rates of absenteeism; reduced overheads; an improved customer experience; and a more motivated, satisfied and equitable workforce (Beauregard & Henry, 2008). This is in line with



present research, as to date there has been meagre work–life balance research conducted in the Australian financial sector. A work–life balance and associated programs would help this sector to attract and retain highly skilled workers by providing support to balance workers’ personal and work lives. Furthermore, as for other organisations, adopting improved work–life balance would provide the financial sector with a competitive advantage due to lower rates of withdrawal behaviour and higher organisational performance from employees (Konrad & Mangel, 2000; Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000). It is argued that employees working in a family-supportive work environment are believed to reciprocate favourably to their employers. They will exert extra effort to improve quality and service, work hard for the success of the organisation, and link their individual goals with those of the organisation (Lambert, 2000; Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). As a result, enhanced organisational performance is likely to occur.

#### **1.4 Definitions**

*Work–life balance*: ‘an individual’s ability to meet work and family commitments, as well as other non-work responsibilities and activities’ (Hill et al., 2001, p. 49)

*Supervisor support*: supervisory behaviour towards employees that would allow employees to achieve a balance between their responsibilities at home and at work (Thomas & Gangster, 1995, p. 9)

*Perceived work demand*: ‘a perception regarding demand levels within the work domain’ (Boyar et al., 2007, p. 103).

*Perceived family demand*: ‘a perception regarding demand levels within the family domain’ (Boyar et al., 2007, p. 103).

*Work-family conflict*: ‘participation in the work role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family role’ (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77).

*Family-work conflict*: ‘participation in the family role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the work role’ (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77).

*Job satisfaction*: a ‘pleasurable positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences’ (Locke, 1976, p. 1300).

*Life satisfaction*: ‘a conscious cognitive judgment of one’s life in which the criteria for judgement are up to the person’ (Pavot & Diener, 1993, p. 164).

*Organisational commitment*: ‘a relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation’ (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979, p. 226).

*In-role performance*: the ‘behavior directed toward formal tasks, duties, and responsibilities such as those included in a job description’ (Williams & Anderson, 1991, p. 606).

*Extra-role performance*: the ‘discretionary actions contributing to organization effectiveness and lying outside formal role requirements’ (George & Brief, 1992, p. 313).

## **1.5 Organisation of the Thesis**

This thesis consists of nine chapters. This chapter provides a background to the research topic and gives an overview of the entire study.

Chapter 2 reviews the relevant literature, focusing especially on the definition of work–life balance, its antecedents and outcomes. Research gaps are also identified in this chapter.

Chapter 3 describes the qualitative research design, including justification to undertake a mixed method. The detailed process of in-depth interviewing is also covered.

Chapter 4 presents the qualitative findings, including the key themes and sub-themes identified.

Chapter 5 describes a theoretical framework and presents a conceptual model. This chapter concludes by outlining the main research questions and the corresponding hypotheses.

Chapter 6 covers the survey questionnaire, piloting, construct operationalisation, measurements scales, survey method, testing of the reflective measurement model, and data analysis.

Chapter 7 details the quantitative findings arising from the online survey.

Chapter 8 discusses the research findings and concludes with implications.

Chapter 9 covers the conclusions, limitations, contribution to the existing knowledge, and future research directions of the study.

## **1.6 Summary**

This chapter provided an overview of the thesis. A background to the research was presented, along with the identified theoretical gaps. The aim and significance of the study followed, along with definitions of the key constructs. Lastly, an outline of the thesis was given, including an overview of the chapters. Having set the foundation for this thesis, the next chapter contains a review of the literature that informs and sets the stage for the study that follows.

## **Abbreviations used in Chapter 2**

ABS: Australian Bureau of Statistics

DEEWR: Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations

FSSB: Family Supportive Supervisory Behaviour

FWC: Family-Work Conflict

HILDA: Household, Income and Labour Dynamics in Australia

JP: Job Performance

JS: Job Satisfaction

LS: Life Satisfaction

OC: Organisational Commitment

PFD: Perceived Family Demand

PWD: Perceived Work Demand

SS: Supervisor Support

WFC: Work–Family Conflict

WLC: Work-Life Conflict

## Chapter 2 Literature Review

*How in the hell could a man enjoy being awakened at 6:30 a.m. by an alarm clock, leap out of bed, dress, force-feed, brush teeth and hair, and fight traffic to get to a place where essentially you made lots of money for somebody else and were asked to be grateful for the opportunity to do so?*

– Charles Bukowski, poet and novelist

### 2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discusses the introduction of the research. This chapter begins with a work–life quotation, genesis and interests in work–life balance (WLB). This is followed by a detailed description of work–life balance conceptualisation by different scholars. Next, a number of relevant constructs are discussed with theories to demonstrate interconnection between the various antecedents of work–life balance, employees’ attitudes and job performance. A synthesis of some relevant research work on work–life balance is presented to investigate the rationale and research gaps of the present study. The chapter concludes with the research problem, questions, and a summary.

The chapter is divided into two main sections (Figure 2.1). The first section discusses how the antecedents are linked to WLB, while the second section explains how the WLB is associated with employees’ attitudes and performance

### 2.2 Background to the Research

There is a general consensus among scholars that work–life balance is highly valued by nearly all employees (Kossek, Valcour, & Lirion, 2014) and it has important implications on people’s well-being and work productivity all over the world (Lyness & Judiesch, 2014). Work–life research is interdisciplinary, spanning the boundaries of disciplines such as sociology, psychology, organisational behaviour, human development, labor economics, industrial relations, management, demography, and women’s studies (Drago & Kashian, 2003).

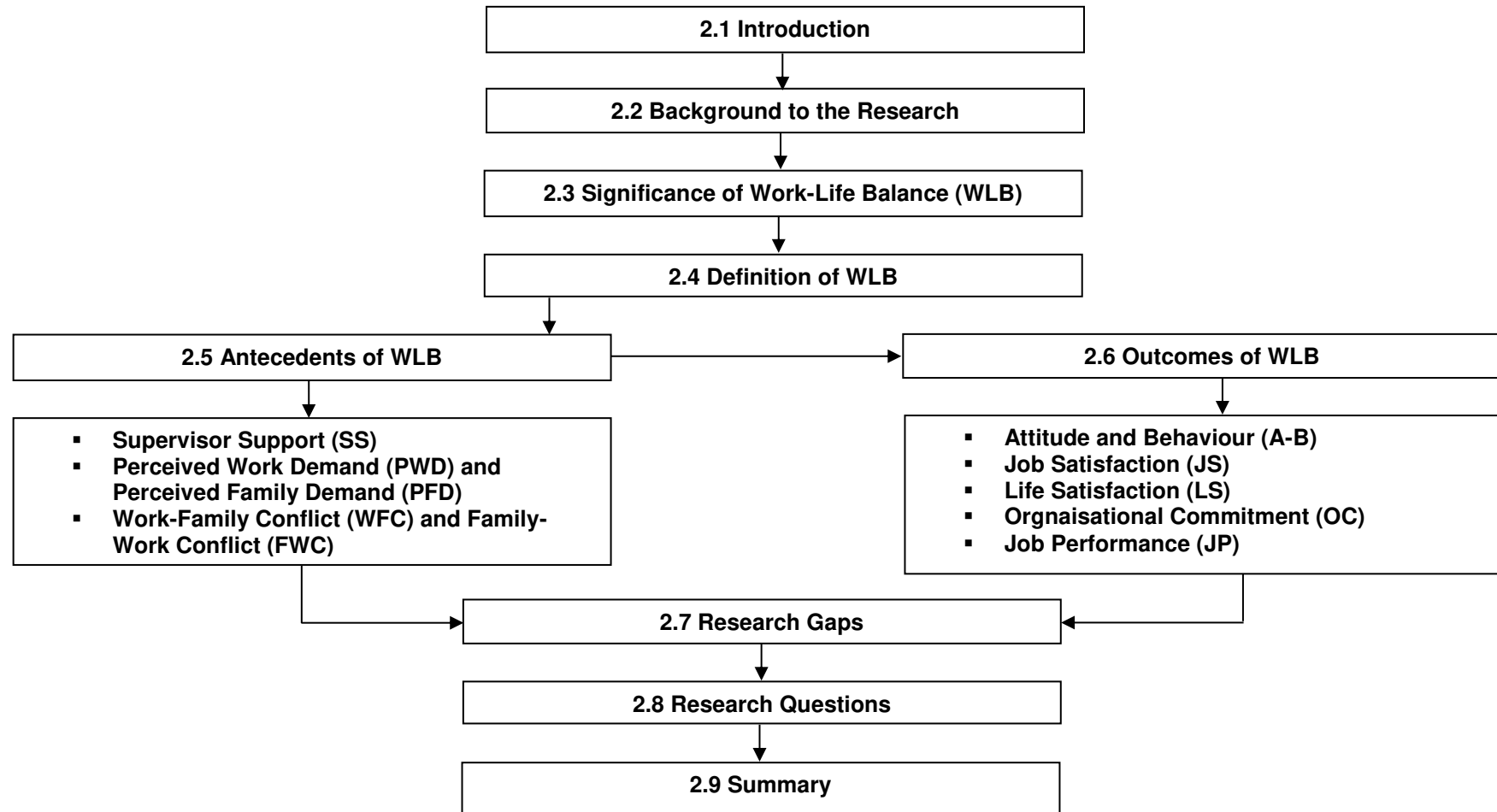


Figure 2.1 List of sections included in Chapter 2

Theorising on work and family spheres can be traced to studies as early as 1949 that addressed conflicts arising from gender roles in families (MacDermid, 2004). However, the 1970s and 1980s can be viewed as the substantial developmental phase in the work–family arena (Gonyea & Googins, 1992). Kanter’s (1977) critical review of the dynamic intersections of work and family systems in contemporary American society broke new ground in the understanding of links between work and family (Barling & Sorensen, 1997; Rayman & Bookman, 1999). The underlying assumption common across many streams of research is that work and family are not discrete domains. Indeed, the two (along with other dominant life domains) are intertwined in such a way that what happens in one domain is likely to affect the other (Kanter, 1977). Other seminal works (e.g. Pleck, 1977; Rapoport & Rapoport, 1969) also contribute to the notion that the interaction between work and family leads to both positive and negative consequences. Despite this, the term work–family has often been used to focus mostly on the negative consequences, for example, work–family conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), rather than positive outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, life satisfaction and eventually job performance.

A concerning issues in the Australian employment environment, as in many other countries, is the work and life balance (Colley, 2010). The federal government tried to introduce practical assistance to working families in Australia (Rudd, 2007). Due to the change in household patterns, employees are demanding family-friendly working policies where they can care for their family as well as perform effectively in their jobs. Skill shortages are a critical issue in Australian labour market (Australian Parliament, 2005), and family-friendly work policies are one means for employers to attract and retain skilled workers (DEEWR, 2009). Without supportive policies, employees may be stressed due to one domain (work or family) interfering with effective participation in the other (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1993). Stressed employees can cause significant loss in productivity and work performance (Watson, Goh, & Sawang, 2011). In the same vein, Bardoel and colleagues (2008) suggest that a thorough examination is crucial for a better understanding of work–life within the Australian and New Zealand contexts in a field that is widely known to be dominated by US-developed theoretical frameworks and models. Several researchers have suggested that different country contexts predispose researchers to develop

distinctive research traditions that in turn influence the use of different paradigms to study aspects of human resource management (Brewster, 1999; Schuler, Budhwar, & Florkowski, 2002).

### **2.3 Significance of Work–Life Balance (WLB)**

Work, life and family systems, though different, are interconnected. People are border crossers who make daily transitions between two worlds: the world of work and the world of family. People shape these worlds, mould the borders between them, and determine the border crosser's relationship to world and their members. It is this contradiction of determining and being determined by our work and home environments that make WLB a challenging concept to systematically investigate. Changes in society have increased the number of individuals with significant responsibilities both at home and at work. This has fuelled further inquiry into the interdependencies between work and home life. Researchers (Brief & Nord, 1990) note these changes as follows: (a) an increase in divorce rates, leading to a higher number of single parents; (b) growing labour force participation among women, increasing by 22 per cent since 1983 (Fullerton, 1995); (c) more part-time work; (d) increased mobility among workers, distancing them from social support; (e) changed workers' expectations indicating greater interest in the quality of life outside of work; and (f) growing social value placed on the father's role. The interaction between individuals' work and family responsibilities has become a concern of practical and theoretical significance.

Work-life balance has always been a concern of those interested in the quality of working life and its relation to broader quality of life (Guest, 2002). It has come to the fore in contemporary debates largely because, in affluent societies, the excessive demands of work are perceived to present a distinctive issue that needs to be addressed. There are significant costs for employees' family lives. For example, conflicts between work–life and personal life are broadly, though unequally, felt (Jacobs & Gerson, 2004; Schieman, Milkie, & Glavin, 2009). One study in the US reported that 53 per cent of employed parents said that balancing work and family was somewhat or very difficult, while 31 per cent of married, working adults without children under 18 also reported difficulties (Parker & Wang, 2013). This difficulty is fuelled by job stress, health, and child care, which are leading causes of absenteeism



and have a tangible cost approximated at \$500 to \$2,000 per employee per year (Corporate Voices for Working Families, 2004). Another study in the UK reported that the primary reason people left their jobs was to seek out opportunities with a better work–life balance; nearly a third (30%) of HR directors identified that the attraction of a better work–life balance drove people to switch jobs (Robert Half, 2015).

Hyman and Summers (2004) study on work-life employment practices and policies across financial sectors in UK reported: an unevenness of adoption; lack of formalisation; restricted employee voice; meeting business needs than employees; no reductions in working hours; direct and indirect work intrusions into domestic responsibilities. As a result, many employees in the financial sector continue to face difficulty in reconciling their work, life and domestic responsibilities. A recent study by The Australia Institute (Baker, Johnson, & Denniss, 2016) reported that work–life balance is identified as being more of an aspiration than a reality for many Australians. Unpaid overtime is commonplace in many Australian workplaces, with more than half of all workers stating they worked unpaid overtime. This amounted to donating \$128 billion annually to employers, a figure which is not improving over time (Baker, Johnson, & Denniss, 2016). In addition, almost two-thirds of Australian workers feel that their current working arrangements have a negative impact on their health, well-being and relationships. In particular, work arrangements appear to have a negative impact on mental health. Nearly two in five workers state that work impacts on stress levels, one third feel work affects their sleep, and one quarter of workers suffer from anxiety as a result of work. Work hours also appear to have a particular impact on workers' relationships with their family and friends, and on their physical health (Baker, Johnson, & Denniss, 2016).

Unlike other industries, the financial services industry demands especially long hours as it faces competitive pressures due to globalization, consolidation, and the new technologies (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002). Here the productivity is often difficult to measure the hours spent at work. This may be used as a proxy for managers' and employees' work output. In addition, managers and employees are expected to demonstrate commitment by working long hours and making work the central focus of their lives (Kanter, 1977). These demands place managers and employees in a crucible of work-life imbalance. The present research is based in Australia, where

more than 70% of Australian workers aged 18–65 expressed their desire to spend more time in leisure pursuits or with their family, and nearly 40% wanted to spend less time at work (Skinner & Chapman, 2013). In the context of the Australian workforce, the female participation rate rose from 44% in 1979 to 59% in 2014, and 65% of couples with children under 15 years have had dual incomes (ABS, 2014). This trend has led to a higher demand for flexible work options and the provision of child care. Against this change, the framework of WLB programs and policies in Australia is somewhat similar to that of the USA and Canada, whereby the government encourages these programs to be negotiated between employers and employees, rather than establish them as a part of national industrial relations policy (Craig, Mullan, & Blaxland, 2010). However, in recent years this approach has partly changed, with the introduction of a national scheme of paid parental leave from 2011 and the right for employees to request flexible work conditions within the national industrial legislation (i.e. the Fair Work Act, 2009) (Baird, 2011). Therefore, it is important to acknowledge these cultural and societal contexts in Australia, which may have helped facilitate individual's ability to cope with various life stresses and urge organisations in Australia to comply by providing more WLB programs at workplaces.

## **2.4 Definition of WLB**

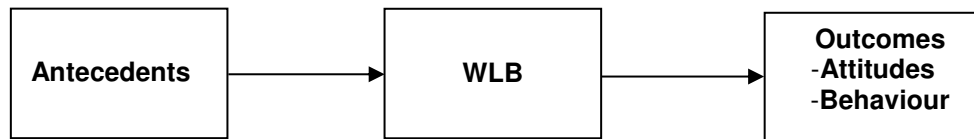
In recent years the popular press has given increased attention to issues of WLB. The term is sometimes used as a noun (when, for example, one is encouraged to achieve balance), and at other times as a verb (to balance work and family demands) or an adjective (as in a balanced life). 'Work–life balance' is often used to suggest a need to cut back on work to spend more time with the family. It is also thought to be in an individual's best interest to live a 'balanced' life (Kofodimos, 1993). Despite the presumed virtue of WLB, the concept has not undergone extensive scrutiny. Most of the major reviews of work–family relations either do not mention WLB (Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003), or mention balance but do not explicitly define or measure the concept. Moreover, empirical studies that discuss balance between work and family roles generally do not distinguish balance from other relevant or similar concepts in the work–family literature (e.g. Nielson, Carlson, & Lankau, 2001; Saltzstein, Ting, & Saltzstein, 2001; Sumer & Knight, 2001; Thompson, Beauvais,

& Lyness, 1999). In fact, even when systematic definitions of balance are proposed (Clark, 2000; Hill, Hawkins, Ferris, & Weitzman, 2001; Kirchmeyer, 2000; Kofodimos, 1990, 1993; Marks, Huston, Johnson, & MacDermid, 2001; Marks & MacDermid, 1996), these definitions are not entirely consistent with one another and often result in a measuring of balance that remains suboptimal.

Less specific than work–family balance, the term ‘work–life balance’ (WLB) was first coined in reaction to the trend of the 1970s and 1980s when men and women began prioritising work and career goals over family, friends, community affairs and leisure activities. Despite frequent attention in the scholarly literature, the meaning of WLB remains elusive because the concept is often not formally defined, and different scholars conceptualise balance in different ways (see Appendix 2.1). After reviewing a variety of perspectives on WLB (e.g. low work–family conflict, equal involvement in work and personal domains), Greenhaus and Allen (2011) conclude that employees experience WLB when they are effective and satisfied in those parts of their lives that are salient to them.

The terms ‘work-life balance’ and ‘work-family balance’ are often used interchangeably, but generally are applied to the same concept (e.g., Hill, Hawkins, Ferris, & Weitzman, 2001; Quick, Henley, & Quick, 2004). ‘Work-life balance’ has been used in this research as the author believes it more inclusive term and better encompasses work, personal and family responsibilities (Lyness & Judiesch, 2014; Parkes & Langford, 2008; Quick, et al., 2004). This concept of WLB is favoured by employers and policy makers as it is considered to be more gender-neutral than work–family balance, and is also more inclusive of employees regardless of their family circumstances or involvement (Lewis & Campbell, 2008).

To fully understand the complexity and nature of WLB, one also needs to take into account various antecedents that are generally studied independently of or in tandem with WLB, yet refer to highly similar phenomena. It is assumed that these antecedents link with WLB, and subsequently influence employees' experience (see Figure 2.2). Some of these antecedents are reviewed in the following sections.



**Figure 2.2 Conceptual model of the study**

## **2.5 Antecedents of WLB**

### **2.5.1 Supervisor Support**

Recognition of employees as a source of competitive advantage has provided a renewed impetus to the perennial efforts of organisational scholars to understand the motivational basis of employee work-related attitudes and behaviours (Aryee, Chu, Kim, & Ryu, 2013). Research evidence suggests that work–family conflict or the interference of work demands with family demands has deleterious consequences, not only for the performance of employees but also for their well-being (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Aryee, Fields, & Luk, 1999; Carr, Boyar, & Gregory, 2008; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Consequently, a major focus in human resource management in the past two decades has been the adoption of family-friendly policies to assist employees to better manage their work and family responsibilities (Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002; Batt & Valcour, 2003; Glass & Finley, 2002; Grover & Crooker, 1995; Kossek & Nichol, 1992; Lambert, 2000; Wang & Walumbwa, 2007).

While research has shown formal family-supportive practices to be instrumental in ameliorating the negative consequences of work–family conflict, there is recognition that many of these practices, such as provision of child care, are expensive to implement and that employees tend to be reluctant to use them because of concerns about the career penalties associated with their use (Allen, 2001; Eaton, 2003; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). As a result, research focus has now shifted

from formal to informal practices (Allen, 2001; Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, 2009; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011; Thompson Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). Supervisor support is one such informal practice, whereby supervisors provide instrumental and socio-emotional support to employees, resources that help employees integrate work and non-work demands, prevent and alleviate stress (Halbesleben, 2006), and demonstrate care for, and commitment to, employees. Understanding how this form of support influences employee outcomes could enable employers to create an environment that will best foster positive attitudes and behaviours in their workplace.

There is growing recognition in the work–life literature that supervisor support, as an informal means of organisational support, can play an important role in employees’ ability to balance work and family (e.g. Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997; Galinsky & Stein, 1990; Kossek & Nichol, 1992; Lobel & Kossek, 1996; Parasuraman, Greenhaus, & Granrose, 1992; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 1997). Allen (2001) and Thompson, Beauvais, and Lyness (1999) provide strong preliminary empirical evidence that, although availability of work–family benefits may have a relatively small effect on employee attitudes and experiences, employee perceptions of informal work–family supportiveness are strongly related to important outcomes such as job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment, turnover intentions, and work-to-family conflict. Furthermore, supervisor support has been recognised as a critical element of family-supportive work environments (Allen, 2001; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999).

### **2.5.2 Perceived Work Demand (PWD) and Perceived Family Demand (PFD)**

Researchers have long recognised that work and family are not separate; rather they are interdependent domains or roles with ‘permeable’ boundaries (Pleck, 1977, p. 418). Accumulated research evidence shows that one’s functioning at work may have a negative impact on one’s functioning at home (Byron, 2005; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005). Work and family demands are more strongly associated with interference because they require effort and therefore deplete individual resources available for functioning in another domain (Demerouti, Bakker, & Voydanoff, 2010). Work characteristics are consistently associated with interference initiating from work, whereas family characteristics are the major

antecedents of interference initiating from the family domain (e.g. Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997; Kirchmeyer & Cohen, 1999; Voydanoff, 2005).

A few studies have observed that the family situation can have a negative influence on organisational behaviour, including absence and job performance (e.g. Grzywacz & Butler, 2005; Netemeyer, Maxham, & Pullig, 2005). The detrimental effects of the family situation on performance can be explained using the depletion argument, which reflects the idea that people have restricted amounts of psychological and physiological resources (e.g. time, attention and energy) to spend, and that they make cutbacks to accommodate these fixed resources (Rothbard, 2001). Similarly, the role-conflict view (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) suggests that strain arising in one role inhibits the individual from meeting the expectations of another role. When people experience that their family situation negatively influences their work, they will try to cope and self-regulate these negative emotions in order to resolve the discrepancy between the current and ideal self (Carver & Scheier, 1981). Exerting self-control in order to regulate negative emotions uses up energy reservoirs, and this effort depletes the available supply (Rothbard, 2001). As shown by Baumeister and colleagues (1998), this self-regulation impairs subsequent task performance and can make one less available for engaging in tasks and interpersonal relationships in another role (Piotrkowski, 1979). Given the pervasive nature of work and family demands, and their impacts on the quality of people's lives, the present study examined their effects on work–life balance.

### **2.5.3 Work–Family Conflict (WFC) and Family–Work Conflict (FWC)**

A complementary perspective to the WLB literature is that lack of balance may lead to conflicts between life domains. In other words, work–family conflict (WFC) is seen as the opposite pole on a continuum moving from a state of complete balance to a state of imbalance and then to conflicts. WFC is defined as ‘a form of inter role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and life domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in the work (life) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the life (work) role’ (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). This concept is close to the concept of role conflict, which tends to be studied in a work context to describe inter-role conflict that emerges when multiple

work roles create conflicting demands on an individual, such that they are unable to adequately fulfil one or both of the roles (Coverman, 1989). Similarly, role overload or role strain occurs when the conflicting demands of various roles are so great that they inhibit the individual's ability to fulfil the roles adequately (e.g. Goode, 1960; Guelzow, Bird & Koball, 1991; Komarovsky, 1976; Marks & MacDermid, 1996). Thus, role overload is a type of role conflict that is specifically related to the total time and energy needed to fulfil role demands and may occur even when the role demands are compatible, simply because the individual does not have sufficient time and energy to fulfil them all.

These notions are clearly relevant to our understanding of broader forms of role conflicts between life domains (i.e. WFC). Indeed, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) identified three distinct types of WFC that can occur when work stressors (e.g. role overload, pressure, lack of autonomy, and role ambiguity) limit the ability for workers to effectively manage their work and personal lives. These are time-based conflict, strain-based conflict and behaviour-based conflict (also see Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley, 1991; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Jackson & Schuler, 1985). Thus, WFC generally occurs when participation in a work activity interferes with participation in a competing family activity or when work stress has a negative effect on behaviour within the family domain (e.g. Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snock, & Rosenthal, 1964; Renshaw, 1976). Conversely, family-work conflict (FWC) occurs when participation in a family activity interferes with participation in a competing work activity or when family stress has a negative effect on performance in the work role (Frone, Yardley, & Market, 1997; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991).

Much of the research on the work–life interface has focused on the construct of WFC. Such conflict arises from simultaneous pressures from the work and life domains that are incompatible in some respect. Because of this incompatibility, participation in one role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the other role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The dominance of the conflict perspective in the WLB literature is rooted in scarcity theory, which assumes that the personal resources of time, energy and attention are finite, and that the devotion of greater resources to one role necessitates the devotion of lesser resources to the other role (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). Thus, individuals who

participate in both work and family roles are likely to experience conflict between these roles. Past research shows that with the increase in working hours, employees tend to experience higher work demands (Zhang & Liu, 2011) which contribute to WFC. Clearly, a lack of balance or the presence of conflicts between work demands and demands from one's personal life are related to negative consequences for individual employees and organisations.

## **2.6 Outcomes of WLB**

It is widely accepted by researchers that work-life balance is associated with desirable outcomes in both the workplace area and family area (Parkes & Langford, 2008). Several researchers have pointed out that the effect of work-life balance on employees' attitudes and behaviours needs in-depth research studies to identify what types of performance are related with work-life balance (Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998).

### **2.6.1 Attitude and Behaviour (A-B)**

To solve the problem of Attitude-Behaviour (A-B) congruence, a model was developed following a series of influential statements by scholars (Fishbein, 1967; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1973). These scholars argued that in order to predict a specific behaviour, an equally specific behavioural intention should be measured. Behavioural intention itself is held to be determined entirely by the sum of two psychological factors: attitude toward the behaviour in question, and beliefs about the normative expectations of significant others. Fishbein and Ajzen further argue that attitude toward an object, the traditional attitudinal measure, has no necessary relation to any particular behaviour, since its implications for behaviour are unclear. Hence, measuring attitudes toward behaviours rather than attitudes toward objects should increase A-B congruence and raise A-B correlations. This is consistent with the present study, which postulates that employees' attitudes are linked to their behaviour. Eby and colleagues (2005) report that job satisfaction and organisational commitment constitute work attitude, while life satisfaction is part of family attitude. In contrast, work performance is part of employee behaviour. It is expected that if employees are satisfied as a result of balance between their work, life and family, so



their life satisfaction and commitment to the organisation will follow. All together, these would augment their performance in the workplace.

### **2.6.2 Job Satisfaction (JS)**

Although conceptually distinct from WLB and often conceptualised as an outcome of WLB, the concept of JS is also highly relevant to the understanding of WLB. Locke (1969) defined job satisfaction as the extent to which the expectations that an individual holds for a job match what one actually receives from the job. JS can be characterised as an attitude concerning the extent to which people like or dislike their jobs (Spector, 1997). JS is a result of employees' perception of how well their job provides those things they view as important. Job satisfaction is usually defined as the positive emotional response to a job situation resulting from attaining what the employee wants and values from the job (Olsen, 1993).

The literature suggests that JS is a complex, affective response towards various facets of one's job, such as job content and career prospects (Bonache, 2005). According to Skulli, Theodossiou and Vasileiou (2008), individuals make a judgement about their overall JS, evaluating it as a whole. It includes feelings related to the characteristics of the job (e.g. job tasks), working conditions, level of earnings, the risk of losing the job, future opportunities of promotion and so on. Several researchers have stressed that employees are increasingly demanding WLB initiatives in their firms, as a result of the increasing prevalence of dual career couples, family or dependent responsibilities, or desires to spend more time with friends or enjoying leisure activities (Lavoie, 2004). As a consequence, companies that implement WLB practices are expected to have employees who are more satisfied within their organisations. There are different arguments in the literature that explain the positive relationship between the existence of WLB practices and employees' job satisfaction (Crede, Chernyshenko, Stark, Dalal, & Bashshur, 2007). A few examples are social exchange theory (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959; Blau, 1964), the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), perceived organisational support (Rhoadres & Eisenberger, 2002) or the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989). In these theories, individuals who perceive that their firms are taking care of their well-being (e.g. through formal or informal support for WLB) might experience positive feelings towards the source of that beneficial treatment and, thus, increase their satisfaction.

### **2.6.3 Life Satisfaction (LS)**

Life satisfaction (LS) has been regarded as one of the foremost indicators of one's overall quality of life (Moons et al., 2006). With work and family likely to be among the most important roles individuals can hold in life, an inability to balance and meet competing demands is likely to be a significant source of life dissatisfaction. Refining Diener's (1984) definition of life satisfaction as a '...cognitive evaluation of one's life' (p. 550) and Shin and Johnson's (1978) definition of life satisfaction as 'a global assessment of a person's quality of life according to his chosen criteria' (p. 478), Pavot and Diener (1993) define LS as a cognitive, global evaluation of an individual's life as a whole based on a set of predetermined standards: 'LS is a conscious cognitive judgment of one's life in which the criteria for judgment are up to the person' (p. 164). Diener and Biswas-Diener (2008) contend that 'individuals who are satisfied with their work will—by definition—be enjoying a greater chunk of their lives than people who can't stand their jobs' (p. 69). Because of the amount of time individuals spend at work, high levels of job satisfaction tend to reinforce an individual's personal satisfaction, thereby resulting in a greater level of life satisfaction overall (Brooks, 2008). Researchers (e.g. Cropanzano, James, & Konovsky, 1993; Cropanzano & Wright, 1999; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Lucas & Diener, 2003; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000, 2004) have found that individual perceptions of satisfaction serve as a predictor of work performance. Brown and Duan (2007) suggest that research on life satisfaction and its correlates (i.e. WFC and coping) are 'important concepts in understanding the psychological functioning of professional men and women' (p. 271). Life satisfaction is a broad construct that is best studied and conceptualised from a domain-specificity perspective. A person is not 'satisfied' or 'not satisfied' for their full life. They can rather be 'satisfied at work', 'satisfied in leisure activities', or 'satisfied in family life'. As such, the determinant of WLB is to have satisfaction in multiple domains.

### **2.6.4 Organisational Commitment (OC)**

With regard to commitment and WLB practices (e.g. family-friendly programs) both social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity suggest that, when employees experience WLB, reciprocity should come into play. Individuals' WLB is achieved through a supportive supervisor and the implementation of family-friendly practices

by the employer (Haar & Spell, 2004). When employees perceive their supervisor or employer as being instrumental in helping them achieve a WLB (e.g. child care, flexible work arrangements), employees are likely to reciprocate with commitment to the organisation. Previous research (e.g. Kossek et al., 2001) has also demonstrated that employee commitment is enhanced when organisations help employees in fulfilling their family and non-work responsibilities. Similarly to job/life satisfaction, the commitment construct is clearly conceptually distinct from issues of WLB/WLC and often conceptualised as an outcome of WLB/WLC. However, employees' levels of commitment in the workplace also reflect their willingness to become involved in the work area. Thus, given the scarcity of their personal resources, commitment in one life area may be naturally accompanied by lesser investment in other areas. On the one hand, high commitments in the workplace may push an employee away from investment in the personal or familial domain, thereby decreasing WLB. On the other hand, being forced to invest resources in one area where one feels no desire to do so, leaving less time for investment in areas in which one wants to be involved, may also decrease WLB or create WLC.

Initial research on employees' commitments in the workplace typically focused on their commitment to the organisation itself. In their seminal model, Allen and Meyer (1990) and Meyer & Allen, (1991) define organisational commitment as an employees' involvement in, and identification with, their organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). They distinguished three distinct mindsets of commitment that can have differential implications for behaviour: (a) affective commitment, which reflects a desire or a willingness to be involved; (b) normative commitment, which reflects a perceived moral imperative, or pressure, to be involved; and (c) continuance commitment, which reflects a feeling of obligation to be involved due either to the elevated costs of ceasing this involvement, or a lack of alternative. Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) later extended this model to encompass commitments to both the organisation and the occupation. This perspective was further broadened when Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) defined commitment as a 'force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets' (p. 299). This definition explicitly recognises the multifocal nature of commitment which can be directed toward multiple social or personal work-related constituencies within the organisation, in addition to the organisation itself (Becker,

1992; Cohen, 2003; Morin et al., 2011; Reichers, 1985), such as one's supervisor, co-workers, customers, job tasks, professional group and career progression, as well as to work in general.

Research in the area above clearly demonstrated the added value of adopting such a multifocused, multi-mindset, perspective on commitment, showing that commitments to these additional foci did indeed improve the prediction of work-relevant behaviours over and above organisational commitment (e.g. Becker, 1992; Bentein, Stinglhamber, & Vandenberghe, 2002; Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000; Ellemers, de Gilder, & van den Heuval, 1998; Morin et al., 2011; Siders, George, & Dharwadkar, 2001; Vandenberghe et al., 2007). Among the various mindsets of commitments that have been proposed, it should be noted that research generally showed that affective commitment tends to be most widely studied, is the most generalisable across foci, and the most strongly associated with behaviours (e.g. Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Solinger, van Olffen, & Roe, 2008). On the other hand, continuance commitment often tends to be negatively associated with valuable work-outcomes, potentially due to its 'forced' nature that may be involved in the development of some types of role conflicts.

### **2.6.5 Job Performance (JP)**

One particular outcome variable of interest to organisations is that of employee performance, defined as in role task-performance (activities falling directly within employees' job description and formally expected of them) and contextual or extra-role performance (discretionary activities going above the call of duty and contributing to the improvement of organisational functioning relative to the broader psychological and social environment of an organisation) (Bergman, Sarkar, Glover, & O'Connor, 2008; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Indeed, one of the foremost ideas of studying work and family interactions from an organisational standpoint is that when employees are able to manage work and family domains, they will tend to perform better in the work domain. Research evidence seems to support this claim. For instance, Perry-Smith and Blum (2000) found that the presence of work-family human resource policies was associated with higher levels of firm-level performance (as rated by personnel directors).

A similar study, using archival data collected by a human resource consulting and research firm, found a positive relationship between the number of work-life programs offered and performance (as indicated by sales per employee) in organisations with higher proportions of professional employees and female employees (Konrad & Mangel, 2000). Likewise, on-site child care has been linked with self-reported performance (Kossek & Nichol, 1992), and telework has been found to be related to supervisor ratings of performance (Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton, 2006). Must, Harris, Giles, and Field (2008) found perceived value of organisational benefits to be related to supervisor ratings of performance through increased affective commitment to the organisation, regardless of benefit use. On this basis, it is argued here that the added-value of WLB policies in terms of improving employees' performance has been well documented. Similarly, positive effects of work-family resources on WLC (Lapierre & Allen, 2006), work-family enrichment (WFE) (Thompson & Prottas, 2006), and job attitudes (Brough, O'Driscoll, & Kalliath, 2005) have also been documented.

The effect, or lack thereof, of WLB policies does not provide a complete picture of what really happens at the employee level. Do these policies really affect performance through improving employees' WLB? Are employees' personal levels of WLB really related to relevant work-outcomes and, if so, through which mechanisms? The conceptual confusion regarding the nature and definition of WLB at the employee level and related constructs is not helpful. Yet understanding these links is critical for organisations, which are now increasingly pressured to implement improved WLB policies, and which want to know more about the mechanisms at play in order to best help their employees to achieve WLB (Eby et al., 2005). Clearly, a better understanding of the processes that take place at the employee level will help organisations and managers to further refine the WLB procedures used in their workplaces, through targeting critical elements.

Preliminary research supports the idea that personal levels of WLB or WFC predict an employee's level of performance (e.g. Eby et al., 2005). The effects of WLB and WFC seem to be even broader than previously thought. Research has shown that WLB/WFC is related to employees' levels of job/life satisfaction, organisational commitment and eventually job performance (e.g. Bacharach, Bamberger, & Conley, 1991; Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Bragger et al., 2005; Cooke & Rousseau, 1984;

Coverman, 1989; Duxbury & Higgins, 2003a, 2003b; Eby et al., 2005; Hacker & Doolen, 2003; Hassan, Dollard, & Winefield, 2010; Khan et al., 1964; Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996). Thus, a mismatch between family/personal and work roles may be disadvantageous for both employees and employers, as it could undermine performance.

## **2.7 Research Gaps**

### **2.7.1 Lack of a Specific Definition of WLB**

Despite the emergence of WLB as an increasingly frequent topic of study and discussion, there is not yet a well-accepted definition of this construct (Guest, 2002; Lewis & Campbell, 2008; Wada, Backman, & Forwell, 2010). It has been reiterated that WLB is a central concern in everyday discourses (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003; Guest, 2002; Kossek et al., 2014; Maertz & Boyar, 2011), nevertheless, it remains one of the least studied concepts in work–life research (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). Furthermore, Valcour (2007) noted that work–life balance is ‘a concept whose popular usage has outpaced its theoretical development’ (p. 1513) and the reason for this is the field’s struggle to agree on a common definition of WLB (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). This ambiguity in the meaning of work–life balance is problematic because strong constructs are the building blocks of theory, and a precise, parsimonious definition is fundamental to a strong construct (Suddaby, 2010).

### **2.7.2 Lack of a Comprehensive Investigation**

As previously noted, the interest in and importance of work–life balance is increasing. It is widely accepted by researchers that work–life balance is associated with desirable outcomes in both workplace and family areas (e.g. Harrington & Ladge, 2009; Parkes & Langford, 2008). Despite this increased interest and favourable outcomes of work-life balance, limited studies have directly linked work-life balance with its outcomes (Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivnuska, 2009; Frone, 2003; Grzywacz & Butler, 2005). Also, several researchers have pointed out that the effect of work–life balance on employees’ attitudes and behaviours is still unclear, and they have called for more in-depth research studies to identify what types of performance are related to work–life balance (Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998).

From a more global perspective, work and life researchers provide strong empirical evidence that informal support from supervisors is strongly related to important employee outcomes such as reduced work-to-family conflict, job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Allen, 2001; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). A recent study by Mills and colleagues (2014) reported the mediating role of commitment between family supportive supervisory behaviour (FSSB) and employee performance. Wayne and colleagues (2013) examined the mediating role of work family conflict, enrichment and partner attitudes through family-supportive organisation perceptions and organisational commitment. Bagger and Li (2014) investigated the mechanisms through which supervisory family support is linked to job satisfaction, turnover intentions and performance, and examined the moderating effect of family-friendly benefits on this relationship. Odle-Dusseau and colleagues (2012) explored how organisational resources predicted job attitudes and supervisor ratings of performance through the mechanisms of work–family conflict and work–family enrichment. Aryee and colleagues (2013) investigated the mediating mechanisms between family-supportive work environment and employee work behaviours.

The extensive body of work–family research accumulated in recent decades has been dominated by researchers and samples from the United States (US); it is only quite recently that researchers have begun to conceptualise and investigate the work–family interface in other national contexts (Poelmans, O’Driscoll, & Beham, 2005; Aycan, 2008). The dominance of research in the US context, combined with the general lack of consensus between other countries, has resulted in a disparate and fractured understanding of the interplay between work and life for those outside the US (Shaffer, Joplin, & Hsu, 2011). Several authors argue that the nature of relationships between work–life balance and employee attitudes and behaviours remains unclear, and have called for more research on the impact of work–life balance in the workplace (Casper & Buffardi, 2004; Eby et al., 2005; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999).

Gaps in existing work–life research prompted the present study. As discussed, previous works have investigated several predictors of WLB (e.g. social support, work family conflict, family supportive supervisory behaviour, family supportive organisational perception, organisation commitment and organisational resources),

but the influence of antecedents (e.g. supervisor support, work and family demands and work family conflicts) on WLB and its subsequent effects on employees' attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction, life satisfaction and organisational commitment) and job performance has not been fully examined. Furthermore, and as discussed in the previous chapter, there has been scant research into these issues in the financial sector in Australia. Hence, a comprehensive exploration of WLB was warranted.

### **2.7.3 Need for a New Research Approach**

With regard to an Australian perspective, Skinner and Chapman (2013) review the likely impact of work–life policies and practices on work–life outcomes (e.g. work–life interference, work–life facilitation) in the Australian public, health and social sectors. A study using HILDA data reports an inverse relation between sustained long hours and work–life balance (Brown, 2012). Hayman (2010) finds a positive association between flextime and work–life balance, reduced work overload and stress, and increased job satisfaction. Peetz and colleagues (2011) indicate work pressure as a stronger predictor of work–life dissatisfaction. Another study using nationally representative samples reports that reluctance by employees to take recreational leave is associated with higher work–life conflict (Skinner & Pocock, 2013a). Employees' access to work–life policies is identified as a barrier to implement work–life practices in public organisations (Todd & Binns, 2013). Nowark and colleagues (2013) report discrepancy between work–life balance policy and practice at management level among health professionals. Furthermore, employee well-being is reported to have a stronger association with individual effort than organisational deliberation in providing WLB programs (Zheng, Kashi, Fan, Molinex, & Ee, 2015).

Brough and colleagues (2008) provide an insightful overview of work–life imbalance, and note its direct impacts on declining fertility rates and decreasing labour supply. Brough and colleagues (2014) further identify the need for construct refinement of WLB literature for Australian and New Zealand workers. Haar and Bardoel (2008) look at the positive spillover of the work–family interface. Whitehouse and colleagues (2008) examine the question of optimal duration of maternity leave for Australian mothers. Skinner and Pocock (2008) explore the role of employee work time, workload and schedule flexibility on work–life conflict.



Kalliath and Brough (2008) further underpin specific definition and measure of WLB that would serve as a critical outcome variable to validate current theoretical models describing the relationships between common antecedents, moderators, and outcome variables of WLB. Bardoel and colleagues (2008) conclude the need for Australian and New Zealand researchers to collaborate to improve the methodology of work–life studies, and this is what the present research tapped into through a mixed methods study.

The context of a research is widely recognized as an important dimension influencing the behavioral processes of any organized endeavor (Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). In supporting this, the identified studies have revealed several aspects of WLB concerning to its policies and practices spanning to various sectors in Australia irrespective of financial industry. Inherently, the current project being conducted in this industry has received much relevance and justification. Despite the important connection between work–life balance and its outcome, no study has comprehensively looked into the antecedents and constructs that might influence employees’ attitudes and job performance in the Australian financial sector. The ‘blackbox’ problem occurs when we know a relationship exists but we have little understanding of *how and why* it does (Lawrence, 1997). Research focusing on prediction rather than on explanation does not produce strong theory. It has also been acknowledged that research on the positive individual outcomes of WLB has been relatively slow to accumulate (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011; Maertz & Boyar, 2011), and that there has been limited investigation (see Appendix 2.1) of both the relevant antecedents linked to WLB, and how WLB influences employees’ attitudes and performance. The present study will examine the relations between antecedents and outcomes of work–life balance to further contribute to the existing body of knowledge.

As argued previously the contribution of the current research was in the financial industry in which a dearth of research had been conducted so far. The two research gaps identified were first the devoid of consensus on the definition of work-life balance followed by the lived experience of employees and supervisors. It was catered by the in-depth interview. Second the lack of a comprehensive investigation was warranted by harnessing the antecedents and outcomes of work-life balance

which was addressed through a questionnaire survey followed by structural equation modelling.

## 2.8 Research Questions

In light of the above discussion, the present study intends to provide a definition of WLB. Secondly, it will identify different antecedents linking to WLB and explain how WLB is related to employees' attitudes and performance. In general, the aim is to use a theoretical and practical lens to understand how employees and supervisors define and experience WLB, and how it is related to employee and organisational outcomes in the Australian financial sector. Table 2.1 presents the relevant research questions for the current study.

**Table 2.1 Research questions of the study**

Research Gaps	Approach	Research Question (RQ)	
Lack of a specific definition of WLB	Qualitative	RQ1	How is WLB defined? How is WLB experienced by employees? How is WLB experienced by supervisors?
No comprehensive investigation of the antecedents and outcomes of WLB in the Australian financial sector	Quantitative	RQ2	How is supervisor support related to employees' demands, conflicts and work-life balance?
		RQ3	How is perceived work and family demand related to work-family conflict and family-work conflict?
		RQ4	Does work-family conflict and family-work conflict influence each other?
		RQ5	Does work-family conflict and family-work conflict affect work-life balance?
		RQ6	How does work-life balance influence employees' attitudes?
		RQ7	Does employees' attitude influence job performance?
		RQ8	Does work-life balance relate to employees' job performance?

## **2.9 Summary**

This chapter provided an overview of conceptual differences of work–life balance, its antecedents, and likely outcomes. The work–life literature was examined in detail along with the relevant concepts from the body of knowledge and their effect on employee attitudes and behaviours. This resulted in the identification of two research gaps, leading to research questions which this study will address. Having explored the background of the research problem, Chapter 3 aims to explain the qualitative research design.

## **Abbreviations used in Chapter 3**

CBD: Central Business District

GRP: Gross Regional Product

GSP: Gross State Product

NSW: New South Wales

## **Chapter 3 Qualitative Research Design**

### **3.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter provided a description of the extant literature on work–life balance, followed by the research questions. It also substantiated the need for further research into work–life balance conceptualisation, its antecedents and outcomes. In order to pursue this research it was important to firstly identify and adopt the most appropriate research design to guide the study. The purpose of this chapter is to explain and justify the qualitative research design employed in this study. It begins with a brief discussion of the research paradigm, mixed methods, an outline of the research plan, and the methods of in-depth interview followed during the qualitative component of the inquiry.

### **3.2 Research Paradigm**

The term paradigm is best defined as a ‘worldview’ involving a ‘basic set of beliefs or assumptions’ that guide a researcher’s inquiry (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Creswell, 1998, Crotty, 1998; Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Before selecting an appropriate methodology for a study, it is essential to adopt a suitable paradigm that will provide a philosophical foundation for the research. A paradigm provides guidelines on how to conduct a study by specifying the most appropriate research methodology (Morgan, 1979; Creswell, 2007). There are different paradigms that researchers may choose to adopt and in this study two paradigms, namely constructivism and positivism, were explored.

The constructivist paradigm assumes that the social world is not a real objective world but rather is socially constructed and given meaning by people (De Laine, 1997, p. 35). Constructivists emphasise that research is a product of the values of the researchers and cannot be independent of them (Mertens, 2005). The researcher is viewed as a passionate participant who interacts with the respondents to construct the outcome of the inquiry (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Since the assumptions of the constructivist paradigm are subjective and the created knowledge is dependent on the interaction between the interviewer and the respondent, it is imperative for

researchers to understand the complex world of lived experiences from the point of view of those who live it (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Anderson, 1995; Schwandt, 2000). Advocates of this approach prefer using qualitative methods such as interviews and observations to inductively and holistically understand human experiences in context (Mertens, 2005).

In comparison, the positivist paradigm assumes that the social world exists externally and that its properties should be measured through objective methods rather than being inferred subjectively (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Lowe, 1991). Positivists search for the 'truth' by using the most effective and unbiased methods in order to bring out information that is factual (De Laine, 1997). Such an approach requires the research inquiry to be value free, with the investigator and the phenomenon being independent of each other (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). From this viewpoint, positivists use quantitative methods such as surveys and questionnaires to measure and analyse causal relationships between variables and test any existing theories, thus providing results that are replicable and generalisable (Deshpande, 1983; Easterby-Smith et al., 1991; Hunt, 1991; Rocco et al., 2003; Creswell, 2003). Furthermore, the researcher guided the participants in designing qualitative research through key themes set by interviews to acknowledge that it was not entirely inductive and constructivist approach rather combination of these two approaches.

The initial aim of this study was to explore the conceptualisation and lived experience of work–life balance of employees and supervisors who are working full-time in banks across Sydney, Australia. The latter aim was to develop, validate and pilot a questionnaire that would determine the antecedents and outcomes of work–life balance. The research questions for this study were, 'How is WLB defined by employees?', 'How is WLB experienced by supervisors?', 'Which family antecedents influence WLB?' and 'How does WLB influence attitudes and performance of employees?' It was clear that to achieve the aims and address the research questions, it was necessary to adopt a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches and shift paradigms during the different stages. This would allow for both inductive and deductive reasoning to be employed in a single study and would provide a better understanding of the research problem (Johnstone, 2004). Although there is a longstanding view that research paradigms cannot be mixed (Guba & Lincoln, 1988), several researchers now support the use of competing

paradigms in a single study (Patton, 1988; Hassard, 1993; Creswell, 1998, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, 2013). Patton (1988) pointed out that, ‘there is no logical reason why qualitative and quantitative approaches cannot be used together’ (p.117).

It is to be noted that the current project commenced in the constructivist paradigm (i.e. to explore the lived experience of work–life balance) for the qualitative work, then shifted to a positivist paradigm for the quantitative work (i.e. to investigate the relations between antecedents and the outcomes of work–life balance).

### **3.3 Mixed Methods**

There were a number of reasons for utilising mixed methods in this study. Firstly, it provided a practical way of addressing the research problem by allowing the use of multiple paradigms and methods (Green & Caracelli, 1997, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Mixed methods designs have been gaining acceptance within the social science research community, becoming established as the third research approach along with qualitative and quantitative research traditions (Creswell, 2013; Greene, 2007; Guest, 2013; Morgan, 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The rationale is that the use of both qualitative and quantitative research provides a better and richer understanding of research problems in complex contextual situations than either traditional research approach alone provides (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

The fundamental principle of a mixed methods approach is to combine the quantitative and qualitative data to produce a set of data that maximises complementary strengths and minimises non-overlapping weaknesses (Creswell, 2013; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003, 2012). Mixed methods allowed the collection of additional qualitative data using the constructivist paradigm and then utilising these data in a systemic positivist paradigm to obtain a validated questionnaire. Further, following this process of ‘development’, whereby the results from one method helped develop and inform the other method, improved the validity of the results obtained (Green, Caracelli & Graham, 1989). Lastly, the research claims were stronger and had more impact because the statistics were persuasive and the stories were easily remembered (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003, 2012). Mixed methods offered a highly robust, realistic and flexible framework for undertaking this study.

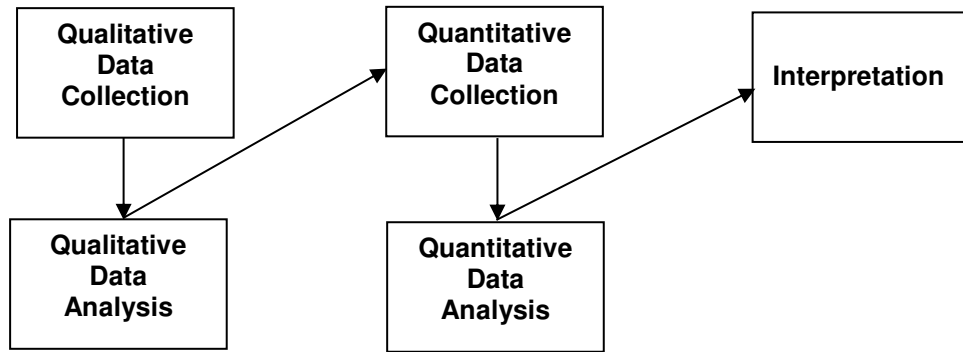
### **3.4 Outline of Research Design**

Once the mixed methods methodology for the study was selected, the next step involved formulating the research design. Research design refers to the plan of action that links philosophical assumptions to specific methods (Crotty, 1998; Creswell, 2003, 2013). The first step in planning the research design of a mixed method study is choosing whether the data should be collected in phases (sequentially) or at the same time (concurrently). The use of a qualitative method before the quantitative one may permit development of extended theory, identify the industry-specific dependent and independent variables, develop a measurement quantitative instrument (Onwuegbuzie, Bustamante, & Nelson, 2010), determine the adequate level of analysis, or give more attention to process research.

The qualitative method was followed by a quantitative method and involved a reasonable sample size ( $n=305$ ), where the issues identified were tested and confirmed using a questionnaire, thus providing a more complete picture of why and how different antecedents influence employees' work–life balance and subsequently, how work–life balance drives employees' attitudes and performance in the financial sector across Sydney, Australia. Such data would help strengthen any recommendations made on completion of the study. Taking all these study requirements into consideration, a sequential approach was undertaken for the collection of data (see Figure 3.1). This approach involved collecting qualitative and quantitative data in phases where the conclusions made from the first phase lead to the formulation of questions, data collection and data analysis in the next phase (Mertens, 2005, 2009).

This approach was particularly important given the previously discussed lack of consensus on the definition of work–life balance, and subsequent research to examine the antecedents and outcome of work–life balance of employees working in the financial industry. The present study commenced with a qualitative method that initially elicited rich, in-depth data on various issues of work and life interface being experienced by employees and supervisors working in banks. The qualitative data were analysed to develop a survey questionnaire to investigate the relations between antecedents and outcomes of work–life balance of employees in a broader domain across financial institutions in Sydney, Australia.





**Figure 3.1 Sequential mixed methods**

This design answered research questions by collecting both qualitative and quantitative data and providing inferences based on the results from the different stages of the study. According to Morgan (1998, 2007), the most frequently used sequential mixed method design involves a qualitative study followed by a quantitative research. Adopting a sequential mixed method design for this study had many advantages. Firstly, it is easy to implement and straightforward to describe and report (Creswell, 2003, 2013). It is viewed as the most appropriate design when testing elements of an emerging theory resulting from a qualitative phase, as in this research. It can also be used to determine the distribution of a particular phenomenon within a chosen population. This method has been cited as being especially advantageous when testing a questionnaire, as the initial qualitative phase assists in identifying the key areas that need to be addressed in the questionnaire, while the quantitative phase gives an opportunity to validate and refine the questionnaire (Creswell, 2003, 2013). Using a sequential mixed method design, this study was conducted over two distinct stages: namely in-depth interviews followed by survey questionnaires. In this way the study explored first the conceptualisation and lived experience of work–life balance, and later the results were used to inform the survey questionnaire to investigate the antecedents and outcome of work–life balance of employees working in the financial sector in Australia.

### **3.5 In-depth Interviews**

The in-depth interview is one of the most common research methods employed within the social sciences (Walter, 2013). A qualitative interview is essentially a conversation in which the interviewer establishes a general direction for the

conversation and pursues specific topics raised by the respondent (Babbie, 2016). In-depth, semi-structured interviews were chosen as the preferred method to collect data. Interviews and questionnaires together make up the survey method, which is one of the most popular techniques of social research. Interviews are employed as methods of data collection in most research designs, regardless of the underlying methodology (Sarantakos, 2013). This is an interaction between an interviewer and a respondent in which the interviewer has a general plan of inquiry, including the topics to be covered, but not a set of questions that must be asked with particular words and in a particular order. At the same time, the interviewer must be fully familiar with the questions to be asked. This allows the interview to proceed smoothly and naturally (Babbie, 2016).

### **3.5.1 Setting**

The setting for this stage of the study comprised four different banks operating across Sydney Metropolitan Area in Australia. According to A. T. Kearney's *Global Cities 2015*, Sydney is one of the world's top 16 *Global Elite* cities. It is ranked 15th on the Global Cities Index (based on current performance in business activity, human capital, information exchange, cultural experience and political engagement), and 11th in the Global Cities Outlook (based on future potential with respect to rate of change in well-being, economies, innovation and governance).

During the past five years the overall economic structure of the Sydney Metropolitan Region has changed, with a trend towards a greater contribution by the service sector, in line with many other regions in Australia. The financial and insurance services sector (\$51.8 billion; 18.9% of GRP) continues to account for around one-fifth of the Region's GRP, reflective of the significant financial sector and Sydney's status as one of the financial hubs of the Asia Pacific Region. Most of this activity is focused around the Sydney CBD. As Australia's main financial centre, Sydney is home to the Australian Stock Exchange and the Futures Exchange. More than 75% of all foreign and domestic banks in Australia have their headquarters located in Sydney. According to the 2011 census there were more than 151,000 workers employed in the finance and financial services sector in Greater Sydney. In 2013-2014 Sydney had a GRP (Gross Regional Product) of approximately \$334 billion per year, approximately one-fifth of Australia's GDP and nearly 70% of the NSW GSP

(Gross State Product). Sydney offers Australian and international companies a highly competitive base to expand in the world's fastest growing region, with more than 55% located within the city. Considering such a significant contribution to the national economy, the present study was undertaken in Sydney Metropolitan Area to enhance the ability to be representative of the Australian workforce.

### **3.5.2 Population and Sampling**

The population for this study consists of seven employees and seven managers ( $n=14$ ) from four different banks located in Sydney Metropolitan Area in Australia. A researcher achieves saturation when they are satisfied that they have fully captured the complexity and variation of a phenomenon (Dworkin, 2012; Marshall, Cordon, Poddar, & Fontenot, 2013; Roy et al., 2015).

Purposive sampling was used to select participants for the in-depth interviews following ethics approval from the university (see Appendix 3.1). Purposive sampling is a form of sampling that allows a researcher to select the sample based on a set of inclusion criteria (Acharya, Prakash, Saxena, & Nigam, 2013; Lee-Jen, Hui-Man, & Hao-Hsien, 2014). Purposive sampling is widely used in qualitative research to identify and select information-rich cases related to the phenomenon of interest (Palinkas et al., 2015). This sampling involves identifying and selecting individuals or groups of individuals that are especially knowledgeable about or experienced with a phenomenon of interest (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). This type of sampling involved the researcher targeting subjects who, in his opinion, were relevant to the research topic (Sarantakos, 2013; Creswell, 2013). Purposive sampling is an inexpensive form of sampling limited primarily by the inability of the researcher to determine bias as well as difficulties in generalising results from the sample to the population (Acharya et al., 2013). Purposive sampling also allows for the selection of participants based on their ability to provide a richness of information relevant to the study (Lee-Jen, Hui-Man, & Haso-Hsien, 2014). All participants were required to meet the inclusion criteria, whereby they had to have two years (or more) work experience, and be:

- Aged between 18 and 65 years
- Married
- Working full-time, i.e. at least 30 hours a week

- Recruited directly by the banks
- Living in a metropolitan area of Australia
- Fluent in the English language. (The need for participants to be involved in semi-structured in-depth interviews combined with the logistic difficulties and cost of obtaining interpreters meant that it was important for participants to speak English fluently) (see Appendix 3.2).

### **3.5.3 Recruitment of participants**

Potential participants were recruited using a snowball technique, whereby each person interviewed was asked to suggest additional people for interviewing (Sarantakos, 2013, p. 188). This sample reveals important aspects of the population being sampled, uncovering ‘the dynamics of natural and organic social networks (Noy, 2008, p. 329). The technique involved the researcher asking associates and friends (intermediaries) if they knew of anyone who might be willing to participate in the study. Adopting such an approach had a number of advantages:

- It ensured that the recruitment was at arm’s length from the researcher
- It lessened the chance of respondents being pressured into participating
- The privacy of respondents who refused to participate was retained. The identity of the respondent was not known until they had agreed in principle to participate
- There was a higher probability that the introduced respondents would qualify for the study. This was attributed to the fact that, when asking intermediaries about potential participants, the researcher was able explain to them the selection criteria before they spoke to anyone else.

There remained, however, a possibility that prospective participants might feel some pressure to participate. This was addressed by not making contact with the participants until they had given permission via the intermediary. During the initial telephone contact with potential participants, the researcher provided a brief outline about the nature and scope of the study. An Information Sheet (see Appendix 3.3) and Consent Form (see Appendix 3.4) were then mailed to all interested participants. An interview time and place was arranged either during the initial contact, or later, after the participants had read the information sheet. Respondents who were interested in participating after reading the information sheet were asked to contact the researcher via email to arrange the interview. In addition, all potential

participants were advised about the ethical considerations such as the voluntary and confidential nature of their participation, and their right to withdraw from the study at any time.

#### **3.5.4 Data Collection**

An important step prior to data collection process is to find people or places to study or to gain access to and establish rapport with participants so that they will provide good data (Creswell, 2013). In-depth, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the participants in their respective places of employment. Semi-structured interviews allow for some degree of formality and consistency in the interview process, while also allowing for flexibility in follow-up questions as additional themes emerge (Bernard, 2013). The purpose of the study was verbally explained to each participant before the interview began, and signed consent was obtained. Strategies such as probing by the researcher and storytelling by the respondents were used to ensure that most of the focus areas were addressed and to improve the quality of the data collected. In addition, brief demographic details (see Appendix 3.5) about the participants were collected.

The demographic information was deliberately obtained at the start of the interview, mainly because it provided a better portrait of the respondent's work and life situation and allowed more relevant questions to be framed. During the interview participants were asked about their lived experiences, feelings and expectations on work–life balance. Focus areas were developed to aid in the interviews and ensure that the interviewees were guided towards (but not restricted to) addressing similar topics (see Appendix 3.6). These focus areas were formulated after reviewing relevant work–life literature and after discussions with the research team. The focus areas explored various aspects of the participants' work, life and family domains that subsequently assisted in identifying different constructs of work–life balance to elicit a survey questionnaire to collect data for quantitative research. The focus areas included:

- The effect of working long hours on individual life and family
- The impact of taking work home, and bringing home concerns into the workplace
- Working late or on weekends, and consequences on life and family

- Meeting role expectation in the workplace, especially from supervisors, peers and subordinates
- Time for leisure during weekend, outings, spending time with family, children, and friends
- Satisfaction in job performance, life satisfaction, and the influencing drivers
- Work life/family conflict and family–work conflict and bi-directional effect
- Commitment to work and family and the way it is related to individual performance.

Probing is frequently used in in-depth interviews to help respondents provide accurate information and/or to refine and complete their answers (Sarantakos, 2013). It is a subtle way of stimulating the respondents without being dominant and expressing the researcher's own views (De Laine, 1997). Probing was effective especially when participants were unable to express their thoughts clearly or when the conversation deviated from the research topic. The concept of storytelling, on the other hand, was used to help participants depict their feelings through narrations and allowed them greater latitude in answering questions (Minichiello, Aroni, & Hays, 2008). Note taking was also utilised after the interview to record the researcher's interpretations and personal experiences of the interview, as well as to capture the participant's body language and visual responses (Minichiello, Aroni, & Hays, 2008). This complemented the data collected and added to its accuracy and completeness.

Researchers have warned that failure to record one's thoughts as soon as possible after the completed interview can mean permanent loss of valuable information (De Laine, 1997). In addition, during each interview any new ideas that emerged were used to shape the questions for subsequent interviews with other participants. This process assisted in the validation of emerging categories and helped to improve the focus of forthcoming interviews. The interviews were conducted by the same researcher during a period of four months. The duration of the interviews ranged in length from 25 minutes to 45 minutes, with the average length being 35 minutes. Interviews were carried out until a point of information redundancy was reached (Lincoln & Guba 1985; Lee, Mitchell, & Sablynski, 1999); that is, when the interviews no longer provided any new insights into the experiences of participants

on work–life balance. All interviews were audio taped and transcribed verbatim to aid with the data analysis.

### **3.5.5 Data Analysis**

The data analysis process began after the collection of data was complete (Maxwell, 2012). Data analysis is an iterative process that cannot be completely separated from the data collection process itself (Maxwell, 2012). Once all the interviews were completed and transcribed, the transcripts were analysed using thematic analysis. Thematic analysis offers an accessible and theoretically flexible approach to analysing qualitative data in relation to other qualitative analytic methods that search for themes or patterns (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The main objective of this stage was to explore conceptualisation, lived experience, feelings and expectations of work–life balance of employees and supervisors to identify categories and sub-categories that could be used to develop a questionnaire. Hence, the transcripts were read line by line in order to identify recurring patterns that were emerging pertaining to conceptualisation and lived experience of work–life balance. These patterns were then coded using NVIVO and arranged into categories (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Each of the transcripts was explored and statements relating to the codes identified were extracted and then organised into the various categories. Sub-categories were also identified by combining and cataloguing related patterns, thus adding meaning and depth to the main category. Quotes selected from the data served to illustrate each category and subcategory, and provided a concentrated, rich, concrete description of the phenomenon under study. Throughout this process the researcher moved back and forth between the data excerpts and the output of the content analysis in order to refine and validate the categories. Finally, the categories were discussed with the research team, who were experienced qualitative researchers, in order to verify that the data were appropriately clustered and that the categories made sense and fitted the data. This process added to the rigour of the analysis (Lee, Mitchell, & Sablinski., 1999).

### **3.5.6 Establishing Rapport**

In the past, numerous studies have shown interviewers' influence on data quality and survey cooperation as a function of: their personal characteristics and experience;

their psychological dispositions, such as their expectations, perceptions and motives; and their behaviour, including their method of communication (Olson & Peytchev, 2007). There is substantial evidence to indicate that the behaviour of survey interviewers influences not only whether answers will be accurate and honest (Schaeffer et al., 2010), but also whether respondents will agree to answer survey questions at all (Lipps & Pollien, 2011), and whether or not there are negative impacts from respondents' involvement in the research (Lewis & Graham, 2007). In order for the in-depth interviews to be successful it was imperative to develop a rapport with the participants and gain their trust, especially considering the sensitive nature of this research and the challenges these participants were enduring. The researcher's personal experiences of being a working parent for almost 15 years and experiencing work-life issues helped to better understand and acknowledge the concerns of these participants which, in turn, helped build the relationship. In addition, taking into account the time constraints of these participants, and accommodating their preferences regarding the timing and location of the interviews, as well as being sensitive to their work-life and family situation, contributed to the development of trust. Lastly, all information disclosed at the interviews was treated with the utmost confidentiality and respect.

### **3.5.7 Data Management**

All interviews were transcribed by a professional transcriber who ensured that the confidentiality of the information contained in the taped interviews would be maintained. The transcriber was also directed to record any expressions of emotion, such as laughter, tears, anger, as well as gaps and pauses. These expressions, along with the field notes that were analysed after each interview, were used to complement the data obtained from the transcripts (West, 1996). Once the interview transcripts were completed, each was checked against the original audio tapes for accuracy (Wellard & Mckenna, 2001).

### **3.5.8 Qualitative Data Analysis Software**

The introduction of software programs in the field of qualitative data analysis has produced mixed feelings in the academic community. Some researchers have high hopes about the advantages of using them; however, others have concerns and fears



about how the use of software will change or even distort qualitative research practice (Flick, 2014). The benefits that have been claimed are worth mentioning, such as speed in handling, managing, searching for and displaying data and related items like codes or memos in links to the data (Flick, 2014, p. 463). The present study used QSR NVIVO to code and analyse the data following data transcription. This software program provided a computerised means of exploring and searching the transcripts compared with doing the work manually, and allowed easier management and handling of the large volume of data collected (Richards, 1999). Demographic data of the interviewees were entered into the statistical software package SPSS, version 22 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, 2014).

### **3.6 Quality of Inquiry**

In order to judge the quality and rigour of qualitative research, the criterion of trustworthiness needs to be addressed (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Erlandson et al., 1993). The following section discusses this criterion and the strategies employed within the first stage of this study to achieve the quality of the research (George, 2008).

#### **3.6.1 Trustworthiness**

Trustworthiness is viewed as similar to the conventional concepts of internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity (Smith, 1990), and addresses the 'methods that can ensure one has carried out the [research] process correctly' (Guba & Lincoln, 1989, p. 245). A set of criteria were proposed for this research, for building and enhancing the trustworthiness of the qualitative research. These criteria include credibility (comparable to internal validity), transferability (comparable to external validity), dependability (comparable to reliability) and confirmability (comparable to objectivity) (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Guba & Lincoln, 1981, 1989).

Credibility is one of the most important factors in establishing trustworthiness and refers to the extent to which the findings of the study represent the multiple realities of the participants involved (Shenton, 2004). Several techniques have been suggested that can assist researchers in establishing credibility of the findings (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). In this study the following techniques were used: prolonged engagement; peer debriefing; peer scrutiny; and searching for discerning evidence. Prolonged

engagement involves the researcher spending sufficient time in data collection activities to have an in-depth understanding of the views of the participants under study (Polit & Beck, 2006). This technique is used to establish credibility of the findings and build trust and rapport with the participants. In the first stage of this study the researcher met the demands of prolonged engagement by:

- Visiting banks one after another and, while waiting for contact with respondents, observing employees' engagement in their work. This helped the researcher become familiar with the social setting of the study before data collection commenced
- Engaging with the participants at the time of recruitment in order to develop rapport with them; by conducting interviews at a convenient time; and spending time with the participants at the commencement of the interviews to assist in building trust
- Frequently listening to the interview tapes and re-reading the transcripts.

These experiences helped the researcher gain a better understanding of the reality of the situation for these parents. Further, the constant observations that were carried out throughout the study, such as 'fieldwork' and 'note taking', enabled the researcher to focus on relevant and important issues during the period of prolonged engagement and during the data collection and analysis stages.

Peer debriefing are discussions held with objective peers to review and explore various aspects of the inquiry (Polit & Beck, 2006). Through these discussions researchers can use the experiences and perceptions of more knowledgeable researchers to broaden their views of the phenomenon and identify any flaws in the research (Shenton, 2004). In this stage of the study frequent peer debriefing sessions were conducted with the research team, who were well versed in qualitative research and had knowledge about the phenomenon being studied (e.g. Vickers, 2006). Collaborating with the research team throughout the data collection and analysis stages, especially during thematic analysis, helped improve the credibility of the findings and further refine the study.

It is always advisable to have a research study scrutinised first by doctoral supervisors, then colleagues and academics through presentations while the study is being undertaken (Shenton, 2004). Feedback obtained through this process provides

a fresh perspective on the study and helps identify any flaws in the research methodology. The four conference presentations with a journal article undertaken during this study (see Page XIII) resulted in useful peer review feedback. This feedback helped to refine the research method and design, and improve the credibility of the study.

Researchers can enhance data credibility by searching for data that challenge emerging concepts (Polit & Beck, 2006). This search for discerning evidence can be facilitated through purposive sampling. Sampling individuals who can offer different and even conflicting viewpoints can greatly strengthen the description of the phenomenon. In this process of inquiry, purposive sampling was utilised to ensure that there was some diversity in the participants recruited. The final sample consisted of participants with different characteristics including: gender; marital status; type of employment; positions; and household income. This diversity helped in collecting a wide range of experiences by these participants and provided a comprehensive account of the interplay between work and life of these respondents in the real world, thereby enhancing the credibility of the findings.

### **3.6.2 Transferability**

Transferability refers to the extent to which the findings from the data can be transferred to other settings or groups (Merriam, 1998; Polit & Beck, 2006). In order to show transferability of the findings, researchers should provide detailed description in the study for readers to evaluate the applicability of the data to other contexts (Erlandson et al., 1993). Detailed description refers to a rich, thorough description of the research process observed during the inquiry. In the first stage of the study, precise and sufficiently detailed descriptions of the settings, participants, data collection and analysis procedures are presented to the reader. In addition, direct quotes from the participants are used to allow the reader to have a better understanding of the context. This detailed description will hopefully enable others interested in applying the findings within their research context to reach a conclusion about the transferability of the findings.

### **3.6.3 Dependability and Confirmability**

Dependability refers to the criterion of consistency, that is, the extent to which similar findings can be obtained if the study is repeated, in the same context with the same methods and participants (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Shenton, 2004). Confirmability, on the other hand, is concerned with ensuring that the findings are the result of the experiences and ideas of the participants, rather than of the characteristics and preferences of the researcher. Researchers stress that both dependability and credibility are closely related and argue that, in practice, demonstrating the former helps ensure the latter (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In order to address both of these criteria, it is advised that the processes within the study should be reported in detail, thereby allowing the reader to assess the extent to which proper research practices have been followed and to determine how much of the data and the constructs emerging from it may be accepted. In this study, both the dependability and confirmability of the research findings were addressed by systematically recording all methodological decisions and steps of data collection, as well as ensuring that the data interpretations were a true representation of the participants' experiences.

### **3.7 Summary**

To summarise, Chapter 3 has presented a discussion of the methodology that was employed in this study. A two-stage, sequential mixed method design was adopted to help address the objectives of the study, which were to initially explore the conceptualisation and lived experience of employees on work–life balance, and then to confirm, using a survey questionnaire elicited from interview findings, antecedents driving work–life balance and how these influence employees' attitude and performance working in the financial sector in Sydney, Australia. The next chapter will discuss the qualitative findings of the research project.

## **Abbreviations used in Chapter 4**

WLB: Work-Life Balance

WLC: Work-Life Conflict

## **Chapter 4 Qualitative Findings**

### **4.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter discussed and justified the qualitative research design. This chapter presents the qualitative findings through in-depth interviews. It provides a descriptive account of the conceptualisation, lived experiences, feelings and expectations of employees and supervisors in relation to their work and life. The analysis also shows how this influences the attitudes and performance of employees who are working full-time in banks across Sydney, Australia. The chapter begins by providing a profile of the participants. Next, a brief introduction of each participant interview is presented. The chapter concludes with a summary of the findings.

### **4.2 Profile of the Participants**

A total of 19 employees and supervisors expressed their interest in participating in the qualitative interviews. Of these, three participants did not satisfy the selection criteria and two participants later decided not to participate due to personal reasons. The remaining 14 participants comprised eight males and six females. The ages of participants ranged from 25 to 60 years, with an average age of 42 years ( $SD = 2.8$ ). Most participants were within the age bracket of 40–49; the youngest was in the 20–29 age brackets, and the oldest was in the 60–69 brackets. The level of education of respondents was: bachelor (6), graduate diploma (5), diploma/certificate (2) and postgraduate (1). Almost all respondents interviewed were married and had two children. Half of the participants were managers and the rest were non-managers. Eight participants reported work experience between 1–20 years. Table 4.1 provides a summary of the demographic characteristics of the employees and supervisors interviewed.

**Table 4.1 Summary of the demographic profile of participants**

<b>Characteristics of participants (n=14)</b>	<b>Frequency (%)</b>
<b>Sex</b>	
Male	8(57)
Female	6 (43)
<b>Age (in years)</b>	
20-29	1 (7)
30-39	3 (21)
40-49	5 (36)
50-59	4 (29)
60-69	1 (7)
<b>Education</b>	
Diploma/Certificate	2 (14)
Graduate Diploma	5(36)
Bachelor	6 (43)
Postgraduate	1 (7)
<b>Marital status</b>	
Single	1 (7)
Married/Partnered	13 (93)
<b>Number of Children</b>	
0-2	12 (86)
3-5	1 (7)
6-8	1 (7)
<b>Position</b>	
Employee	7 (50)
Manager	7 (50)
<b>Tenure (in years)</b>	
1-10	4 (14)
11-20	4 (22)
21-30	3 (14)
31+	3 (22)

*Note: Percentages have been rounded*

### **4.3 Introducing the Participants**

A brief introduction of all the participants is included before the findings to provide contextual information about their lives. These details are provided as they were conveyed at the time of interview. Pseudonyms have been used for the participants' names. Table 4.2 provides an overview of the participants.

**Table 4.2 Overview of the participants**

Pseudonyms	Age	Sex	Education	Marital Status	Number of Children	Position	Tenure
Al	45	M	Bachelor	Married	4	Mgr	20
Bo	60	M	Bachelor	Married	2	Mgr	40
Ch	35	M	Graduate Diploma	Married	1	PB	7
Jo	50	M	Postgraduate	Married	2	DM	27
La	48	F	Graduate Diploma	Married	1	PB	23
Leo	50	F	Intermediate	Married	1	HT	12
Le	43	M	Bachelor	Married	2	Mgr	24
Pe	40	M	Graduate Diploma	Married	2	PB	11
Sam	33	F	Bachelor	Married	1	PB	4
Tra	46	F	Bachelor	Married	2	Mgr	15
Am	25	F	Bachelor	Married	0	PB	3
Jos	51	F	Intermediate	Married	2	PB	26
Mi	33	M	Graduate Diploma	Married	2	Mgr	8
Gr	58	M	Graduate Diploma	Married	7	Mgr	35

Notes: M=Male; F=Female; DM=District Manager; Mgr=Manager; PB=Personal Banker; HT=Head Teller

#### 4.4 Findings

Several themes and sub-themes emerged from the interview data. Only the findings pertinent to the work and life process being experienced by the respondents are mentioned here. Table 4.3 provides an overview of the relevant themes that emanated from the data. The lived experiences of employees and supervisors were explored with regard to: long working hours; taking work home; meeting role expectations in work and family domain; enjoying leisure time; satisfaction with job and life and work performance; work–life conflict, and commitment to work. These are discussed in the following sections under the three major themes identified, namely:

1. Work–Life Balance
2. Work–Life Conflict
3. Individual Performance.



**Table 4.3 Themes and Subthemes**

<b>Themes</b>	<b>Sub Themes</b>
Work–Life Balance	Understanding and perceptions
	Supervisor support
	Home life
	Work life
Work–Life Conflict	Individual impact
	Working longer
Individual Performance	Job satisfaction
	Life satisfaction
	Commitment

#### **4.4.1 Work–Life Balance**

Practitioner and academic interest in work–life balance evolved from substantial demographic and technological shifts such as the increased participation of women in the workforce, the changes in family structures, and the increase of flexible work options. Worldwide, there is increasing recognition that work–life issues are highly salient for many people. Four subthemes emerged that identified a broader domain of work–life balance (Table 4.4).

**Table 4.4 Work–Life Balance Subthemes**

<b>Themes</b>	<b>Sub Themes</b>
Work–Life Balance	Understanding and perceptions
	Supervisor support
	Home life
	Work life

##### *4.4.1.1 Understanding and Perceptions*

‘Work–life balance’ is a contested term as the ‘balance’ suggests that work is not integral to life, rather a simple trade-off between the two spheres (Gregory & Milner, 2009). Gambles, Lewis and Rapoport (2006) have argued that the word ‘balance’ implies a trade-off between the two parts whereas in reality there is great overlap between these two worlds with ‘no clear-cut distinction between the world of work and the work of family, friends and social networks and community’ (Taylor, 2002,

p. 17). One of the main objectives of this study was to explore the understanding and meaning of work–life balance, given the subjectivity of it. Definitions from the 14 participants show how interpretations of the term differ from one to the other.

With regard to understanding and perception of ‘work–life balance’, a male manager asserts that it is the individual’s ability to put in work for the day and also to have ‘quality of life’. It is not only to attending to work but also an ability to find the right balance between work, family and leisure:

*It’s having the ability to obviously do a day’s work and then making sure that the quality of life is good as well. So not just focus on work, but having time to balance with family, leisure, and all those sorts of things. So trying to get that right is the challenge, I guess (Al).*

With regard to lived experience, understanding and perception of ‘work–life balance’, another male manager contends that it stems from having sufficient time to be successful in his job to the best of ability, and sufficient time to unwind in his personal and family life:

*To me (it) is having enough time to be successful at my work and being able to do my job to the best of ability, which is not going to impact too greatly on my personal or family life. That’s how I would define work–life balance. It’s a balance between the amount of work you’re doing and the amount of time you get to recharge (Bo).*

Ch, a male employee, understands ‘work–life balance’ as being able to enjoy a healthy balance between work, family and social life. He also sees it as an important balance between customers, staff and teams in the workplace. He strives not to take his work home and his home concerns to work:

*It’s maintaining a healthy balance between working, focusing on work, and balancing family and social life and that sort of thing. It’s the balance between what we do here at work with our customers, and our staff and our team at work versus ... and obviously, it’s very important to maintain a good work-life balance, otherwise all sorts of things could happen. You’ve got to try and not take work home with you and you got to try and not bring your personal life to work (Ch).*

Jo, a male manager, contends that ‘work–life balance’ is about giving time for the family and to delivering what is required in the workplace. He also sees it as contributing to economic advantage, as in by planning and working in a group or team in such a way that would help balance work and life and thereby benefit the workplace. Planning is essential regardless of the job role or responsibilities, which might be a small team of two or a large team as they have in the bank. It is rare for someone to work completely alone. As a manager he encourages others to become involved in the team, as it can make them effective workers, which in turn aids them to have enough time to balance their work and home. Even in the most isolated situations where employees may be alone physically, there is still a work plan, a communication process and team work. He also says that as a member of a team it is important to realise that the actions of every individual impact on the team as a whole. As such, he manages the time needed to balance his work and family life:

*For me the work–life balance piece is about having time for the family but also being able to deliver what I need to at work. Sometimes it’s about time and the quality of time that you spend. Sometimes it’s around the economic advantage that you can create by working in a certain way (Jo).*

La, a female employee, asserts that ‘work–life balance’ is to think about work and family as a whole, and not to focus on one at the expense of another. To do so might result in negative outcomes outside of work:

*To have a proper balance of everything, (you) just can’t concentrate on your work and not spending enough time with the family and friends because otherwise your relationship will get affected, your family life will get affected. So you really have to think of everything (La).*

Leo, a female employee, understands ‘work–life balance’ as a trade-off between spending time at work, at home, and at two separate nursing homes where her parents lived with dementia. Her case was different from others. As a full-time employee it had become challenging for her to balance work and home life, as she needed to care for her ailing parents, and work to pay for their care. Sometimes negative outcomes associated with stress and strain can erode the way an individual functions at work, as is in her case. The accumulated demand put her under severe stress, which affected her physical, mental and emotional health:

*My work–life balance at the moment, it's fine. Previously, no it wasn't. I had my father in a nursing home and my mother in a nursing home and I was working full-time, running down picking mum up from her nursing home, taking her to see my dad in another nursing home. Coming home and yeah, trying to balance the whole lot. So it was very, very difficult (Leo).*

Le, a male manager, understands 'work–life balance' as putting his family before his work: he likes his work but loves his children and prioritises his family before work. He says that when people leave an organisation or a job, the organisation would move on without notice, but his family would be the only one that went with him. He also says that no one is irreplaceable in their job. Life moves on, jobs and careers change, but when the family is lost that will never return:

*Just having time to spend with my family. I've got two young daughters, so as long as I can do what I need to do with them, then that's... Yes, family is more important than work, yes. Well, I like my work, but I love my kids (Le).*

Pe, an employee, states that work–life balance is the extent of time people spare for work, for themselves and for their family. It is an allocation of time to balance both work and family requirements:

*Work–life balance is managing how much work you have, how much you work and how much time you have for yourself, (which) includes your family as well. (Pe)*

Sam, a female employee, associates 'work–life balance' with having sufficient time to perform duties associated with home and work. Her previous workplace was further away from her house, so managing family responsibilities and getting to work on time was difficult. To her, being part of an organisation that supported employees to find a workplace near to home was important:

*It depends on how many hours I'm working and what time because this is a very good place for me. Because previously, I was working in Chester Hill. That is really hard to me because I have to drop my son and go over there, then I come here and my son's school is on the way. So it's really good for me, if I start – I can drop my son at school then start the work (Sam).*

Tra, a female manager, asserts 'work-life balance' is to have normal life with everyone in the family, and not having to spend extra time for work that could be spent with family:

*Work-life balance to me is making sure that my family life isn't affected and we can continue to do or have a normal life where I can be with my husband and children and not be over-extended (in) my work time (Tra).*

Mi, a male manager, sees 'work-life balance' as working set hours that he is paid for, and spending quality time with family throughout the week and at weekends:

*For me, work-life balance? Working your set hours that you are paid to do and obviously being able to spend quality time with the family, both during the week. Make sure you're home for dinner, going to get a chance to converse at home with family. Spend some time with the kids and then obviously on the weekends to go away or have a picnic or do something outside of the house, something leisurely outside the house (Mi).*

It has been elicited from the definitions above that employees and managers have slightly different views and experiences of work-life balance. For example, 'quality of life', 'economic advantage', 'prioritising family', and 'normal life' surrounding work-life balance are mentioned by most managers. In contrast, most employees focused on 'healthy balance', 'mitigating stress', 'equalising work and family time', and 'avoiding work at the expense of family'. With regard to the managers' viewpoint, both 'quality of life' and 'quality of time' are subject to involvement in multiple roles that either protect or buffer individuals from the effects of negative experiences. For those managers, work-life balance can promote their well-being, resulting in low levels of stress within their work and family roles. A balanced involvement in work and life roles may also augment work-life balance because they are fully engaged in both roles, with the ability to develop routines that enable them to balance all demands. A balanced engagement in work and life roles is expected to be associated with individual quality of life because such balance augments work-life balance and reduces stress, both of which affect quality of life and quality of time.

With regard to the employees' viewpoint, it can be contended that an equal involvement of time in work and life would reduce stress and provide a healthy

balance. For example, those employees who devote a substantial amount of time to their combined work and family roles and distribute this time equally between the two roles exhibit positive time balance.

#### *4.4.1.2 Supervisor Support*

A supportive supervisor helps boost an employee's energy level by discussing life and family-related problems, reinforces the employee's positive self-image by providing feedback, and reduces stress by showing an interest in the employee's family life. This emotional support at work helps balance work and family roles because it contributes to the employee's energy level. Participants speak of the understanding that exists in their organisation in terms of asking colleagues about their family, children and others, whereby it is understood that how employees are doing in their daily life at home will affect them in the workplace. Participants mentioned various forms of support within the workplace that helped in dealing with tensions in balancing work and family responsibilities. Informal support was one of the dominant sources of support in the work role. Al, a male manager, said he took pride in creating a family-supportive work environment (which is rare). He encouraged staff to share information, listened to employees' personal and family concerns, and acted on suggestions. He was flexible to the employees when any needs arose and helped them achieve their work-life balance. This was reflected in the following comment:

*So look, I have the conversation with my staff regularly around how's family life, how's the... when I get a chance obviously... but on the Monday we will, 'how was your weekend', just more cordial chat. I'll be honest, I don't know the ins and outs of everyone here, but I know basically who is married, who's got kids, how many kids they've got. I often ask what the plan is for the weekend, just so that I know that they're doing stuff as well to get their mind off work. I have staff that will ask me that if they need to leave early because they've got an appointment with their kids or whatever, or doctors or something, and not an issue for me. Because I know that I will get that back later on through they're staying back a little bit longer or having a shorter lunch break (Al).*

La, a female employee, asserts that she is content to have support in terms of flexibility from the bank. She can adjust her work time after discussion with her

manager. For example, when she needs time to address any immediate matters (e.g. plumbing repairs), she gets support from her manager: if she wants to get off early she can do that. In exchange, when her manager needs her to stay longer she is happy to do so. There is no obligation for the organisation to offer any flexible arrangement; however, to do so creates a win-win situation. In essence, if employees are committed to their work and the manager acknowledges their needs and gives them the opportunity to address their home and/or personal issues, this is good for both parties in the sense that they have mutual understanding and trust, and a friendly and productive work culture. Provision of such flexibility and support from the organisation is important for employees seeking a work–life balance:

*My hours are 8:15 to 4:30 and I'm happy with it. I've got a manager who's very flexible, so if I say to him, oh ... can I leave early today because I've got something to do in the afternoon or whatever, he'll never say no. At the same time I could come the next day and start early to balance it out because I really believe that it works both ways: the give and take policy (La).*

Supervisor support helps employees function better at work to find a work–life fit. Supervisors may signal support by enquiring about employees' family needs or expressing concerns and encouragement to employees who feel strained by the competition emerging from work and family. Supervisors can also grant assistance such as allowing employees to have more flexible work schedules to accommodate their family needs or to bring their children to work when child care arrangements are not available. When employees believe that their supervisors care about their family needs, they may respond by having more positive perceptions of their work environment in the form of more satisfaction with their jobs and greater willingness to continue their employment with the organisation. In the end, supervisor support assists to create better work and life balance.

#### *4.4.1.3 Home Life*

One's functioning at home may influence or facilitate one's functioning at work in a positive or negative way and vice versa. Organisations are becoming more attuned to the fact that employees have sick children or elderly parents who need special care, and other family issues that may require special arrangements. Men and women experience the demands of work and family differently, as it is generally women who assume greater responsibility for domestic and caring work while participating in

paid work. Child care responsibilities are a key factor contributing to women's fragmented labour force participation and a significant barrier to occupational mobility in almost every economy. Gr, a male manager, says that sharing house chores is a crucial responsibility to integrate between work and family. His wife is also working. They have children to take care of. Traditionally, it is a common situation for dual career couple, but both of them compromise and share their household chores such as child caring, cooking, cleaning, shopping, fetching water, and washing. For such a family it is a challenge to manage work and home demands:

*Well, it will do, and there's a balance there. If you're both working, who's going to be home for the children when they come home from school? So you have to share the load. That's something - marriage, family life is a partnership. A lot of compromises. Well, if you've got young children and they need their nappies changed, you change their nappies. You don't say well, that's your job. It's a joint effort. Washing needs to be done, washing up, cooking dinner. I don't have any problems in doing all that sort of stuff and I've done all that sort of stuff and I still do that sort of stuff. It's a joint thing (Gr).*

Planning special family activities and finding time to execute these plans are surely valuable (Kremer-Sadlik & Paugh, 2007). It is proposed that everyday moments of social interaction are significant in affording family members the opportunity to feel connected to one another and to enhance their sense of family well-being (Kremer-Sadlik & Paugh, 2007). In critically examining the notion of 'quality time', it is suggested a shift in focus from 'blocks' of time devoted to the family, which parents often find unattainable (Daly, 1996), to the daily, unmarked, unnoticed aspects of family life. Consistent with this, a male employee aims to pass time effectively with children while interacting with them:

*I spoke to a life coach and everything like that and she said, so when you do spend time with your kids, what are you doing? Oh I have fun, I go and do this, I go and do that. She said, so there're parents who stay at home probably a lot less than you and they don't do things with their kids, they sit there and watch TV. Then they go outside and they might mow the lawns. Then they go and do this and do that. There's no interaction with their kids... Influencing your kids, whether it's TV and advertisements... But as long as you can be their rock, you*



*can be the person that they can come to, that's the only thing. I think you still have to give them independence, but it's also when you're at home you have to... (Pe)*

Family relations, like other social relations, are established through routine practices and shared experiences that involve family members (DeVault, 2000). These relations, DeVault (2000) points out, are sustained primarily through the invisible daily work of mothers and fathers (such as preparing breakfast, helping with homework, or saying good night). Family system research has shown that relationships between couples, siblings, and parent–children are interdependent and that the quality of relationships between individual family members influences the quality of the relationships of other family members (Minuchin, 2002; Lamb & Lewis, 2004). It is further contended that communication and spending time together as foundations for family strength and child well-being (March, 2003).

#### *4.4.1.4 Work Life*

A significant amount of employees' time is being spent at work in the office. Some factors such as job sharing and benefits could drive employees' attitudes in the workplace. It is pertinent to say that employees' attitudes and behaviour in the workplace can impact their family life. In the workplace, 'job sharing' is an option for employees who are looking for more balance between their personal and work schedules. As Al says, he shares house chores every day with his wife, and it is being done in the office too. Both he and his wife work. He may go home and help the children to bathe and get ready for bed, while his wife makes dinner. Or, if it suits, he goes home early to make dinner. They have four children; he does not expect her to take all loads alone.

*I mean look with my (wife) - we compromise. So if my wife - because my wife works as well. So we share the load. So I may come home and I may bath the kids or get the kids ready for bed, put them to bed, and she might make the dinner, or whatever it takes. Or alternatively, she's had a bad day and maybe I come home and I might make the dinner. Not always take away. There's a couple of spaghetti bolognese, and a couple of things. But we share the load. We have to. Especially with the four kids, I can't expect her to do it all. I'll clean the house. I'll help her. I'll do washing. So that's the choice that I make to contribute. Because again, my wife works full-time so I can't have that*

*expectation that you're the wife, you need to look after the kids and run the house. Because I wouldn't have a happy life or a happy wife (Al).*

Most people expect to receive due benefits from their employers. Such benefits, e.g. maternity leave, parental leave, bonuses, casual leave, are the obligations of the organisation. One participant outlined the benefits his organisation provided. For example, he received sufficient paid parental leave (three months leave with payment) as soon as his wife delivered their baby. The bank also gave support for him to attend a funeral when required. It was possible to get a day off for charity work. He felt that his employer provided adequate benefits whenever he needed them:

*Look, the bank's very good. If your wife gives birth, the male gets two weeks off straight away. The male also gets parental leave for three months: three months' fully paid leave. You have to provide a statutory declaration and you have to provide the birth certificate for your child and you can't take the time off the same time as your wife. If your wife is receiving Centrelink payments or parental payments or baby bonus, you can't do that. She has to be back at work full-time for you to do it. When my son was born, I got three months off. They're good with things like that. If you've got a funeral, they'll give you the day off for the funeral. We actually get one charity day per year. If you want to do some sort of charity work, you get one day per year to do some charity work. Melissa, she's done a Woman in Business Charity Day, had a raffle and all that sort of thing. They had a big day. I think she took a Friday off. So, yeah, they're really good. This bank - I don't know about other banks - this bank is really good with that sort of stuff (Ch).*

#### **4.4.2 Work–Life Conflict**

A complementary perspective to the WLB literature is that lack of balance may lead to conflicts between life domains. Work–life conflict (WLC) is seen as the opposite pole on a continuum moving from a state of complete balance to a state of imbalance and then to conflicts. WLC is a form of inter-role conflict in which role pressures from the work and life domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in the work (life) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation

in the life (work) role. Two subthemes emerged from the interviews that identified the broader domain of WLC (Table 4.5).

**Table 4.5 Work–Life Conflict Subthemes**

Themes	Sub Themes
Work-Life Conflict	Individual impact
	Working longer

#### 4.4.2.1 Individual Impact

Work and life issues have an impact on individuals who strive to manage both sides concurrently. For example if employees are overloaded with work, that could influence their family life. Similarly, if people have issues at home, they are simply preoccupied so such that they may not be able concentrate on the job. As Mi says:

*Work hours and work–life balance, obviously that’s very important but there are other things that factor in. That’s pressures of performing and making sure you’re hitting targets and fulfilling your duties every single day. So it’s not just work hours. It’s a mixture of different things that impact you. At the end of the day, it’s all going to affect you. Some people do it very well, in the sense that they can put their stresses and their work to the side. Some people, they can’t. They think about it all the time and can’t get it off their mind. I can be like that sometimes where I can’t switch off, so I’ll go home and I’m still thinking about work, what I’m going to do tomorrow, how am I going to plan my day. Over the weekend, the same sort of thing. You tend to not - I tend to not be able to take my mind off work altogether and that’s I think because of demand, performance, results, work hours - all that stuff has a lot to do with it (Mi).*

Al asserts that when he has big issues in life, they affect him in his work and family domain. So, if employees have issues at work they could affect both their family and their work life. It is a challenge either way. How an individual copes depends on their capacity to buffer work and life roles. Participants discussed how pressures from heavy workloads impacted on their family obligations by making them tired and thereby limiting their ability to perform effectively in the family:

*Oh 100 per cent. So if you're having big issues in your life, it can have massive impacts on work. If you're having issues in work, that can also bring home impacts on the family life. So if you're getting, say, pressured from your boss, you feel the stress: (it) can impact your life, your family life. Likewise if you've got issues at home with the family, it can impact your ability to concentrate at work because you're preoccupied with other issues. So it's the challenge. Then it's difficult sometimes to leave work issues at work and home issues - it really depends on the individual (Al).*

In the workplace, there are pressures and demands for employees to meet expected targets. These targets may or may not be realistic, and may affect employees and their performance. Some people can meet their targets with ease, while others cannot, and sometimes it depends on how one can separate stress from work and family. Many people are obsessed with how to fulfil targets, and balance work pressure and demands. It is true that demands associated with the work role can interfere with the family domain and demands associated with the family role spill over to the work domain. Interference of the work role into family or leisure time has a number of effects on an individual. Sometimes, undue pressure from employers regarding role performance can have negative impact on an individual. In the same vein, an individual's family issues might affect their work performance.

#### *4.4.2.2 Working Longer*

Long working hours have serious adverse outcomes. These include increased difficulty in balancing work and family life, poor relationships with family members, possible negative effects on children's emotional and intellectual development, and the risk of workers experiencing a range of physical and mental health disorders. It is so pervasive that it affects almost everyone, no matter whether someone works as an employee or manager. As Ch, a male employee, asserts that the definition of 'working long hours' is subjective and differs from one to another. For him, it is the mortgage, he works longer, but in general he feels that working long hours is not good for family and life. It also depends on whether it's day or night. Sometimes working longer does not allow him to see his family members. For example, he might leave before the rest of the house wakes up, and return when they are in bed, so he does not see anyone awake. The following morning the children go to school while he is asleep, and so on:

*Here's the thing about my particular situation. I have to work long hours because I have two mortgages and a loan and a family and that sort of thing. But if you're talking in general, sometimes working long hours can't be good for families. I suppose it depends because sometimes working long hours like as in overnight - if you start at 3:00 in the afternoon, you're working all the way to the morning, something like that, that's... It depends on what you do. If you do it during the day, it's not too bad. If you're doing overnight, that depends. I still reckon it depends. If you work through the day it's not too bad because your children are at school, but if its long hours and its overnight, you don't get to see your family because you will be sleeping during the day or what-not. I think it depends. It depends on what someone's definition of long hours is (Ch).*

Similarly, another male manager reports that he usually gets a phone call from his family when he is working late. When he has to audit across branches he needs to stay longer. It affects his life, especially when his children expect him to be at home to have dinner and bedtime together. It also meant that at weekends he felt he should spend time with the family rather than on pursuing his own leisure interests:

*Yeah, definitely. So working long hours, I've recently had an audit done on the branch, so I was spending a lot of time just making sure that everything was compliant. I'd often get the calls from my wife, 5:30, what time are you going to be home? Then it's 6:15, you're not home yet. It's seven o'clock, why are you still there? It's been eight o'clock and I've thought, geez I better get home. So I do have that problem. But ... there was a motivator there that I needed to ensure that I was going to be okay for my audit. But it does impact me; it impacts the time that I spend with - putting my kids to bed, the time with my wife, having a family dinner. So for me, then I've got to make that up in the weekend by either spending more time with the family as opposed to doing things that I want to do on my own. So yeah, there are certainly some challenges around that environment (Al).*

The rationale is that by reducing time on the job, excessive job demands would be decreased and flexibility increased, resulting in lower distress that would help both employee and managers to match the demand from family. Given that time is a finite resource that cannot be expanded through engagement in multiple roles, an hour

devoted to one domain represents an hour that is not available to the other domain. Energy may also be used up through longer hours at work, such that people who work longer hours have less energy available to meet family demands. Long working hours are expected to reduce people’s ability to meet family demands, thereby diminishing their satisfaction with work–life balance. In other words, the more hours people work, the more likely it is that role demands will outstrip resources and the less likely people are to feel successful at handling all of their work–life and family demands.

#### 4.4.3 Individual Performance

Performance emanates from in-role performance the ‘behaviour directed toward formal tasks, duties, and responsibilities such as those included in a job description’ (Williams & Anderson, 1991, p. 606). Indeed, one of the foremost ideas of studying work and family interactions from an organisational standpoint is that, when employees are able to manage work and family domains, they will perform better in the work domain. It does make sense that if someone is not contented with their job, family and life, that would undermine their expected level of performance in a given time. Three subthemes emerged from the 14 interviews that identified the broader domain of individual performance (Table 4.6).

**Table 4.6 Individual Performance Subthemes**

Themes	Sub Themes
Individual Performance	Job satisfaction
	Life satisfaction
	Commitment

##### 4.4.3.1 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a ‘pleasurable positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences’ (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). It can be characterised as an attitude concerning the extent to which people like or dislike their jobs. Job satisfaction is the result of employees’ perception of how well their job provides those things that are viewed as important. Different arguments in the literature explain the positive relationship between the existence of WLB practices and employees’ job satisfaction. Male employee Jo says that for him job satisfaction

relates to being challenged at work – not doing exactly the same thing every day – and to be successful in his role:

*I think for me job satisfaction is around being challenged. So I wouldn't like to do the same thing every day. Having said that I've done pretty much the - I've been with this organisation for 28 years, I've been in this exact role for 15 years. So I think - people say to me you've done the same job for a long time. But in real terms my job is never the same. So every day is different. I go to different places. So I think for me satisfaction comes out of a couple of things. (1) is the point of difference and (2) is I like to win. The role that I do gives me an environment to be able to drive performance in a way that I feel that I'm making a difference. I can be successful and success - what success looks like will vary through time. There'll be different drivers as far as what the organisation wants or what I see as the priorities for my area. So that is the key part for me. I couldn't do the same thing every day (Jo).*

Bo, a male manager, says job satisfaction is about being willing to 'have a go'. For him satisfaction didn't necessarily result in immediate success, rather it lay in making an effort, learning from it, and believing success could result eventually. He believed that people who lacked job satisfaction were not self-motivated. These people would complain about their work, procedure, processes and fellow staff. They treated work as a job, not as a career, and to them the pay was the only reason for doing the job:

*Job satisfaction's all about being an achiever. The people who have job satisfaction are the people who hop in, have a go. Not always successful, you don't have to be successful all the time but they're still getting job satisfaction. I had a go at that, I didn't do a very good job but next time I've learnt and I'll be able to do it better the next time. The people with low job satisfaction are again the people that are only working because they have to. I don't know of a single person who doesn't have good job satisfaction who is motivated. All the motivated people are getting job satisfaction. People, like I said, who are unmotivated are just looking to the next Thursday to get paid. (They) are the people who complain about how things are or what you've got to do and complain about procedures and processes and things; they're always whining about something because it is a job, it is not a career. They don't see that doing*

*a good job is what you get paid for. They think they get paid and doing the job is secondary. The pay is number one (Bo).*

Different individuals obtain job satisfaction in different ways, though motivation is a key driver, as is the belief that they are 'making a difference'. Motivated people tend to be satisfied by the challenge and process of work, irrespective of an immediate outcome or success. This sense of satisfaction results in a positive attitude that can assist people to meet not only work demands but also family demands, thus boosting work–life balance.

#### *4.4.3.2 Life Satisfaction*

Life satisfaction is 'a conscious cognitive judgment of one's life in which the criteria for judgement are up to the person' (Pavot & Diener, 1993, p. 164). Individuals who are satisfied with their work will enjoy a chunk of their lives that people who cannot stand their jobs will not. Due to the amount of time individuals spend at work, high job satisfaction reinforces an individual's personal satisfaction, resulting in a greater levels of life satisfaction. Al says that part of life satisfaction is his ability to provide opportunities for his children. He is committed to creating a better life for them. He has been blessed with four healthy children who are well supported family and friends. To him earning more money is not connected to life satisfaction. He is satisfied that he does not need to go to hospital because his children are healthy. He believes that people are at their happiest when they are involved in family leisure activities, as he engages every day with his children after work:

*My life satisfaction is that - being a father of four that I'm able to provide for my kids, give them the opportunities that I may not have had or that my parents worked hard to give me. I think for me, I just want my kids to have a better life than what I'm having. So I've been blessed. I've travelled overseas. I've got healthy kids. They're all - I don't have any real issues. So from that point of view, they've got a good support network from me and my wife, grandparents, family friends. So from a life satisfaction, look we always wish we had a little bit more money, but then I can look at the other point of view that I'm not spending - my kids aren't in hospital, they're not sick. So for me, I feel quite blessed at the moment. Everything seems to be in order (Al).*



Bo believes that life satisfaction evolves from happiness. Given that employees spend most of their waking life at work, if they are not happy in their workplace they are probably not satisfied in their life in general. The same applies if people are not happy in their personal life:

*Life satisfaction? Hard question. I think you've just got to be...we only pass this way once so we need to be happy. Let's make sure our life is enjoyable. We're here at work for probably more than half the time; because half of the other half is, you're asleep. Most of the time you're awake you're at work. If you're not happy, you're not going to have life satisfaction. No. Yeah, if someone is not happy in their personal life it is going to affect their work-life and vice versa. If they're not happy in their work life, it's going to affect their family life, their personal life. They're both - they're intertwined both ways (Bo).*

For most respondents, life satisfaction stems from having a healthy family and being able to offer their family a good lifestyle. Money itself does not give 'life satisfaction', apart from the fact that we need it to survive. It is important to note that people spend a lot of time in the workplace, so ideally people need to be generally happy at work, and enjoy their time with peers and colleagues in order to have life satisfaction. Likewise, happiness in personal life impacts a person's work life. Although happiness and life satisfaction are not synonymous, understanding factors relating to life satisfaction is crucial to understanding what makes an individual happy, as that is likely to influence the interface between work and life. Furthermore, those who are happier in life can form attachments to others, treat others better, and be better treated. Satisfaction both in the workplace and at home can help individuals to balance their work and life.

#### *4.4.3.3 Commitment*

Organisational Commitment is defined as 'a relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation' (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979, p. 226). Given the scarcity of our resources, commitment in one life area may be naturally accompanied by lesser investments in other areas. Being forced to invest resources in one area where one feels no desire to do so, leaving less time for investments in areas in which one wants to be involved, may decrease WLB, or create WLC. One of the participants, Al, says commitment for him is about

obligations to work for life and family. He earns money for the effort he makes to feed his family, and he is unlikely to jeopardise that situation. He adds that if he is not committed to work then that would affect his performance. Commitment in the workplace is valued to the degree that less committed people are stigmatised. Less involvement in the workplace would adversely affect performance, and underperformance certainly impacts a career. Al says he will not jeopardise his commitment either in the workplace or at home:

*Yeah, well look, commitment for work is ensuring that you're there and doing your job. Like I said, I've got kids, so this provides a reasonable salary for me and my family, so I wouldn't want to jeopardise that state because if I don't commit to work, then that obviously impacts performance, impacts your attitude, and being around your peers. I would hate to be seen as someone that was a little bit negative or - then your boss says, hang on, well you're not doing - you're not performing. So it can put you in an issue around performance and then you could be performance managed for your commitment, bad attitude, whatever it is, and then that impacts your ability to provide as the primary earner of my household. So I couldn't jeopardise that. I've got a mortgage. I've got bills to pay. So for me, I'm committed to the job at the moment in terms of it provides the right satisfaction, income's okay, yep (Al).*

Jo, a district manager, says that he follows his boss's advice regarding commitment. His boss says that the more he progresses, the more he needs to sacrifice. In other words, as people became busier that led to more time away from their home life. It was not that his bosses forced him; by choice he was willing to undertake challenges. He was happy to go for extra mileage. However, he said he also invested equal time in his family. His family did not require him to work longer or harder, rather he did so because of his willingness, dedication and commitment to the organisation. It did not cause him to take time away from his family. In the end, what he learnt was the importance of becoming fully engaged in the performance of every role (i.e. work or family), and to approach every role with an attitude of attentiveness and care:

*Look, I think the interesting thing to commitment to me is - I used to have a boss many years ago and I was looking to take on a more senior role. His comment to me was: It doesn't matter whether you're a teller or a senior*

*manager; the expectation is that you need to work every day or whatever - the days that you're supposed to work. But what he said to me - which is something that I've taken for most of my career - is that the difference is that the more you progress, the more you sacrifice. I went, that doesn't make much sense to me. But what he said was you sacrifice things like being one of the team, so to speak. Being - potentially some of your work-life balance. The time away from home, all these sorts of things that you kind of trade off as you go up the line. So I think when I look for people to progress, the commitment that I look for is that they have a willingness, if you like, to be able to trade off some of the things that - so, for example, if you're someone who loves being part of the team and loves that collaborative environment. To understand that when you progress to being a supervisor or a manager, your role, whilst you can be part of that team, your role within that team will change (Jo).*

Meyer and colleagues reported (1989) that employees with strong commitment are willing to exert great effort on behalf of the organization. Consistent with this view, Meyer and his colleagues (1989) further found that commitment was positively related to performance. Some empirical support for this theory is provided by Mueller and Lawler (1999), who found that commitment was better predictor by work conditions in terms of supervisory support than promotional opportunities. In general, lack of commitment would impact on performance and, specifically for a wage-earner, it would be a double-edged sword. If the level of commitment goes down, it can undermine employees' ability to make minimum efforts in workplace. The success or failure of an organisation is related to the effort and motivation of its employees, which in turn stem from their degree of commitment.

#### **4.5 Summary**

This chapter provided an in-depth, descriptive account of the conceptualisation, lived experiences, feelings and expectations of work-life balance being faced by employees and supervisors who were working full-time in four different banks across Sydney, Australia. The findings explored several key experiences and outcomes related to respondents' views about their work-life balance. In each area of work-life balance the participants highlighted specific aspects of their work, family and life and the mechanism of the interplay between them. These categories were crucial for

the development of a questionnaire, especially as there has been limited knowledge in the financial sector in Australia with regard to the antecedents and outcome of WLB of employees. The next chapter covers the theoretical framework of the research project.

## **Abbreviations used in Chapter 5**

COR: Conservation of Resources Theory

FWC: Family-Work Conflict

JD-R: Job-Demand Resources

JP: Job Performance

JS: Job Satisfaction

LS: Life Satisfaction

OC: Organisational Commitment

PFD: Perceived Family Demand

PWD: Perceived Work Demand

WFC: Work-Family Conflict

WLB: Work-Life Balance

## **Chapter 5 Theoretical Framework**

### **5.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter illustrated qualitative findings through in-depth interviews. This chapter reviews the pertinent theories used extensively in work–life research in the past. It develops a model that links antecedents and outcomes of work–life balance in concert with findings from the qualitative study. This chapter also justifies the main model used for this study, along with corresponding research questions and hypotheses.

### **5.2 Theoretical Basis for the Research**

It is contended that work–life and stress researchers have not based their predictions on strong conceptual frameworks (Hobfoll, 1989). Some of the common criticisms and concerns aimed at work–life research have focused on its light use or lack of theory (Eby et al., 2005). In general, the work–life literature has been atheoretical, mainly because of the complexity and multiplicity of the work–life interface across the world (Heraty, Morely, & Cleveland, 2008; Voydanoff, 2008).

It was surprising to note that half of the empirical studies on work–life literature did not draw upon any theory to examine hypothesised relationships (Shaffer et al., 2011). The remainder of the empirical studies were mostly based on the US context of work–life research. Arguably, as the present study was conducted in Australia, the theories applied most frequently in the non-US context with regard to work–life research will be briefly covered below.

Relevant theories being used in work–life research are discussed briefly in the following sections.

#### **5.2.1 Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory**

The basic tenet of the Conservation of Resources (COR) model is that people strive to retain, protect and build resources, and are threatened by the potential or actual loss of these valued resources (Hobfoll, 1988). Hobfoll (2002) identified 74 work

and non-work-related resources that he divided into four groups: objects (e.g. social status); conditions (marital status, tenure); personal characteristics (e.g. individual ability); and energy (e.g. time, money, knowledge). These resources are assumed to reduce stress, and several researchers have used this perspective to explain the work–family interface (e.g. Lapierre & Allen, 2006; Shaffer et al., 2001). When confronted with stress either in work or life or family, individuals are predicted to strive to minimise net loss of resources; and when not confronted, people strive to develop resource surpluses in order to offset the possibility of future loss.

The COR model further explains stress outcomes for both intra and inter-role stress. For example, employees experiencing work-role conflict may come to believe that they cannot successfully perform the job. As a result they may be forced to invest more of their resources into the work role for fear of losing their job. The model proposes that inter-role conflict leads to stress because resources are lost in the process of juggling both work and family roles. These potential or actual losses of resources lead to a negative ‘state of being,’ which may include dissatisfaction, depression, anxiety or physiological tension. Some type of behaviour, such as planning to leave the work role, is needed to replace or protect the threatened resources. If this type of behaviour is not taken, the resources may be so depleted that burnout ensues (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). This theory has been used extensively by work family researchers (e.g. Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Allen, 2001; Odle-Dusseau, Britt, & Greene-Shortridge, 2012; Nicklin & McNall, 2013; Goh, Ilies, & Wilson, 2015).

In line with the discussion above, COR theory is pertinent to comprehend the mechanism between antecedents and outcome of work–life balance.

### **5.2.2 Social Exchange Theory**

Social exchange theory is defined ‘as the exchange of activity, tangible or intangible, and more or less rewarding or costly, between at least two persons’ (Homans, 1961). Later the theory was extended by the researcher, with more focus on the economic and utilitarian perspectives (Blau, 1964). Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) states that individuals seem to reciprocate in the form of more favourable attitudes towards the organisation that is perceived to be supportive to them (Tang, Siu, & Cheung, 2014). The present research considers ‘Supervisor Support’ as an important linking

pin between employee and the organisation. Further, applying this to the work–family interface, employees and their organisations are considered as two exchange counterparts. When employees perceive that their organisations are helping them to integrate their work and family roles, they perceive those organisations to be more supportive and consequently feel obligated to reciprocate with positive feelings about their jobs and organisations (Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). In other words, employees will attribute their increased efficiency and performance to the organisation that provides family-friendly support. They will respond favourably to the organisation in the form of positive job attitudes such as feeling more satisfied with their work. The theory also states that goodwill gestures exhibited by one party to the other party may promote the formation of social exchange relationships, which in turn may lead to favourable outcomes (e.g. job satisfaction, life satisfaction).

Social exchange theory provides the theoretical justification for expecting work-life benefits to be positively reciprocated by employees in the form of positive attitudes and behaviors (Lambert, 2000). He suggests that workers feel obligated to exert “extra” effort in return for “extra” benefits. It is further suggested that if employees perceive that they are being cared for through the provision of family-friendly programs (e.g., child care, flexible work arrangements, etc.), the more apt employees are to conclude that the organization is treating them well and thus will feel obligated to “pay back” or reciprocate by becoming more committed to the organization (Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). In the same vein, Korsgaard, Meglino, Lester and Jeong (2010) state that there are two forms of reciprocity. The first is the obligation to reciprocate, which is the belief that someone will return a favour or engage in behaviour because they feel obligated to pay someone back. The second is expected reciprocity, which is the belief that if a person does something for another person, they should eventually receive some sort of benefit in return. The higher the quality of the exchange relationship between co-workers, the less WFC an employee will experience (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999). This leads to better work–life balance. Furthermore, social exchange theory is well suited to explain the mechanism through which supervisory family support influences work-related outcomes.



### **5.2.3 Role Theory**

Role theory posits that in most social situations, and especially within organisations, the role that a person takes is the central fact for understanding the behaviour of the individual (Kahn et al, 1964). Consistent with this, the current research intends to demonstrate a link between work–life balance and the behaviour of employees. Most of the research on the work-family interface has been guided by role theory (e.g. Kahn et al., 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1978). Researchers have described the work-family relationship in terms of the number of roles occupied by an individual. Some researchers suggest that individuals have a limited amount of time and energy, thus engaging in multiple roles tends to be overly demanding. The more roles an individual occupies, the greater the likelihood that an individual will experience stress. Kahn and colleagues defined this type of work-family relationship as role conflict, which is the ‘simultaneous occurrence of two (or more) sets of pressures such that compliance with one would make more difficult compliance with the other’ (1964, p. 19). Based on Kahn et al.’s conceptualisation of role conflict, Greenhaus and Beutell defined WTF (Work to Family) conflict as ‘a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible’ (1985, p. 77). It is now generally recognised that work-family conflict is bidirectional, such that work can interfere with family and family can interfere with work (Frone, 2003).

### **5.2.4 Job-Demand Resources (JD-R) Model**

Unlike COR theory, The JD-R model (Demerouti et al., 2001) proposes that job characteristics in general can be divided into job demands (e.g. high work pressure, emotional demands and role ambiguity) and job resources (e.g. social support, performance feedback and autonomy). Job demands require sustained physical and/or mental effort and are related to several physiological and psychological costs. In contrast, job resources are functional in meeting job demands, achieving work goals, and fostering personal growth and development. It is argued that any mismatches between job demand and job resources can cause psychological strain and stress for an individual (Karasek, 1979; Schnall, Landsbergis, & Baker, 1994). According to the JD-R model, job demands and lack of job resources may be positively related to work–family conflict. More precisely, a stronger relationship

can be expected between job demands and work–family conflict stemming from the work domain and diminishing the quality of life in the family domain (i.e. WFC) (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000). Studies to date have found that a higher number of work hours (e.g. Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), increased workload (e.g. Boyar, Carr, Mosley, & Carson, 2007; Voydanoff, 2005), and job stress (e.g. Byron, 2005) enhance WFC. In contrast, job resources that diminish WFC include coworker support and supervisor support (e.g. Byron, 2005; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), and autonomy (decision latitude) in terms of one’s work tasks (e.g. Grzywacz & Butler, 2005).

### **5.2.5 Ecological Systems Theory**

To develop a broader conceptualisation of the work-family interface, researchers have drawn on ecological theory. Bronfenbrenner (1979) suggests that individual development occurs throughout one’s lifespan and is shaped by dynamic, reciprocal interactions between one’s self and the experiences one has as a consequence of immediate and broader social contexts. Of the four social contexts, the first, microsystem, is ‘the complex relations between the developing person and environment in an immediate setting (e.g. home, workplace)’ and ‘a setting in a place with particular physical features in which the participants engage in particular roles, e.g. parent, employee, for particular periods of time’ (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, p. 514). Secondly, the mesosystem is a ‘system of microsystems’ that makes up the interactions among the major systems in the microsystem. Thirdly, the ecosystem is ‘an extension of the mesosystem embracing other specific social structures, both formal and informal, that do not themselves contain the developing person but impinge upon or encompass the immediate settings in which that person is found’. For example, this could include the interaction between an individual’s experiences at home and their partner’s work–life (Bellavia & Frone, 2003). Finally, the macrosystem is the ‘overarching institutional patterns of the culture or subculture, including the economic, social, educational, and political systems, of which micro, meso, and exo are the conceived manifestations’ (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, p. 515).

These environmental systems interact to affect an individual’s work–family experiences and serve as a useful framework for understanding the work–family interface (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000b). Much of the research focuses on the

mesosystem level of the ecological model, as it focuses specifically on how roles, relationships and experiences at work are related to roles, relationships and experiences in one's family (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1993; O'Driscoll, Ilgen, & Hildreth, 1992). Others have focused on the exosystem level by examining the effects of one family member's experiences on another family member (e.g. Kohn, 1969; Morgan, Alwin, & Griffin, 1979). The theory is useful for understanding the work–family interface as it encompasses a broader range of factors that influence both the positive and negative work–family experiences of individuals.

### **5.2.6 Commitment Theory**

It is argued that work–family policies (e.g. dependent care services, flexible scheduling programs) and work–family bundles (i.e. groups of complementary, highly related and sometimes overlapping human resource policies) may provide signals to current and potential employees that allow them to make conclusions about the values and philosophies of an organisation (Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000). As work–family bundles provide relief for non-work concerns, a benefit that is not mandatory and has not yet been institutionalised across organisations, employees may feel that they are receiving special treatment. Furthermore, work–family policies are likely to indicate that the organisation cares about employee well-being and to represent a value system (Grover & Crooker, 1995). In a work context with these discretionary employee-centred values, employees are likely to respond favourably. As a result, they will reciprocate by contributing extra effort, developing a concern for the overall success of the organisation, and embracing its goals (MacDuffie, 1995; Pfeffer, 1994). A context of enhanced organisational performance is likely to emerge (Ostroff, 1992).

### **5.2.7 Resource-Based Theory**

Resource-based theory (Barney, 1991) provides an organisational level perspective on the link between work–family practices and organisational performance. More specifically, work–family practices may help to build and protect organisational resources that are rooted in human capital (Wright, McMahan, & McWilliams, 1994). When presenting itself, an organisation may emphasise its work–life

programs, thereby creating an image as a modern, flexible and employee-oriented place of work. As a consequence, more applicants may be attracted which, in turn, increases the pool for employee selection, allowing employers to choose individuals possessing valuable, rare and inimitable knowledge or experience. Further, work–family practices are important for creating a supportive organisational culture, which may help to reduce employee turnover and, by doing so, prevent loss of knowledge and experience. Attracting and retaining a highly qualified workforce may result in a superior organisational performance in the long-run.

### **5.2.8 Person-Environment Fit Theory**

The basic tenet of person-environment fit theory (Vodanoff, 2005) is that stress arises from the lack of fit or congruence between the person and the environment rather than from either one separately. Demands include quantitative and qualitative job requirements, role expectations, and group and organisational norms, whereas abilities include aptitudes, skills, training, time, and energy that may be used to meet demands. Fit occurs when the individual has the abilities needed to meet the demands of the environment. Strain is expected to increase as demands exceed abilities. Needs encompass biological and psychological requirements, such as values and motives, whereas supplies consist of intrinsic and extrinsic resources and rewards that may fulfil the person’s needs, such as food, shelter, money, social involvement and the opportunity to achieve. Fit exists when the environment provides the resources required to satisfy the person’s needs, whereas stress occurs when needs exceed supplies. Although the theory of person-environment fit generally is applied to the work domain, Edwards and Rothbard (1999) have extended it to the analysis of fit in the family domain. They have documented that work supplies–needs fit for autonomy, relationships, and security is relatively strongly associated with work satisfaction, whereas family fit on the same dimensions is more strongly related to family satisfaction.

### **5.2.9 Work–Family Enrichment Theory**

Work–family enrichment has been defined (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) as the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role. They consider work–family enrichment, like work–family conflict, to be bidirectional.

Work-to-family enrichment occurs when work experiences improve the quality of family life, and family-to-work enrichment occurs when family experiences improve the quality of work life. This improvement can manifest in three different ways (Voydanoff, 2001). Firstly, work experiences and family experiences can have positive effects on well-being. Research has consistently demonstrated that role accumulation can have beneficial effects on physical and psychological well-being (Barnett & Hyde, 2001), especially when the roles are of high quality (Perry, Jenkins, Repetti, & Crouter, 2000). In addition, satisfaction with work and satisfaction with family have been found to have positive effects on an individual's happiness, life satisfaction, and perceived quality of life (Rice, Frone, & McFarlin, 1992; Rice, McFarlin, Hunt, & Near, 1985). Secondly, participation in both work and family roles can buffer individuals from distress in one of the roles. For example, research has shown that the relationship between family stressors and impaired well-being is weaker for individuals who have more satisfying, high-quality work experiences (Barnett, Marshall, & Sayer, 1992; Voydanoff & Donnelly, 1999). Thirdly, experiences in one role can produce positive experiences and outcomes in the other role. In supporting this, Marks (1977) has argued that participation in some roles creates energy that can be used to enhance experiences in other roles. Sieber (1974) has proposed that resources acquired in one role as a by-product of social relationships (e.g. recommendations to third parties, connections, inside tips) may be reinvested in other roles. It is to be noted that the third mechanism as stated above was best captured and endorsed by Greenhaus & Powell (2006), who postulated it later as the work–family enrichment theory.

### **5.2.10 Human Capital Theory**

Human capital theory (Becker, 1985) argues that people prioritise broad domains of activity (e.g. work, family and leisure) that they are willing to allocate resources to, and then make choices about how to spend their resources. Time and energy are exhaustible commodities. Once spent, they are not available for other tasks either within the same domain or other domains. When demands from either the work or family domain mandate a reallocation of resources that does not fit one's priorities, either intra-role or inter-role stress is likely (Hobfoll, 1989). Intra-role stress occurs when resources needed to fulfil demands within a particular domain are lost or not

provided. Inter-role stress occurs when role expectations ‘from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role’ (Kahn et al., 1964, p.19). This is especially threatening when one domain is dependent on resources from another (Burke, 1991), as in the case of work–family conflict (e.g. Gutek et al., 1991).

The human capital theory provides an avenue for understanding the potential direct influence of family-based inputs by considering them in combination with work-based inputs. From the human capital perspective, inter-role conflict occurs when one domain interferes with another, and a struggle to maintain balance between the two ensues. This struggle is especially stressful when the two domains are of similar salience and dependent on each other for resources, as in the case of work and family (e.g. Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Work–family conflict may emanate from either domain, so that work encroaches or interferes with resources allocated to the family domain (WIF), or family interferes with resources allocated to the work domain (FIW: Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Gutek et al., 1991).

### **5.3 Summary of theories used in the present research**

This section investigated the relevant theories and frameworks postulated by work–life researchers to understand the effects of work–life balance constructs on employees’ attitudes and behaviour. From the proceeding discussion it can be concluded that different theoretical building blocks can be used as possible explanations to perceive the interface of work–life balance constructs and their likely impact on employees’ attitudes and performance. Of all theories, the researchers used mainly conservation of resources theory, social exchange theory, role theory, job-demand resources theory, and resource-based theory in order to justify their empirical studies in the past. Indeed, some theories have greater resonance than others. For example, according to conservation of resources theory, when confronted with stress due to work and family roles, supervisor support in the workplace could harmonise the relations with work demand, family demand and ultimately work-life balance. Subsequently, the mismatches between work and life could lead individuals to be less satisfied, less committed not only in the job, but also in life. This can plunge individuals’ job performance in the long-run. In supporting social exchange theory, when individuals perceive that their organisations are helping them to integrate their work and family roles, they perceive those organisations to be more supportive and consequently feel obligated to reciprocate with positive feelings about their jobs and organisations. This would lead individuals’ attitudes to excel performance.

Consistent to the role theory, the more roles an individual occupies in work and family domain, the greater the likelihood that an individual will experience stress that would push them to an imbalanced work and life. Similarly, supporting job-demand resources model, job demands and lack of job resources may be positively related to work–family conflict than work-life balance. When individuals get access to have work-life balance programs they strive to put maximum efforts through their attitudes that would leverage their job performance, thus supporting resource-based theory. Consistent with this, the present study has posited different theoretical processes on how work–life balance may influence employees’ attitudes and performance. Table 5.1 summarises the theories discussed above.

**Table 5.1 Summary of theories used to explain Work–Life Balance**

<b>Theory</b>	<b>Explanation</b>	<b>Research studies</b>
Conservation of Resources (COR) Theory	Individuals strive to obtain, retain, protect, and foster those things that they value, or that serve as a means of obtaining things they value, namely 'resources'.	Grandey and Cropanzano, (1999); Shaffer et al (2011); Greenhaus et al (2012); Chen et al (2014)
Social Exchange Theory	In terms of work-life balance programs, social exchange theory suggests that when organizations provide work-family benefits to their employees not mandated by the organizations reciprocity should come into play.	Bagger and Li (2014); Wayne et al (2013); Mills et al (2014)
Role Theory	Experiencing ambiguity and/or conflict within a role (intra-role) will result in an undesirable state to other role.	Grandey and Cropanzano (1999); Shaffer et al (2011)
Job Demand Resources (JD-R) Model	This entails sustained physical and/or mental effort that are functional in meeting job demands, achieving work goals, and fostering personal growth and development.	Wayne et al (2015); Demerouti et al (2001); Bakker and Demerouti (2007); Syrek et al (2013); Ibrahim and Bakar (2014)
Ecological Systems Theory	Individual development occurs throughout one's lifespan and is shaped by dynamic, reciprocal interactions between one's self and the experiences one has as a consequence of immediate and broader social contexts.	Mullen et al (2008); Wayne et al (2007); Voydanoff (2005)
The Commitment Theory	HR practices are means of maintaining high levels of employees' commitment towards the organisation.	Giardini and Kabst (2008); Kim and Faerman (2013)
Resource Based Theory	Work-family practices may help to build and protect organisational resources that are rooted in human capital.	Russo and Fouts (1997); Giardini and Kabst (2008)
Person-Environment Fit Theory	Stress arises from the lack of fit or congruence between the person and the environment rather than from either one separately.	Grzywacz and Carlson (2007); Moen et al. (2008)
Work-Family Enrichment Theory	The theory entails the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role.	McNall et al (2009); Carlson et al (2009); Wayne et al (2013)
Human Capital Theory	The theory argues that people prioritize broad domains of activity that they are willing to allocate resources to, and then make choices about how to spend their resources.	Le et al (2007); van der Velde et al (2005)



## 5.4 Key Constructs

As family and work are typically the most important domains of an individual's life (Rane & McBride, 2000), the support from supervisors to maintain work–life balance and the subsequent impact of that support on employee attitudes and behaviour requires further investigation (see Figure 5.1). To tap into this, the present research is undertaken in the Australian financial sector due to its substantial contribution to the national economy. It is expected that support received from supervisors is critical to uphold employees' work–life balance, which influences their attitudes and job performance.

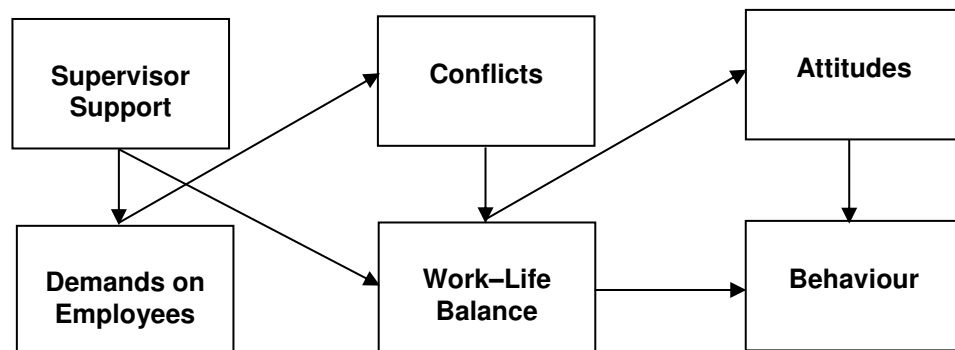


Figure 5.1 The hypothesised model of the study

### 5.4.1 Supervisor Support

The COR theory (Hobfoll, 2002) can be used to better understand how supervisor support may relate to managing multiple role memberships. COR theory predicts that people seek to obtain, retain and protect resources (e.g. food, self-esteem, promotion and energies). Hobfoll notes that social support is ‘a key resource that emerges from the social environment’ (2002, p. 309), which helps people cope with stressful events in their lives, such as juggling multiple roles. According to COR theory, individuals with more support from important people in their lives are more capable of solving problems. In addition, people with resources are less likely to be affected by resource drain, perhaps because they are able to draw upon a solid resource reservoir. As a result, higher levels of supervisor support have been related to lower levels of work-to family conflict and family-to-work conflict (e.g. Ayman & Antani, 2008; O’Driscoll et al., 2003; Seiger & Wiese, 2009; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). This would lead to an increased level of WLB to employees.

Given the key role of supervisors in enacting formal organisational policy implementation and informal practice, the study of supervisor support for work, life and family is critical to the understanding of how to effectively implement work, life and family policies in employing organisations (Hopkins, 2005). Past studies endorse ‘Supervisor’ as the linking pin between the availability of formal family-supportive organisational policies and practices, such as dependent care supports, healthcare, alternative work arrangements, adequate compensation and informal family-supportive organisational culture, and climate, defined as: ‘the shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organisation supports and values the integration of employees’ work and family lives’ (Thompson et al., 1999, p. 394).

It is argued that when the work–family culture is not supportive, use of formal supports does not have as significant an impact on employees’ work–family conflict, and other work outcomes, as when the culture is supportive (Allen, 2001; O’Driscoll et al., 2003; Thompson et al., 1999). Even if formal supportive benefits or policies are in place, unsupportive supervisors may offset the intended effects of these benefits and policies (Kossek, 2005). On the other hand, supervisors can provide a social resource for utilisation of work–family policies, and even assist in inoculating employees against some of the negative effects, such as effects on advancement in the company, that prevent policy use (Wharton & Blair-Loy, 2002). There is substantial evidence that supervisors are given wide latitude over whether to approve employee use of available policies or informal practices related to working time, and their decisions are influenced by organisational-level factors such as up keeping the work–family culture and climate (Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman, & Daniels, 2007).

It can be hypothesised, based on scarcity theory (Goode, 1960), that resources in the work or family domain can indirectly predict employee and organisational outcomes through perceptions of work–family conflict (Graves, Ohlott, & Ruderman, 2007; Lapierre & Allen, 2006). Theoretically, if resources are supplied by organisations to assist individuals in managing work and family domains, the potential for positive outcomes exists through perceptions of decreased role conflict, specifically increased work–family balance. This is because the organisational work–family resources are commonly implemented in response to employees’ desires and values, and therefore fall within Hobfoll’s definition of resources as pointed out above. They are expected to aid in stress resistance and result in positive effects on employees. This would

provide a rationale for a direct link between organisational work–family resources and subsequent attitudes and job performance of employees.

When employees receive feedback from and interact with their supervisor, they form perceptions of how the supervisor supports them (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). This may stem from how they feel the supervisor helps them in times of need, praises them for a job well done or recognises them for extra effort. Research shows that the perceptions employees have of supervisors' support for them impacts organisational objectives such as performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction (e.g. Eisenberger et al., 2004; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Lambert, 2000).

#### **5.4.2 Demands on Employees**

Demands are structural or psychological claims associated with role requirements, expectations and norms to which individuals must respond or adapt by exerting physical or mental effort (Demerouti, Bakker, & Voydanoff, 2010). Past researchers (O'Driscoll, Brough, & Biggs, 2007; Brough et al., 2007) underpinned the occurrence of both work and family demands as the key negative antecedents of work–life balance. As such, the perception of sufficient time to meet acute work and family demands is the pertinent issue (Brough, O'Driscoll, & Biggs, 2009). Analogous arguments can be drawn from COR framework, that workload is a job demand or stressor that represents a consumption of energy in terms of time and psychological resources. An increase in such demands translates into additional resources being required or consumed by the work sphere. Since resources are finite, this leaves fewer resources available to fulfil demands in the family (e.g. Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Ilies, Schwind, & Heller, 2007). For instance, the more time one spends at work, the less time one has to fulfil home demands (e.g. Thompson et al., 1999), and conflict is created between the two domains as a result of insufficient resources being available to fulfil demands in both roles. Resource drain can occur on a daily basis resulting from high workload, which negatively affects individuals' family role performance, resulting in daily work–family conflict (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000).

Increasing levels of work and family demand may potentially increase the chance that one domain (e.g. work or family) can spillover (i.e. processes linking the work and home domain into the other (Crouter, 1984; Lambert, 1990), resulting in WFC.

As demands in one domain (be it work or family) inhibit an individual from meeting the demands of the other, there may be unmet role responsibilities, which results in WFC. Thus, the interface between work and family does not exist until one domain actually affects another (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). For example, an individual comes home after working a double shift and is very tired. Although this is spillover (e.g. bringing work home), it is not linked to family until it inhibits family activities (negative spillover). Most of the research examining demand has extended early conceptualisations and definitions, which were based primarily on the work of Karasek (1979) and others (see Friedman, Rosenman, & Carroll, 1958; Sales, 1969). Work and family demands are more strongly associated with interference because they require effort and therefore deplete individual resources available for functioning in another domain.

In light of the above arguments, the study assumed two types of demand: perceived work demand (PWD); and perceived family demand (PFD). These are discussed below.

#### *5.4.2.1 Perceived Work Demand (PWD)*

Researchers have long recognised that work and family are not separate, but rather interdependent domains or roles with ‘permeable’ boundaries (Kanter, 1977; Pleck, 1977). Accumulated research evidence shows that one’s functioning at work may have a negative impact on one’s functioning at home and vice versa (Byron, 2005; Eby et al., 2005). It is well documented that the wide array of task, role, physical and interpersonal demands for people at work are predominant in every economy. These demands create either stress or challenge for the individual depending upon individual idiosyncrasy and vulnerability (Quick et al., 2004). The sources of work stress are independent of a person’s home life and other considerations. However, from the standpoint of work–family conflict, the work demands that may be most problematic are role ambiguity and overload, career stage, and family stage. The work role may contribute to work–family conflict when role expectations are unclear or the volume of work is greater than the time and energy available for that role. Thus, the confusion and volume overload can spill into the home in both unaware and unintended ways, with adverse impact. In addition, work pressure and long hours elicited from work demands were found to be predictors of WFC (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000, Spector et al., 2007).

#### *5.4.2.2 Perceived Family Demand (PFD)*

Family demands are increased both by the volume of dependent responsibilities (caring for children, elderly parents, seriously ill spouses and other family members) and by specific acute situations producing intense demands, such as the birth of a new baby or sudden serious illnesses of spouses/parents/other family members: ‘the combination of reduced time available and increased work and family demands for many employed parents obviously creates additional role stress’ (O’Driscoll et al., 2007, p. 196). In cases of acute family demands, many employees report that where formal leave provisions from work are available and accessible, such leave provision is typically insufficient to adequately meet these additional family demands, thereby leading to increased levels of role stress and work–life imbalance (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 2002; Boyar, Maertz, Pearson, & Keough, 2003; Brough et al., 2009; Gatrell, Burnett, Cooper, & Sparrow, 2012).

#### **5.4.3 Conflicts**

Drawing on Hobfoll’s (2002) personal resources perspective, it can be proposed that high levels of demand at work require one to focus personal resources in this area, leaving fewer resources to tackle demands in the family domain. In turn, added conflict at home can lead to further conflict at work. Work and family are interrelated domains; that is, one domain will influence the other. It is also argued that the more an individual devotes themselves into the work role, the greater the possibility they may bring work problems back home, and the bigger the WFC (Zhang & Liu, 2011). In other words, high devotion to work causes an individual to sacrifice family life, resulting in WFC. In contrast, high involvement in family-related matters can induce intervention in the workplace, leading to FWC. Furthermore, conflict arises when participation in one role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in another role. It is argued that there is a negative relationship between work and family, but the reasoning is that a person has a finite store of resources (e.g. time, energy). Research has been dominated by the idea that separate roles compete for limited amounts of time, energy and psychological resources. The strain that this competition creates is thought to result in a variety of negative consequences both at work and at home (Barnett, 1996; Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000).

These two interrelated constructs – WFC and FWC – are discussed further in the following sections.

#### *5.4.3.1 Work–Family Conflict (WFC)*

Studies that examine characteristics of the work domain as predictors of WFC have been the most plentiful. Several studies found that WFC was related to having more conflict, pressure and stress at work (Carlson, 1999; Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Fox & Dwyer, 1999; Greenhaus, Bedeian, & Mossholder, 1987; Greenhaus, Bedeian, & Mossholder, 1987; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Shamir, 1983; Wallace, 1997). Research also suggests that unpredictability in the work routine promotes WFC, given that work variability (Fox & Dwyer, 1999) and working weekends or rotating shifts (Shamir, 1983) both relate to higher conflict. Those who are troubled by a sense of inequity in rewards at work (Greenhaus et al., 1987), or who experience abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000), or have a profit-driven focus (Wallace, 1997) also tend to report higher WFC. Self-employment is also related to a range of work–family outcomes, including greater parental demands, WFC and job satisfaction, as well as lower family satisfaction (Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). Past studies have examined characteristics of the family domain as predictors of WFC. These studies have found that WFC is higher among those who have children at home (Carlson, 1999; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), are concerned or troubled about child care (Buffardi & Erdwins, 1997; Fox & Dwyer, 1999), and/or have disagreements, tension or stress with their family (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Fox & Dwyer, 1999; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Williams & Alliger, 1994).

#### *5.4.3.2 Family–Work Conflict (FWC)*

Unlike work–family conflict (WFC), family–work conflict (FWC) has been traditionally labelled as the ‘neglected side of the work–family interface’ due to the scarce research interest it has attracted compared to WFC (Stevens, Minnotte, Mannon & Kiger, 2007). However, since the work of Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams (2000), there has been increasing interest in examining this type of conflict. FWC has been associated with organisational outcomes such as absenteeism (Anderson, Coffey & Byerly, 2002), or reduced job performance (Witt & Carlson, 2006), as well as with family outcomes such as family and marital dissatisfaction (Hill, 2005; Kinnunen, Feldt, Geurts, & Pulkkinen, 2006). Past research has been found that the negative family-to-work spillover is associated with marital and parental

dissatisfaction (Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Kinnunen et al., 2006), although the main outcomes of FWC reside in the work domain, affecting job satisfaction or performance (Frone, 2003). There has been also an interest in examining the effects of FWC on individuals' well-being. In a longitudinal study by Frone, Yardley and Markel (1997), it was found that FWC predicted depression, poor self-reported physical health and hypertension status. Despite these attempts to link FWC with different outcomes, it is understood that the role of FWC as a trigger of work–life balance has not been previously examined.

#### **5.4.4 Work–Life Balance (WLB)**

Empirical findings demonstrate that work–life balance relates to job and family satisfaction, organisational commitment and family performance (Carlson et al., 2009). While evidence suggests that organisations stand to gain substantially from employees who achieve work–life balance, achieving this balance remains an elusive goal for many employees (Halpern, 2005). Exploring the mechanisms by which employees achieve more balance between the work and family domains led to a consideration of social support. Carlson and colleagues (2009) proposed a framework that integrated social support with recent notions of work–family balance as well as job, marital and family satisfaction. The foundation of their framework lay in the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 2001), which proposes that employees actively seek to preserve, protect and rebuild resources (i.e. conditions or energies valued by the individual). Using COR theory, we theorise that when employees receive social support from coworkers and partners, they acquire resources that help them balance work and family demands, which leads to heightened satisfaction in both domains.

Research models developed from a number of theoretical perspectives describe specific types of multiple role demands, such as strain-based, behaviour-based and time-based demands (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), and the specific mechanisms by which work and non-work roles interact with one another, such as spillover, compensation, conflict and interference (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000; Greenglass, 2000). Work–life balance research models based upon an occupational stress theoretical framework are common and include adaptations of the person–environment fit model (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999), and models based on role

theory (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992), cognitive appraisal (Edwards & Rothbard, 1999), role salience (Noor, 2004) and job demands resources (Voydanoff, 2005). Recent refinements to the theoretical explanations of work–life balance focus on the inclusion of positive as well as negative relationships between domains, largely via the recognition that multiple demands may facilitate, enrich and/or enhance some work–life balance outcomes (e.g. Hanson, Hammer & Colton, 2006; Brough, O’Driscoll, & Kalliath, 2007; Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson & Kacmar, 2007; Odle-Dusseau, et al., 2012; Ratanen et al., 2013).

The array of theoretical models describing work–life balance includes multiple definitions and research variables, with the identified antecedents, moderators and consequences of work–life balance varying across the respective models. Recent reviews of the literature have been useful in ascertaining common relationships among the key constructs (e.g. Allen et al., 2000; Eby et al., 2005; Brough et al., 2009). Evidence is generally consistent in identifying work and family demands and responsibilities for dependents as key antecedents of work–life balance; gender and social support as key moderating constructs; and satisfaction, performance and levels of both physical and psychological health as the core consequences of work–life balance.

#### **5.4.5 Employee Attitudes and Behaviour**

The theory of planned behaviour is a dispositional approach to the prediction of behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Ajzen points out that the theory of planned behaviour ‘is a theory designed to predict and explain human behaviour in specific contexts’ (p. 181). The specific context that is relevant in this research is employees’ attitudes and behaviours. According to the theory of planned behaviour, a person’s behaviour is determined by their intention to perform the behaviour and that this intention is, in turn, a function of their attitude towards the behaviour and their subjective norms. The best predictor of behaviour is intention (Ajzen, 1991) which is the cognitive representation of a person’s readiness to perform a given behaviour, and the immediate antecedent of behaviour.

Social psychologists have asserted that attitudes are ‘the keystone in the edifice’ of understanding human behaviour (Allport, 1935, p. 198) and that ‘attitudes significantly and substantially predict future behavior’ (Kraus, 1995, p. 58).



Organisational researchers took longer to make headway in understanding this fundamental relationship (e.g. Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Vroom, 1964). Perhaps the key development in revitalising research on the satisfaction–performance relationship involved integration of Ajzen’s (2005) compatibility principle. This principle suggests that the predictor–criterion relationship is strongest when the breadth of the predictor matches the breadth of the criterion.

Judge and his colleagues (2001) took this route in their meta-analysis, finding a moderate relation between *overall* job satisfaction and *overall* job performance. Harrison and colleagues (2006) took this one step further, showing that *overall* job attitudes were substantially related to *overall* work behaviours. Human relations theorists (e.g. Likert, 1961; McGregor, 1960) were some of the first to posit that employee satisfaction is an integral part of achieving organisational productivity and effectiveness. These scholars stated that the extent to which workers are satisfied with their job determines the degree to which they give their services wholeheartedly toward the organisation’s goals, perform to their potential, and cooperate with other organisational members.

#### 5.4.5.1 *Job Satisfaction (JS)*

Job satisfaction is ‘a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences’ (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). It is an overall assessment of the extent to which employees find the job rewarding, fulfilling, and satisfying, as opposed to frustrating and unsatisfying (Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1974). It can be characterised as an attitude concerning the extent to which people like or dislike their jobs (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction is one of the most studied job attitudes in work–family research, and many studies report negative relationships between those conflicts and job satisfaction (Grandey et al., 2005). Several researchers have stressed that employees are now more likely to demand WLB initiatives in their firms, as a result of the increasing prevalence of dual-career couples, family or dependent responsibilities, or desire to spend more time with friends or enjoy leisure activities (Lavoie, 2004). As a consequence, companies that implement WLB practices (e.g. flexible work conditions, leave options) are expected to have employees who are more satisfied within their organisations. There are different arguments in the literature that explain the positive relationship between the

existence of WLB practices and having a WLB-supportive culture, and employees' job satisfaction (Crede et al., 2007).

#### *5.4.5.2 Life Satisfaction (LS)*

Life satisfaction has been regarded as one of the foremost indicators of one's overall quality of life (Moons, Budts, & De Geest, 2006). It can be expected that work–life balance will enhance life satisfaction, as involvement in multiple roles protects or buffers individuals from the effects of negative experiences in any one role (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). It is believed that balanced individuals are 'primed to seize the moment' when confronted with a role demand because no role is seen as 'less worthy of one's alertness than any other' (Marks & MacDermid, 1996, p. 421). According to this reasoning, balanced individuals experience low levels of stress when enacting roles, presumably because they are participating in role activities that are salient to them. Marks and MacDermid (1996) further contended that balanced individuals experienced less role overload, greater role ease and less depression than their imbalanced counterparts. Moreover, a balanced involvement in work and family roles may also reduce chronic work–family conflict. Because balanced individuals are fully engaged in both roles, they do not allow 'situational urgencies' to hinder role performance chronically (Marks & MacDermid, 1996). Instead, they develop routines that enable them to meet the long-term demands of all roles, presumably avoiding extensive work–family conflict. As such, a balanced engagement in work and family roles is expected to be associated with individual life satisfaction because such balance reduces work–family conflict and stress, both of which are detrimental to life satisfaction.

#### *5.4.5.3 Organisational Commitment (OC)*

Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) propose a broad definition of commitment as a 'force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets' (p. 299), therefore defining commitment as a positive driver of behaviour. This definition implicitly assumes that commitment is multifocal, i.e. directed toward various constituencies within the organisation, in addition to the organisation itself (Cohen, 2003; Morrow, 1993). There is a clear connection between issues with work–life balance and organisational commitment. Both co-worker support and supervisor support can result in an increase in employees' level of affective commitment (Rousseau & Aubé, 2010). When co-workers and supervisors actively

show their support, employees become more satisfied with their jobs, and over time they can develop an emotional attachment to their organisation. After conducting an extensive literature review, it is evident that the dimension of commitment is predominately measured when researchers are studying organisational commitment as it relates to work-life balance (Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005; Baral & Bhargava, 2010; Smith & Gardner, 2007).

#### *5.4.5.4 Job Performance (JP)*

Personal life events leading to psychological stress can ultimately affect job performance (Bhagat, 1983). Indeed, experiences in one domain, such as life or family, may spillover to affect mood and behaviour in another domain, such as the workplace (Ford et al., 2007). Past studies showed that life or family stress may prevent workers from fulfilling their job responsibilities (Cooke & Rousseau, 1984; Crouter, 1984; Leiter & Durup, 1996). Psychological distress is associated with negative performance on cognitive tasks (Baum, Singer, & Baum, 1981). Psychological distress may also deplete employees' motivation and decrease their efforts (Robert & Hockey, 1997). Consistent with these arguments, poor psychological well-being is negatively related to job performance (Wright & Bonett, 1997; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). The experience of conflict and facilitation in role combination should impact upon the individual's performance at work. By definition, when employees frequently experience that their participation in the life domain makes it difficult to fulfil the work role, work performance should suffer. By contrast, when involvement in the life domain tends to facilitate fulfilment of the work role, performance at work should improve (Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997).

One particular outcome variable of interest to organisations is that of employee performance, defined as in role task-performance (activities falling directly within employees' job description and formally expected of them) and contextual or extra-role performance (discretionary activities going above the call of duty and contributing to the improvement of organisational functioning relative to the broader psychological and social environment of an organisation) (Bergman, Sarkar, Glover, & O'Connor, 2008; Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Indeed, one of the foremost ideas of studying work and life interactions from an organisational standpoint is that, when employees are able to manage work and life domains, they will tend to perform better in the work domain. In fact, research

evidence seems to support this claim. For instance, Perry-Smith and Blum (2000) found that the presence of work–life human resource policies was associated with higher levels of firm-level performance (as rated by personnel directors).

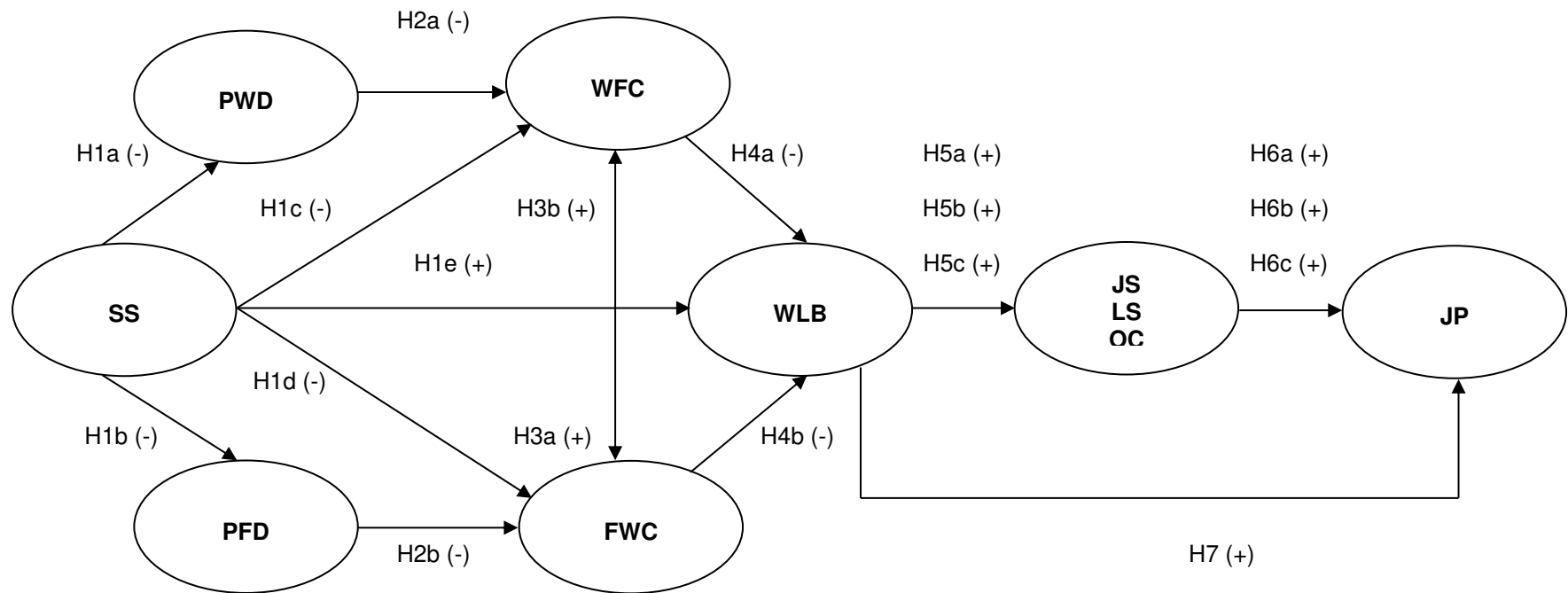
A similar study, using archival data collected by a human resource consulting and research firm, found a positive relationship between the number of work–life programs offered and performance (as indicated by sales per employee) in organisations with higher proportions of professional employees and female employees (Konrad & Mangel, 2000). Likewise, on-site child care has been linked with self-reported performance (Kossek & Nichol, 1992), and telework has been found to be related to supervisor ratings of performance (Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton, 2006). Must, Harris, Giles, and Field (2008) found perceived value of organisational benefits to be related to supervisor ratings of performance through increased affective commitment to the organisation, regardless of benefit use. On this basis it can be argued that the added-value of WLB policies in terms of improving employees' performance has been well-documented. Similarly, positive effects of work–family resources on WLC (Lapierre & Allen, 2006), work–family enrichment (WFE) (Thompson & Prottas, 2006), and job attitudes (Brough, O'Driscoll, & Kalliath, 2005) have also been documented.

Wayne and colleagues (2007) developed the resource-gain-development perspective to provide a theoretical rationale for the idea that work and life can benefit from each other. The basic premise of this perspective states that individuals have natural tendencies to grow, develop and achieve the highest levels of functioning for themselves and the systems in which they participate, including their families and organisations. Wayne and colleagues propose that individuals will obtain available resources in both work and life roles that enable growth and development so that they can experience positive gains. When gains from one domain (such as life) are applied, sustained and reinforced in the other domain (work), the end result is improved system functioning, thus higher performance in that other domain (work). Consistent with this perspective, data obtained in qualitative studies (Wayne et al., 2007) suggests that work performance can benefit from family involvement. In these studies, workers for instance report that their involvement in family roles provides them with new ideas, perspectives and energy on the job, improves their social and conflict resolution skills, or stimulates them to efficiently use the time at work

(Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, & King, 2002; van Steenbergen, Ellemers, & Mooijaart, 2007). Consistent with the theory as outlined above, empirical studies examining self-reports have shown that employees reported decreased job performance to the extent that they experienced more work–life conflict (e.g. Frone et al., 1997; Karatepe & Kilic, 2007; van Steenbergen et al., 2007).

## **5.5 Rationale for the Model and Hypothesis**

This section presents the research model (see Figure 5.2) which is empirically tested. The relationship between different constructs is justified and the research hypotheses presented.



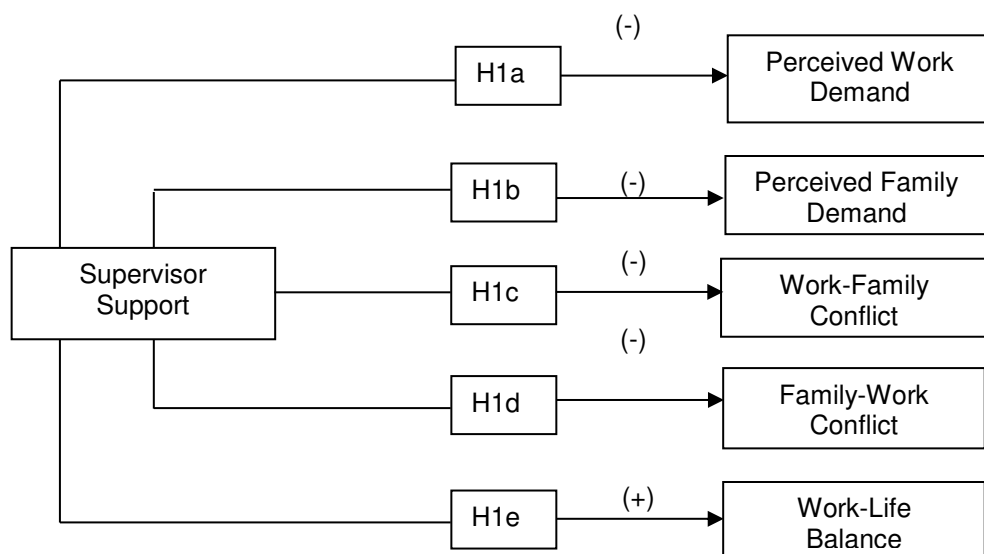
*Note:* SS = Supervisor Support, PWD = Perceived Work Demand, PFD = Perceived Family Demand, WFC = Work-Family Conflict, FWC = Family-Work Conflict, WLB = Work-Life Balance, JS = Job Satisfaction, LS = Life Satisfaction, OC = Organisational Commitment, & JP = Job Performance

**Figure 5.2 The proposed theoretical model and associated hypotheses**

The following sections will explain the rationale for the relationship within the proposed model, as given below.

**Supervisor support (SS) will influence the perceived work demand (PWD), perceived family demand (PFD), work–family conflict (WFC), family–work conflict (FWC), and work–life balance (WLB) of employees in the organisation**

The first link in the theoretical model of this study investigates the relationship between supervisor support and perceived work demand, perceived family demand, work–family conflict, family–work conflict, and work–life balance (see Figure 5.3).



**Figure 5.3 The proposed relationship between ‘Supervisor Support’, ‘Perceived Work Demand’, ‘Perceived Family Demand’, ‘Work–Family Conflict’, ‘Family–Work Conflict’, and ‘Work–Life Balance’**

The role of support in the workplace has been examined extensively in the work–family conflict literature (e.g. Thomas & Ganster, 1995). For example, perceived supervisor support (PSS) reflects employee perceptions that their supervisor values their contributions and cares about their well-being (e.g. Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). COR theory (Hobfoll, 2002) can be used to better understand how supervisor support may relate to managing multiple role memberships. According to COR theory, individuals with more support from important people in their lives are more capable of solving problems. Hence, supervisor support can grant assistance such as allowing employees to have more flexible work schedules to accommodate family demands or to bring their children to work when child care arrangements cannot be made (Lapierre & Allen, 2006). In addition, people with resources are less likely to

be affected by resource drain, perhaps because they are able to draw upon a solid resource reservoir. It is also contended that higher levels of PSS have been related to lower levels of work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict (e.g. Ayman & Antani, 2008; O'Driscoll et al., 2003; Sieger & Wiese, 2009; Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

Scholars have argued that family support from supervisors is critical in reducing the work–family conflict that employee's experience (Breugh & Frye, 2008; Frye & Breugh, 2004). Researchers have further argued that supervisory support with regard to family, driven by supervisors' good intentions to help employees balance their work–family demands, may elicit positive responses from their employees (Thompson et al., 1999). Specifically, when employees believe that their supervisors care about their family needs, they may respond by having more positive perceptions of their work environment, in the form of more satisfaction with their jobs and greater willingness to continue their employment with the organisation. This would lead employees to have a more balanced life than if there were conflicts between work and family domains.

From the discussion above the following hypothesis are proposed:

*Hypothesis 1a:* Supervisor support at work is inversely related to perceived work demand.

*Hypothesis 1b:* Supervisor support at work is inversely related to perceived family demand.

*Hypothesis 1c:* Supervisor support at work is inversely related to work–family conflict.

*Hypothesis 1d:* Supervisor support at work is inversely related to family–work conflict.

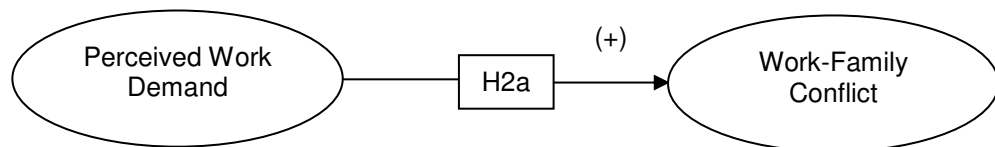
*Hypothesis 1e:* Supervisor support at work is positively related to work–life balance.

**Perceived work demand (PWD) and perceived family demand (PFD) will influence work–family conflict (WFC) and family–work conflict (FWC)**

The second link in the theoretical model of this study examines the relationship between perceived work demand and perceived family demand with work–family conflict and family–work conflict (see Figures 5.4 and 5.5). It is expected that both

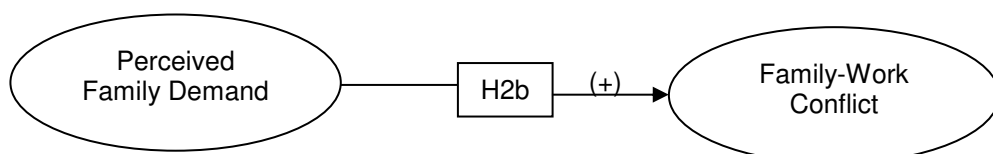


work and family demands influence conflict stemming from work and family domains, and nobody knows the extent this has on employees. With regard to work domain variables, theories and research findings have consistently demonstrated the link between job demands (e.g. work pressure, long hours) and WFC (Bruck, Allen, & Spector, 2002; Byron, 2005; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997), although the antecedents of WFC reside in the work domain and FWC in the family domain (Byron, 2005; Frone, 2003; Kinnunen & Mauno, 2008). More research findings (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Spector et al., 2007) have reported job demands as predictors of WFC.



**Figure 5.4 The proposed relationship between ‘Perceived Work Demand’ and ‘Work-Family Conflict’**

With regard to the resources scarcity perspective (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), work and family overload (Voydanoff, 1988) limit an individual’s ability to accomplish duties in another domain because of limited resources. This is consistent with negative spillover, where high demand levels in one domain, whether work or family, directly impact an individual’s ability to successfully complete duties in another domain. In both the scarcity and negative spillover conceptualisation, one domain interferes with the other by limiting, preventing, or altering one’s ability to perform role duties and responsibilities effectively, resulting in conflict (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). This was also observed by Lu and colleagues (2006) and Jansen and colleagues (2003), who reported a positive relationship between work demands with WFC and family demands with FWC. This is in line with the present study, which proposes that both work demands and family demands stem from the work and family domains, and are positively related to WFC and FWC.



**Figure 5.5 The proposed relationship between ‘Perceived Family Demand’ and ‘Family-Work Conflict’**

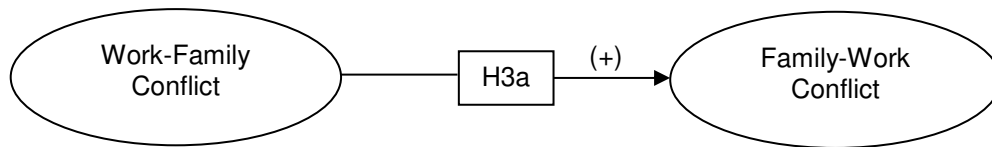
Extending the above theory, the JD-R model postulates that job demands and lack of job resources may be positively related to work–family conflict. More precisely, a stronger relationship can be expected between job demands and work–family conflict deriving in the work domain and diminishing the quality of life in the family domain (i.e. work-to-family conflict, or WFC; Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000). Indeed studies have found that increased work hours (e.g. Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), increased workload (e.g. Boyar et al., 2007; Voydanoff, 2005), and job stress (e.g. Byron, 2005) enhance WFC. Consistent with role theory (Kahn et al., 1964), the COR model (Hobfoll, 1989), and previous research (e.g. Byron, 2005; DiRenzo et al., 2011; Eby et al., 2005; Greenhaus et al., 1987; Major et al., 2002), it is proposed that:

*Hypothesis 2a:* Perceived work demand is positively linked to work–family conflict.

*Hypothesis 2b:* Perceived family demand is positively linked to family–work conflict.

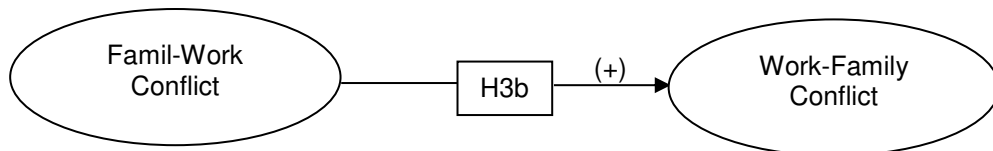
**Work–family conflict (WFC) and family–work conflict (FWC) will reciprocally influence each other**

The third link in the theoretical model of this study investigates the relationship between work–family conflict and family–work conflict (see Figures 5.6 and 5.7). The conservation of resources theory (COR) (Hobfoll, 1989) argues that ‘individuals strive to obtain, retain, protect, and foster things that they value’ (Hobfoll, 2001, p. 341). According to COR theory, resource loss is more salient than resource gain, and when individuals experience loss, they become more vulnerable to further loss. As resources are of value, their loss or threat of loss leads to psychological stress. Hobfoll (1989, 2001) argued that important resources include psychological characteristics, objects, energies and conditions. Some examples of family resources include a stable family life and marriage, intimacy with family members, time for family, and an enduring relationship with children (Hobfoll, 2001). Examples of work resources include factors such as time for work, status at work, stable employment and advancement at work (Hobfoll, 2001).



**Figure 5.6 The proposed relationship between ‘Work–Family Conflict’ and ‘Family–Work Conflict’**

Consistent to COR theory, the demands of one domain (e.g. work or family) sometimes require the reallocation of resources that take an individual away from their other priorities (Shaffer et al., 2001). As individuals have a limited amount of time in a day to meet family and work demands, it follows that work schedules, task deadlines, family commitments, sick children and a partner’s work schedule compete with one another and thereby constrain the amount of time one has to meet obligations in each domain. These are forms of time-based work–family and family–work conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), which occur when the time required by one domain interferes with time required by another. As both work and family represent salient and interdependent life domains, the threat to meet demands in each domain is likely to trigger psychological distress.



**Figure 5.7 The proposed relationship between ‘Family–Work Conflict’ and ‘Work–Family Conflict’**

Researchers have focused on the interface between work and family (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000) by emphasising the negative spillover between work and family domains (Frone, 2003). That is, when demands in one domain (i.e. work or family) limit one’s ability to complete required duties in the other (Crouter, 1984; Lambert, 1990). The assumption is that individuals have multiple roles within a domain, and as pressure increases to complete demands within that domain, there are fewer resources to meet the multiple roles and subsequent demands in other domains (Goode, 1960; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kahn et al., 1964). As both work and

family roles are inseparable and interconnected, experiencing stress in either role causes stress to the other. Therefore, it is proposed:

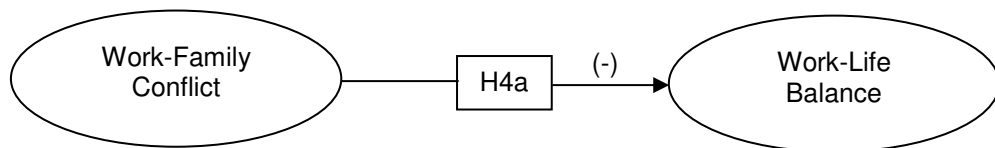
*Hypothesis 3a:* Work–family conflict is positively related to family–work conflict.

*Hypothesis 3b:* Family–work conflict is positively linked to work–family conflict.

**Work–family conflict (WFC) and family–work conflict (FWC) will influence work–life balance**

***Work–family conflict (WFC) will influence work–life balance (WLB)***

The fourth link in the theoretical model of this study investigates the relationship between work–family conflict and work–life balance (see Figure 5.8). A complementary perspective to the WLB literature is that lack of balance may lead to conflicts between life domains. Conflict is higher among those who work a greater number of hours (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Greenhaus et al., 1987; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Nielson, Carlson, & Lankau, 2001).



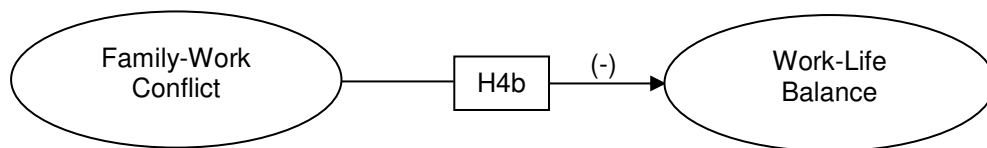
**Figure 5.8 The proposed relationship between ‘Work–Family Conflict’ and ‘Work-Life Balance’**

Researchers report that high job involvement (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001; Tenbrunsel et al., 1995) results in greater work demands (Yang, Chen, Choi, & Zou, 2000), and therefore requires greater time commitment to work (Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). More hours spent at work makes it more difficult for individuals to fulfil responsibilities at home, thus experience higher work demands which contributes to WFC (Zhang & Liu, 2011). Ostensibly, this conflict results individual’ to experience reduced level of work-life balance. Thus, it is proposed:

*Hypothesis 4a:* Work–family conflict is inversely related to work–life balance.

***Family–work conflict (FWC) will influence work–life balance (WLB)***

This link in the theoretical model of the study investigates the relationship between family–work conflict (FWC) and work–life balance (see Figure 5.9). Much of the research on the work–life interface has focused on the construct of FWC. Such conflict arises from simultaneous pressures from the family and work domains that are incompatible in some respect. Due to this incompatibility, participation in one role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the other role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).



**Figure 5.9 The proposed relationship between ‘Family–Work Conflict’ and ‘Work-Life Balance’**

The dominance of the conflict perspective in the WLB literature is rooted in scarcity theory, which assumes that the personal resources of time, energy and attention are finite, and that the devotion of greater resources to the family role necessitates the devotion of lesser resources to the work role (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). Thus, individuals who participate in both family and work roles are likely to experience conflict between these roles. This will probably lead to reduced work–life balance. Therefore, it is proposed:

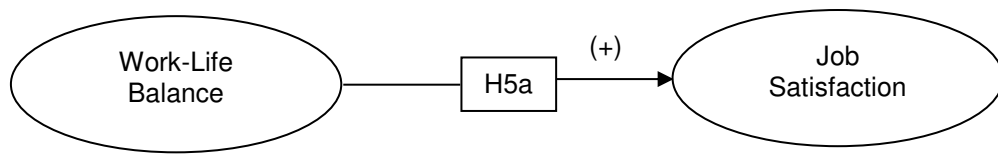
*Hypothesis 4b:* Family–work conflict is inversely related to work–life balance.

**Work–life balance will influence employees’ attitudes**

***Work–life balance will influence employees’ job satisfaction***

The literature confirms the likelihood of a positive relationship between WLB practices and employees’ job satisfaction (Crede et al., 2007). Past research also indicates that the companies that implement WLB practices (e.g. child care, flexible work arrangements) expect to have more satisfied employees. Examples include: social exchange theory (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959; Blau, 1964); the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960); perceived organisational support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002); and the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989). These theories confirm that individuals who perceive that employers are taking care of their well-

being (e.g. through formal or informal support for WLB) might experience positive feelings as a result and increase their job satisfaction (see Figure 5.10).



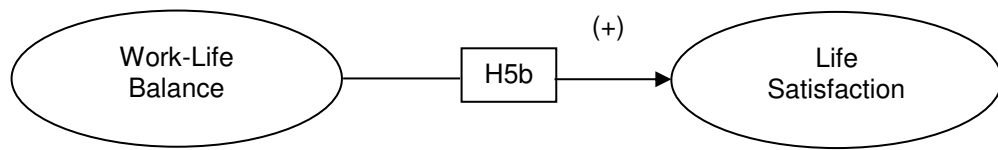
**Figure 5.10 The proposed relationship between ‘Work–Life Balance’ and ‘Job Satisfaction’**

Individuals who experience WLB may also be more satisfied with their job because they are participating in role activities that are salient to them (Greenhaus et al., 2003, p. 515). As such, it is proposed:

*Hypothesis 5a:* Work–life balance is positively linked to job satisfaction.

***Work–life balance will influence employees’ life satisfaction***

Life satisfaction has been regarded as one of the foremost indicators of one’s overall quality of life (Moons, Budts, & De Geest, 2006). With work and family likely being among the most important roles individuals hold in life, an inability to balance and meet the demands of these roles would likely be a significant source of life dissatisfaction. On the contrary, it can be expected that work–life balance will enhance life satisfaction (see Figure 5.11), as involvement in multiple roles protects or buffers individuals from the effects of negative experiences in any one role (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). It is believed that balanced individuals are ‘primed to seize the moment’ when confronted with a role demand because no role is seen as ‘less worthy of one’s alertness than any other’ (Marks & MacDermid, 1996, p. 421). According to this reasoning, balanced individuals experience low levels of stress when enacting roles, presumably because they are participating in role activities that are salient to them.



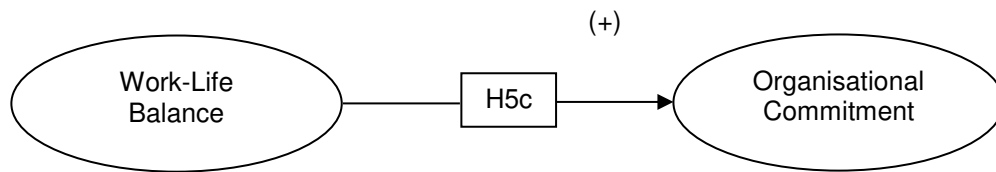
**Figure 5.11 the proposed relationship between ‘Work–Life Balance’ and ‘Life Satisfaction’**

Marks and MacDermid (1996) further contended that balanced individuals experienced less role overload, greater role ease and less depression than their imbalanced counterparts. Moreover, a balanced involvement in work and family roles may also increase work-life balance. Because balanced individuals are fully engaged in both roles, they do not allow ‘situational urgencies’ to hinder role performance chronically (Marks & MacDermid, 1996). Instead, they develop routines that enable them to meet the long-term demands of all roles, presumably avoiding extensive work–family conflict. As such, a balanced engagement in work and family roles is expected to be more associated with individual life satisfaction than dissatisfaction, because such balance reduces work–family conflict and stress, both of which detract an individual from life satisfaction. As such, it is proposed:

*Hypothesis 5b: Work–life balance is positively linked to life satisfaction.*

***Work–life balance will influence employees’ organisational commitment***

Social exchange theory posits that unspecified obligations based on trust will lead to gestures of goodwill being reciprocated at some point in the future. This theory is built on the principle of reciprocity, which is based on assumptions that people should help those who have helped them, and people should not injure those who have helped them (e.g. Gouldner, 1960, p. 171). In terms of WLB practice, both exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity suggest that when organisations provide family-friendly benefits to their employees that are not mandated by the organisations, reciprocity should come into play. It can be argued that if employees perceive that they are being cared for through the provision of family-friendly programs (e.g. child care, flexible work arrangements), the more likely employees are to conclude that the organisation is treating them well and thus will feel obligated to ‘pay back’ or reciprocate by becoming more committed to the organisation (see Figure 5.12).



**Figure 5.12 The proposed relationship between ‘Work–Life Balance’ and ‘Organisational Commitment’**

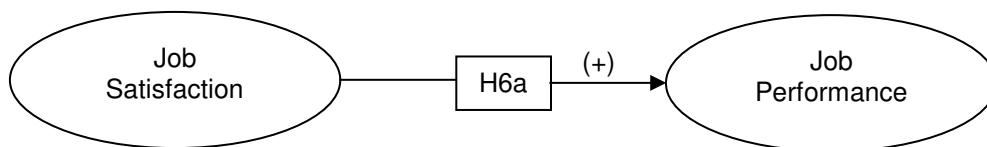
The argument of employee reciprocation with organisational commitment to the organisation is supported by previous researchers (Allen, 2001; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Other researchers (e.g. Grover & Crooker, 1995; Halpern, 2005; Kossek, Colquitt, & Noe, 2001) also reported that employee commitment was enhanced when organisations provided work-friendly programs to help employees fulfil family and non-work responsibilities. Therefore, it is proposed:

*Hypothesis 5c:* Work–life balance is positively linked to organisational commitment.

**Employee’s attitude will influence employees’ behaviour**

***Job satisfaction will influence employees’ job performance***

The last link in the theoretical model of this study examines the relationship between employee job satisfaction and job performance (see Figure 5.13). In line with the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and its subsequent expansion into theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1985), it is expected that there will be a positive impact of these three attitudes (e.g. JS, LS and OC) on employees’ job performance (behaviour). It is well recognised that attitudes precede behaviour. While the job satisfaction-job performance relationship has been a subject of much argument (Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006; Judge, Thoreson, Bono, & Patton, 2001), the researcher hypothesises the link in line with Ajzen and Fishbein (1975) and Eagly and Chaicken’s (1993) conceptualisation.



**Figure 5.13 The proposed relationship between ‘Job Satisfaction’ and ‘Job Performance’**

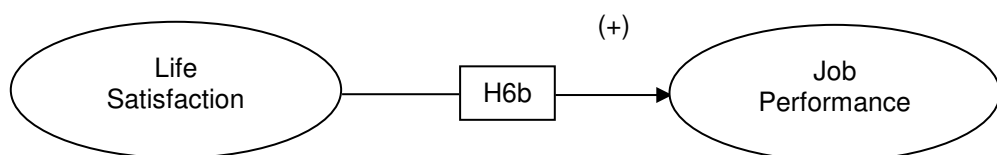


If employees view their jobs favourably (i.e. their pay, supervisory support, work conditions), they are more likely to perform positively at work. The saying ‘a happy worker is a productive worker’ has been a mantra of many organisations. It is also quite possible that employees are not happy at work (i.e. low job satisfaction). As argued by Ajzen and Fishbein (1975), this will have an impact on employees’ behaviour. The job performance of employees would also be below par. Therefore, it is proposed:

*Hypothesis 6a:* Employees’ job satisfaction will be positively linked to employees’ job performance.

***Life satisfaction will influence employees’ job performance***

Those who are happier in life form attachments to others, treat others better and are treated better (Erdogan et al., 2012). Lyubomirsky, King and Diener (2005) suggest that those who are happier will be more comfortable taking risks, and be more open-minded and creative. Happy people are less cautious in their approach to others and have the resilience to seek more opportunities. Further, people with positive outlooks tend to be more successful in a variety of life domains. In jobs where interpersonal interactions are key, life satisfaction and its associated positive attitude may influence effectiveness (Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005). Thus, employees’ life satisfaction (beyond the workplace) may also have an impact on their job performance (see Figure 5.14).



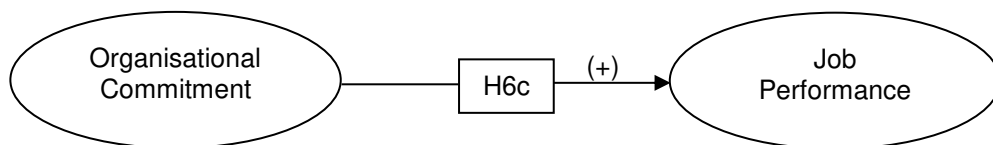
**Figure 5.14 The proposed relationship between ‘Life Satisfaction’ and ‘Job Performance’**

When employees experience hardship (or success) in their private lives there may be spillover effects to job performance. Employees who are more satisfied with life will perform better at work; employees less satisfied with life may underperform at work. Therefore, the study proposes to investigate whether life satisfaction can have an impact on job performance. So, it is proposed:

*Hypothesis 6b:* Employees' life satisfaction is positively linked to employees' job performance.

***Organisational commitment will influence employees' job performance***

Several theories demonstrate a link between organisational commitment (OC) and job performance (JP). Social exchange theory suggests that when employees perceive the organisation is helping them in some way, such as by providing support for their family lives, they will reciprocate with positive attitudes and behaviour (Blau, 1964). One way employees reciprocate organisational support for family life is by forming a stronger attachment to the organisation (Allen, 2001; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012). Dynamic exchange theory (March & Simon, 1958) postulates that individuals initially come to organisations with needs, desires and skills, expecting to find a work environment where they can utilise their skills and satisfy their needs. If the organisation facilitates this, enhanced and maintained high commitment over time may result (see Figure 5.15). Similarly, Mowday and colleagues (1982) suggested that, during early stages of employment, individuals make behaviourally committing choices, enter the organisation with high initial commitment, and engage in performance-enhancing behaviours on the job. In addition, they want the organisation to do well. That is why they try to put their best effort into their work.



**Figure 5.15 The proposed relationship between 'Organisational Commitment' and 'Job Performance'**

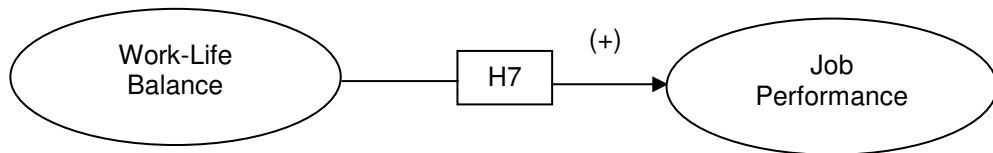
The perceived value of organisational benefits is related to supervisor ratings of performance through increased affective commitment to the organisation, regardless of benefit use (Must, Harris, Giles, & Field, 2008). Resource-based theory (e.g. Barney, 1991; Wright, McMahan, & McWilliams, 1994) postulates a link between work-family practices and organisational performance by attracting and retaining a highly qualified workforce that may result in a superior organisational performance in the long-run. So, there is evidence that if employees are committed to the organisation, they will reciprocate with positive behaviour to elevate performance.

It is also assumed that a committed employee will endeavour to enhance their performance in that organisation. Therefore, it is proposed that:

*Hypothesis 6c:* Employees' commitment to organisation is positively linked to employees' job performance.

### **Work–life balance will influence employees' job performance**

The last link of the proposed model posits the relationship between work–life balance and employees' job performance (see Figure 5.16). As noted earlier, the link between work–life balance and employee performance can be supported theoretically. For example, gaining resources (e.g. energy, time) is a prime requirement for an individual to reduce stress emanating from work and/or family roles. In essence, this resource gain and loss supports the conservation of resources theory (COR) (1989). Resources are limited, and to spend something in one domain means one is likely to lose something in another role, thus resulting in net loss. Hence, creating or providing an environment conducive to balanced work and life is expected to enhance an individual's performance in the workplace.



**Figure 5.16 The proposed relationship between 'Work–Life Balance' and 'Job Performance'**

It is further contended that a reduction in work–family conflict or an increase in work–life balance would explain the link between resources and employee and performance, because those individuals who have resources available to them to balance work and family will be less likely to experience one form of role conflict (work or family domain) which in turn would lead to more positive job attitudes and job performance. This mechanism is supported empirically by several researchers (e.g. Lapierre et al., 2008; Witt & Carlson, 2006). Finally, it is proposed:

*Hypothesis 7:* Work–life balance is positively related to employees' job performance.

**Table 5.2 Summary of research questions and hypotheses**

Research Questions	Research Hypothesis
RQ1: How is supervisor support related to employees' demands, conflicts and work-life balance?	H1a: Supervisor support at work is inversely related to perceived work demand
	H1b: Supervisor support at work is inversely related to perceived family demand
	H1c: Supervisor support at work is inversely related to work-family conflict
	H1d: Supervisor support at work is inversely related to family-work conflict
	H1e: Supervisor support at work is positively related to work-life balance
RQ2: How is perceived work and family demand related to work-family conflict and family-work conflict?	H2a: Perceived work demand is positively related to work-family conflict
	H2b: Perceived family demand is positively related to family-work conflict
RQ3: Does work-family conflict and family-work conflict influence each other?	H3a: Work-family conflict is positively related to family-work conflict
	H3b: Family-work conflict is positively related to work-family conflict
RQ4: Does work-family conflict and family-work conflict affect work-life balance?	H4a: Work-family conflict is inversely related to work-life balance
	H4b: Family-work conflict is inversely related to work-life balance
RQ5: How does work-life balance influence employees' attitudes?	H5a: Work-life balance is positively related to job satisfaction
	H5b: Work-life balance is positively related to life satisfaction
	H5c: Work-life balance is positively related to organisational commitment
RQ6: Does employees' attitude influence job performance?	H6a: Job satisfaction is positively related to job performance
	H6b: Life satisfaction is positively related to job performance
	H6c: Organisational commitment is positively related to job performance
RQ7: Does work-life balance relate to employees' job performance?	H7: Work-life balance is positively related to employees' job performance

## **5.6 Summary**

This chapter presented a review of the extant literature and described the foundation underlying the theoretical framework relevant to the research problem. On the basis of the research gaps identified in Chapter two, the theoretical framework was developed for this research. The chapter outlined the main constructs to be used in this study. Different theories were reviewed which help explain the relationship between the constructs in the research model. Seven research questions were established and 18 research hypotheses (see Table 5.2) were proposed to guide data collection and analysis. The next chapter discusses the quantitative research design.

## **Abbreviations used in Chapter 6**

AMSRO: Association of Market and Social Research Organisations

AVE: Average Variance Extracted

CFA: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

EFA: Exploratory Factor Analysis

ESOMAR: European Society for Opinion and Marketing Research

ISO: International Standardisation Organisation

MRIA: The Canadian Market Research and Intelligence Association

NEAF: National Ethics Applications Form

PCA: Principal Component Analysis

RDD: Random Digital Dialling

SEM: Structural Equation Modelling

WSU: Western Sydney University

## **Chapter 6 Quantitative Research Design**

### **6.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter illustrated theoretical framework which was required prior to designing the quantitative study. This chapter discusses the survey questionnaire, piloting, constructs operationalisation, measurements scales, survey method, testing of the reflective measurement model and data analysis, followed by a summary of the chapter. It explains the pilot study and implementation of the survey. It also presents the results derived from the pilot study and justifies the use of the survey method. The survey design section justifies the use of the web-based survey and the steps taken to ensure the integrity of the data collected from online panels.

As noted earlier, various methods were used to develop the questionnaire. Firstly, those antecedents driving WLB were identified through interviews, and these, along with knowledge gained from current literature, were used to develop potential items for the questionnaire.

### **6.2 Survey Questionnaire**

The section utilised qualitative findings, theory and constructs in concert with existing literature to develop a questionnaire that would determine the extent of antecedents of work–life balance driving employees’ attitude, and performance in the Australian financial sector. Questionnaires have been shown to be appropriate in mixed method studies to extend and quantify the findings of an initial qualitative phase (Boyton & Greenhalgh, 2004). Developing constructs from interview data has been shown to reduce the risk of ‘researcher imposed constructs’ (Punch, 1998, p. 262) by using the valuable insights offered by participants. Furthermore, issues that are relevant to respondents potentially improve response rates and minimise non-response error (Murray, 1999; Dillman, 2000; Williams, 2003). The literature on questionnaire design also provided valuable information about the different ways of structuring the questionnaire to best capture information that would answer the research question (Thomas, 1999; Visser et al., 2000; Hagino, 2002).

Questionnaires are relatively easy to create and interpret and are less time-consuming especially as the respondent, rather than the researcher, completes the questionnaire (Dillman, 2009). Questionnaires are a reliable method of research as they use questions with uniform definitions which ensure that everyone is asked the same questions in the same way (Hagino, 2002). One of the main concerns while using questionnaires is that they are generally associated with lower response rates (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003; Mertens, 2005; Neuman, 2007). This can be attributed to the impersonal nature of questionnaires where there is no opportunity for the participants to build rapport with the researcher (Gliner & Morgan, 2000).

To assist in the development of the questionnaire, various constructs were derived from the categories identified in the qualitative findings and the theory and key constructs discussed previously. Demographic questions were placed first as it helped to ease the participants into the questionnaire and increase their confidence (McGibbon, 1997). These were quick and easy to fill out and required little thought (Thomas, 1999). Next, items that addressed similar constructs were grouped together for better cohesion and to allow for a smoother flow of questions from one topic to another (Murray, 1999). These grouped items were then arranged under 10 main sections, namely: work–life balance; supervisor support; perceived work demand; perceived family demand; work–family conflict; family–work conflict; job satisfaction; life satisfaction; organisational commitment; and job performance. It is to be noted that the present study assumes ‘individual performance’ as synonymous to ‘job performance’, which includes ‘in-role performance’ and ‘extra-role performance’. Table 6.1 presents the grouping of the constructs used in the questionnaire.



**Table 6.1 Constructs utilised in the development of the questionnaire**

<b>Constructs identified from qualitative findings</b>	<b>Corresponding constructs developed from extant literature</b>
Demographics	NA
Work - Life Balance	NA
Supervisor Support	NA
Work Life	Perceived Work Demand
Home Life	Perceived Family Demand
Work - Life/Family Conflict	Family-Work Conflict
Job Satisfaction	NA
Life Satisfaction	NA
Commitment	NA
Individual Performance	In-Role Performance and Extra-Role Performance

The draft questionnaire was informally pre-tested for clarity and readability by 12 employees and supervisors who had been working full-time in financial institutions (e.g. banks, finance and accounting firms) for more than 10 years. The main purpose of this pre-test was to verify that representatives of the target audience understood the questions and response options proposed by the researcher, and were able to answer meaningfully (Perneger et al., 2015). Finally, the questionnaire was circulated to an expert panel to ensure that all areas of concern were thoroughly addressed. Throughout this process the content and design of the questionnaire was refined and reviewed. The combination of these methods helped to ensure face and content validity of the final questionnaire (see Appendix 6.1).

### **6.3 Pilot Study**

A pilot study was employed to refine the questionnaire and ensure it was comprehensive (Keeney et al., 2013) prior to the main study. A pilot study is required when data is being evaluated to identify any potential gaps in the quantitative research design. This can save time especially if the research project is strictly time-bounded and pressurised (Sampson, 2004). Past researchers (Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001) argue to the case for conducting pilot studies for the purpose of: ‘developing and testing adequacy of research instruments; assessing the feasibility of a full-scale study; designing a research protocol; collecting preliminary data; assessing the proposed data analysis techniques to uncover potential problems;

developing a research question and a research plan; (and) training a researcher in as many elements of the research process as possible'. Turner (2005, p. 5) summarises the learning opportunities the researcher can extract from pilot study: 'learning how to reduce uncertainty in product or process of a project; learning what will work or not in the design of a new product; learning by testing the efficacy of a research instrument'. The pilot study was undertaken with a convenience sample of 106 employees working in financial institutions across Sydney, Australia.

### **6.3.1 Data Collection**

The data for the pilot study was obtained through the drop-off survey method (Burns, & Bush, 2003). This flexible survey method combines the advantages of mail surveys and face-to-face interviews. It is reported to have quick turnaround; high response rates; minimal influence on answers; good control over how respondents are selected; and be inexpensive. Such a method was seen to be useful as the researcher had the opportunity to select specific organisations which would then be approached to encourage their employees to fill out the survey forms. Financial institutions were approached directly by email and phone call to request them to encourage their employees to fill out the survey forms. The intention of the researcher was guaranteed to be purely scholarly, with no possibility of publication in the popular media or press. Correspondingly, privacy and confidentiality of information was ensured. The ethical clearance was organised prior to collecting data from the university. It almost took five months to collect 106 responses for the pilot study.

### **6.3.2 Descriptive Statistics**

The pilot survey was completed with 41 male and 65 female employees. A majority (41%) belonged to the 31-to-40 age bracket. Most of these employees (76%) were married, and 36% of the respondents had worked more than five years with their current employers. The pilot study covered a cross-section of workers employed at different levels. Table 6.2 presents the respondent profile of the pilot study.

**Table 6.2 Respondent profile**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Sex</b>	
Male	39
Female	61
<b>Age (in years)</b>	
21-30	14
31-40	41
41-50	25
51-60	18
60+	2
<b>Marital Status</b>	
Single	21
Married or de facto	76
Separated or divorced	3

### **6.3.3 Measures**

The pilot study was based on an initial model of all 11 constructs: supervisor support (SS); perceived family demand (PFD); perceived work demand (PWD); work–family conflict (WFC); family–work conflict (FWC); work–life balance (WLB); job satisfaction (JS); life satisfaction (LS); organisational commitment (OC); in-role performance (IRP); and extra-role performance (ERP). The survey instrument consisted of 54 items which were measured on a seven-point Likert scale. These items were generated from a rigorous literature review.

### **6.3.4 Psychometric Assessment**

The psychometric properties of the items in each measure were evaluated through an examination of internal consistency reliability and inter-item correlations. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was not carried out on the pilot study data as the number of complete responses was only 106. For reliable EFA results it is recommended that the minimal number of cases should be more than five times the number of items. There were 54 items in the pilot study, which required a total sample of 270 respondents. However, this recommended ratio is higher in cases where the dataset may have missing values. Approximately, 8% of the data contained missing values. Thus, it was felt that an EFA on such a small dataset would not yield a reliable output. To assess the divergent validity of each measure, the correlations

between each construct were assessed. Construct reliability of the 11 factors was computed. The Cronbach's alpha measure for all constructs was satisfactory and yielded greater values than previous studies summarised in Table 6.3.

**Table 6.3 Cronbach's Alpha coefficients for constructs used in the pilot study**

Construct	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha	Source	Previous Cronbach's score
Supervisor Support (SS)	5	0.92	Hammer, Kossek, Bodner, and Hanson (2009)	0.92 (as part of a 14- item scale)
Perceived Family Demand (PFD)	4	0.84	Boyar, Carr, Mosley, and Carson (2007)	0.82 (as part of a 4- item scale)
Perceived Work Demand (PWD)	5	0.92	Boyar Boyar, Carr, Mosley, and Carson (2007)	0.93 (as part of a 5- item scale)
Work-Family Conflict (WFC)	5	0.92	Netemeyer, Boles and McMurrin (1996)	0.88 (as part of a 5- item scale)
Family-Work Conflict (FWC)	5	0.93	Netemeyer, Boles and McMurrin (1996)	0.86 (as part of a 5- item scale)
Work-Life Balance (WLB)	5	0.94	Hill et al (2001); Brough et al (2014); and Carlson et al (2009)	0.83 (as part of a 15-items scale)
Job Satisfaction (JS)	5	0.89	Brayfield and Rothe (1951)	0.77 (as part of a 8-item scale)
Life Satisfaction (LS)	5	0.94	Diener et al (1985)	0.70 (as part of a 8-item scale)
Organisational Commitment (OC)	5	0.85	Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979)	0.90 (as part of a 15- item scale)
In-Role Performance (IRP)	6	0.89	Williams and Anderson (1991)	0.91 (as part of a 6-item scale)
Extra-Role Performance (ERP)	4	0.85	Lynch, Eisenberger and Armeli (1999)	0.90 (as part of a 4-item scale)

It was also important to see if the constructs were distinguishable from each other. Therefore, inter-correlations were generated (see Table 6.4) which did not produce excessively high correlations between any of the 11 constructs. Nevertheless, the strongest correlation ( $r=.690$ ;  $p<0.01$ ) was observed between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. In contrast, the weakest correlation was between perceived work demand and family-work conflict ( $r=.191$ ;  $p<.05$ ). A correlations matrix was examined to check any highly correlated variables (see Table 6.4). The results report that the VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) for each case was lower than 3, which clearly implied the dataset was free from multicollinearity (O'Brien, 2007).

**Table 6.4 Data analysis (correlation coefficients) of pilot study**

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. SS											
2. WFC	-.350**										
3. WLB	.563**	-.589**									
4. JS	.620**	-.247*	.620**								
5. OC	.584**	-.210*	.467**	.693**							
6. PFD	.131	.384**	-.225*	.110	.138						
7. PWD	-.068	.556**	-.245*	-.091	-.008	.203*					
8. FWC	-.112	.517**	-.247*	-.049	-.037	.537**	.191*				
9. LS	.474**	-.219*	.550**	.690**	.507**	.028	-.130	-.078			
10. IRP	.219*	-.066	.233*	.151	.240*	-.183	.257**	-.272**	.190		
11. ERP	.294**	.028	.305**	.295**	.449**	.008	.344**	-.019	.298**	.592**	

*N=106; \*p<.05; \*\*p<.01*

In summary, the factor model used in the pilot study appeared to have no conceptual deviation from the construct definitions. This resulted in an adequate representation of the constructs. These conclusions satisfied the researcher that it was not necessary to revise and revisit the definition and dimensionality of all factors. It is to be noted that all items for these constructs were taken from the literature (as explained later in this chapter) and there was no need to modify or alter any of the items.

### 6.3.5 Findings and Conclusion

This section has covered the implementation and results of the pilot study undertaken as the first part of the quantitative research stage of this project. A considerable advantage of conducting a pilot study before the main study is to anticipate the debilities of the research project, namely by controlling the adequacy of protocols, methods and instruments (De Vaus, 1993, p. 54). A total of 106 employees from financial organisations participated in this pilot study, which was more than the recommended proportion. This is in line with extant literature suggesting that a pilot study sample should be 10% of the sample projected for the main study (Connelly, 2008). During the pilot sampling process it became evident that accessing a population for the main study to sample would be difficult. As with findings by McDermott, Vincentelli, and Venus (2005), the pilot study suggested that more time would be needed to collect the data for the main study than that which had been originally allotted. Given that a new data collection method had to be considered, the

resource requirements for the study were also revised, as per the suggestion made by the previous researchers (Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001). Furthermore, the pilot study enabled the researcher to validate the questionnaire with all the items of the measures that were proposed beforehand. Hence, none of the items were modified, revised or reworded before the launch of the main study.

## **6.4 Main Study**

The findings from the pilot study allowed the researcher to retain the entire instrument before carrying out the main study. Following are the main steps undertaken in the development of the research design.

### **6.4.1 Construct Operationalisation**

Generally, constructs are intangible or non-concrete characteristics or qualities on which individuals differ (Cote, Buckley, & Best, 1987). Constructs are defined as informed, scientific ideas developed or hypothesised to describe or explain behaviours (Cohen & Swerdilk, 2010). Constructs are tools used for the purpose of organising reality (Morse, Hupcey, Mitcham, & Lenz, 1996). As Netemeyer, Beardon, and Sharma (2003) note, due to their latent nature, the constructs representing abstractions can be assessed only indirectly. Constructs should have a relation with observed behaviours (DeVellis, 2003). ‘Behaviour’ in this sense means observable actions such as responses to test or survey items, or any physical action. While it is important to define a construct of interest carefully, as Bryant (2000) suggests, researchers should provide conceptual definitions before providing operational definitions. Such conceptual understanding and definition of the construct of interest helps the researcher understand its purpose and usefulness or application. Once conceptualised, the construct potentially will have many different operational definitions (Leary, 2004). Definitions used for this study’s constructs were taken from existing work–life literature. Keeping in mind the experiences from the smaller scale study, it was ensured that the definitions were clear, specific and unambiguous (Neuman, 2000). This stage also examined a construct’s ‘dimensionality’ (Hair et al., 2010).

Tables 6.5 to 6.15 present the theoretical and operational definitions for each construct used in this research. All constructs are measured on a seven-point Likert scale. Each construct's indicators or measures have also been identified. All indicators used in this research study are well established in the management and psychology literature. Thus, the measures align well with the conceptualised definitions of the constructs. The appropriateness of each measure is also justified in this chapter.

**Table 6.5 Conceptual and operational definitions, survey items and scales used for the construct ‘Work–Life Balance’**

Construct	Conceptual Definition	Operational Definition	Survey Questions	Scales
Work–Life Balance (WLB)	‘An individual’s ability to meet work and family commitments, as well as other non-work responsibilities and activities’ (Hill et al., 2001, p. 49).	Measured by the extent of agreement with statements on a Likert scale about general feelings regarding balance between work, family and personal life of employees in the financial sector in Sydney, NSW.	<p>WLB_1. I have sufficient time away from my job at workplace to maintain adequate work and personal/family life balance.</p> <p>WLB_2. I currently have a good balance between the time I spend at work and the time I have available for non-work activities.</p> <p>WLB_3. I feel that the balance between my work demands and non-work activities is currently about right.</p> <p>WLB_4. I am able to negotiate and accomplish what is expected of me at work and in my family.</p> <p>WLB_5. I am able to accomplish the expectations that my supervisors and my family have for me.</p> <p>Items adopted from Hill et al. (2001), Brough et al. (2014) and Carlson et al. (2009)</p>	Interval Scale



**Table 6.6 Conceptual and operational definitions, survey items and scales used for the construct ‘Perceived Family Demand’**

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Conceptual Definition</b>	<b>Operational Definition</b>	<b>Survey Questions</b>	<b>Scales</b>
Perceived Family Demand (PFD)	‘A perception regarding demand levels within the family domain’ (Boyar et al., 2007, p.103).	Measured by the extent of agreement with statements on a Likert scale about general perception regarding demand elicited from family life of employees in the financial sector in Sydney, NSW.	PFD_1. I have to work hard on family-related activities. PFD_2. My family requires all of my attention. PFD_3. I feel like I have a lot of family demand. PFD_4. I have a lot of responsibility in my family.  Items adopted from Boyar et al. (2007)	Interval Scale

**Table 6.7 Conceptual and operational definitions, survey items and scales used for the construct 'Perceived Work Demand'**

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Conceptual Definition</b>	<b>Operational Definition</b>	<b>Survey Questions</b>	<b>Scales</b>
Perceived Work Demand (PWD)	'A perception regarding demand levels within the work domain' (Boyar et al., 2007, p.103).	Measured by the extent of agreement with statements on a Likert scale about the general perception regarding work demand elicited from workplace of employees in the financial sector in Sydney, NSW.	PWD_1. My job requires all of my attention. PWD_2. I feel like I have a lot of work demand. PWD_3. I feel like I have a lot to do at work. PWD_4. My work requires a lot from me. PWD_5. I am given a lot of work to do.  Items adopted from Boyar et al. (2007)	Interval Scale

**Table 6.8 Conceptual and operational definitions, survey items and scales used for the construct ‘Supervisor Support’**

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Conceptual Definition</b>	<b>Operational Definition</b>	<b>Survey Questions</b>	<b>Scales</b>
Supervisor Support (SS)	‘Supervisory behaviour towards employees that would allow employees to achieve a balance between their responsibilities at home and at work’ (Thomas & Gangster, 1995, p. 9).	Measured by the extent of agreement with statements on a Likert scale about the general perception regarding support from supervisor to balance between work, family and life of employees in the financial sector in Sydney, NSW.	<p>SS_1. My supervisor understands my family demands.</p> <p>SS_2. My supervisor listens when I talk about my family.</p> <p>SS_3. My supervisor acknowledges that I have obligations as a family member.</p> <p>SS_4. My supervisor is a good role model for work and non-work balance.</p> <p>SS_5. My supervisor demonstrates how a person can jointly be successful on and off the job.</p> <p>Items adopted from Clark (2001), Lu et al. (2010), Allen et al. (2014), and Hammer et al. (2009)</p>	Interval Scale

**Table 6.9 Conceptual and operational definitions, survey items and scales used for the construct ‘Work–Family Conflict’**

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Conceptual Definition</b>	<b>Operational Definition</b>	<b>Survey Questions</b>	<b>Scales</b>
Work–Family Conflict (WFC)	‘Participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role’ (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77).	Measured by the extent of agreement with statements on a Likert scale about the general perception regarding about conflict between work and family of employees in the financial sector in Sydney, NSW.	<p>WFC_1. The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.</p> <p>WFC_2. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil family responsibilities.</p> <p>WFC_3. Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.</p> <p>WFC_4. My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties.</p> <p>WFC_5. Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities</p> <p>Items adopted from Netemeyer et al. (1996)</p>	Interval Scale

**Table 6.10 Conceptual and operational definitions, survey items and scales used for the construct ‘Family–Work Conflict’**

Construct	Conceptual Definition	Operational Definition	Survey Questions	Scales
Family–Work Conflict (FWC)	‘Participation in the family (work) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the work (family)’ (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77).	Measured by the extent of agreement with statements on a Likert scale about the general perception regarding conflict between family and work of employees in the financial sector in Sydney, NSW.	<p>FWC_1. The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities.</p> <p>FWC_2. I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.</p> <p>FWC_3. Things I want to do at work don’t get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner.</p> <p>FWC_4. My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.</p> <p>FWC_5. Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.</p> <p>Items adopted from Netemeyer et al. (1996)</p>	Interval Scale

**Table 6.11 Conceptual and operational definitions, survey items and scales used for the construct ‘Job Satisfaction’**

Construct	Conceptual Definition	Operational Definition	Survey Questions	Scales
Job Satisfaction (JS)	‘Pleasurable positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences’ (Locke, 1976, p. 1300).	Measured by the extent of agreement with statements on a Likert scale about the general perception regarding satisfaction in the job of employees in the financial sector in Sydney, NSW.	JS_1. My job is like a hobby to me. JS_2. My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored. JS_3. I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people. JS_4. I like my job better than the average worker does JS_5. I find real enjoyment in my work.  Items adopted from Brayfield and Rothe (1951)	Interval Scale

**Table 6.12 Conceptual and operational definitions, survey items and scales used for the construct ‘Life Satisfaction’**

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Conceptual Definition</b>	<b>Operational Definition</b>	<b>Survey Questions</b>	<b>Scales</b>
Life Satisfaction (LS)	‘A conscious cognitive judgment of one’s life in which the criteria for judgment are up to the person’ (Pavot & Diener, 1993, p.164).	Measured by the extent of agreement with statements on a Likert scale about the general perception regarding satisfaction in life of employees in the financial sector in Sydney, NSW.	LS_1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal. LS_2. The conditions of my life are excellent. LS_3. I am satisfied with my life. LS_4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life. LS_5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.  Items adopted from Diener et al. (1985)	Interval Scale

**Table 6.13 Conceptual and operational definitions, survey items and scales used for the construct ‘Organisational Commitment’**

Construct	Conceptual Definition	Operational Definition	Survey Questions	Scales
Organisational Commitment (OC)	‘A relative strength of an individual’s identification with and involvement in a particular organisation’ (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 226).	Measured by the extent of agreement with statements on a Likert scale about the general perception regarding the efforts employee can put forward to the organisation of employees in the financial sector in Sydney, NSW.	<p>OC_1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organisation be successful.</p> <p>OC_2. I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for.</p> <p>OC_3. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organisation.</p> <p>OC_4. I find that my values and the organisation’s values are very similar.</p> <p>OC_5. For me this is the best of all possible organisations for which to work.</p> <p>Items adopted from Mowday et al. (1979)</p>	Interval Scale



**Table 6.14 Conceptual and operational definitions, survey items and scales used for the construct ‘In-Role Performance’**

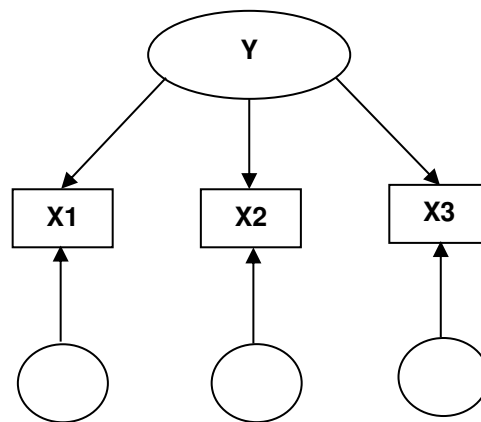
<b>Construct</b>	<b>Conceptual Definition</b>	<b>Operational Definition</b>	<b>Survey Questions</b>	<b>Scales</b>
In-Role Performance (IRP)	‘Behaviour directed toward formal tasks, duties, and responsibilities such as those included in a job description’ (Williams & Anderson, 1991, p. 606).	Measured by the extent of agreement with statements on a Likert scale about the perception on formal tasks, duties, and responsibilities of employees in the financial sector in Sydney, NSW.	IRP_1. I adequately complete assigned duties. IRP_2. I meet formal performance requirements of the job. IRP_3. I don’t neglect aspects of the job that I am obligated to perform. IRP_4. I fulfil responsibilities specified in the job description. IRP_5. I engage in activities that can positively affect my performance evaluation. IRP_6. I perform tasks that are expected of me.  Items adopted from William and Anderson (1991)	Interval Scale

**Table 6.15 Conceptual and operational definitions, survey items and scales used for the construct ‘Extra-Role Performance’**

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Conceptual Definition</b>	<b>Operational Definition</b>	<b>Survey Questions</b>	<b>Scales</b>
Extra-Role Performance (ERP)	‘discretionary actions contributing to organisation effectiveness and lying outside formal role requirements’ (George & Brief, 1992, p. 313)	Measured by the extent of agreement with statements on a Likert scale about the perception on discretionary behaviour to the organisation of employees in the financial sector in Sydney, NSW.	<p>ErP_1. I can make constructive suggestions to the overall functioning of my work group.</p> <p>ErP_2. I encourage others to try new and more effective ways of doing their jobs.</p> <p>ErP_3. I am well informed where opinion might benefit the organisation.</p> <p>ErP_4. I continue to look for new ways to improve the effectiveness of my work.</p> <p>Items adopted from Lynch et al. (1999)</p>	Interval Scale

### 6.4.2 Measurement Scales

Management scholars invariably identify structural relationships among latent, unobserved constructs by statistically relating co-variation between the latent constructs and the observed variables or indicators of the latent constructs (Borsboom, Mellenbergh, & Heerden, 2004). This statistical co-variation allows scholars to argue that if a variation in an indicator X is associated with a variation in a latent construct Y, then exogenous interventions that change Y can be detected in the indicator X. Most scholars assume this relationship between construct and indicator is reflective. In other words, the change in X reflects the change in the latent construct Y (see Figure 6.1). With reflective (or effect) measurement models, causality flows from the latent construct to the indicator, while for formative (or causal) models it is the opposite. Past researchers reported that the reflective view dominates the psychological and management sciences, while the formative view is common in economics and sociology (Coltman et al., 2008).



**Figure 6.1: Reflective measures**

The distinction between formative and reflective measures is important because proper specification of a measurement model is necessary to assign meaningful relationships in the structural model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Three broad theoretical considerations are crucial to substantiate whether the measurement model is reflective or formative (Coltman et al., 2008). These are: (1) the nature of the construct; 2) the direction of causality between the indicators and the latent construct; and (3) the characteristics of the indicators used to measure the construct.

In a reflective model, the latent construct exists (in an absolute sense) independent of the measures (Borsboom et al., 2004; Rossiter, 2002), thus practically all scales in business and related methodological texts on scale development (Bearden & Netmeyer, 1999; Netmeyer, Bearden, & Sharma, 2003; Spector, 1992) use a reflective approach to measurement. The second key theoretical consideration in deciding whether the measurement model is reflective or formative is the direction of causality between the construct and the indicators, as reflective models assume that causality flows from the construct to the indicators. Thus, in reflective models, a change in the construct causes a change in the indicators.

In a reflective model, change in the latent variable must precede variation in the indicator(s). Thus, the indicators all share a common theme and are interchangeable. This indicator interchangeability enables researchers to measure the construct by sampling a few relevant indicators underlying the domain of the construct (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Inclusion or exclusion of one or more indicators from the domain does not materially alter the content validity of the construct. In addition, in a reflective model, the latent construct exists (in an absolute sense) independent of the measures (Borsboom et al., 2004; Rossiter, 2002). Typical examples of reflective scenarios include measures of attitudes and personality. Practically all scales in business and related methodological texts on scale development (Bearden & Netmeyer, 1999; Bruner et al., 2001; Netmeyer, Bearden, & Sharma, 2003; Spector, 1992) use a reflective approach to measurement. In light of the above arguments, the present research undertook the reflective measurement model rather than the formative.

In business and management, Likert-type scales are often used by researchers to collect data (Alexandrov, 2010). All items used to measure the latent constructs in this study were previously used in work–life research studies as discussed. As this study measured antecedents of work–life balance, employees’ attitudes and job performance, the Likert scale (Likert, 1932) was the most appropriate one to use. The present study employed a seven-point Likert scale. Givon and Shapira (1984) found pronounced improvements in item reliability when moving from two-point scales toward seven-point scales. It is reported that most people may be able to differentiate feeling (e.g. slightly favourable, moderately favourable, and extremely favourable)

toward objects, in which case a seven-point scale would be more desirable than a five-point scale (Krosnick & Presser, 2010).

#### 6.4.2.1 Measures of the Exogenous Variables

This section identifies the exogenous and endogenous variables used in the study. It also compares the use of different scales to measure the variables, and justifies the use of the selected items. This research study consisted of 10 exogenous variables: supervisor support; perceived work demand; perceived family demand; work–family conflict; family–work conflict; work–life balance; job satisfaction; life satisfaction; and organisational commitment. These exogenous variables are discussed below in turn.

#### Measures of ‘Supervisor Support’

This variable was measured with three items from Clark (2001) that were used in a sample of postgraduate students in the USA (see Table 6.16), and two items of managerial support from Hammer et al. (2009) used for university staff in the USA. The former three items are ‘My supervisor understands my family needs,’ ‘My supervisor listens when I talk about my family,’ and ‘My supervisor acknowledges that I have obligations as a family member’; and the latter two items are ‘In general managers in this business unit are quite accommodating of family and personal responsibilities’ and ‘Senior managers in this office encourage others to be sensitive to employee’s family and personal concerns.’ These items were used extensively in the work–life research.

**Table 6.16 Previous studies used scales for ‘Supervisor Support’**

Author/Year	Number of Items	Reliability	Scale	Context
Clark (2001)	3	Alpha = 0.86	Five-point Likert scale	Postgraduate students in USA
Hammer et al (2009)	14	Alpha = 0.97	Five-point Likert scale	University staffs in USA
Lu et al. (2010)	3	Alpha = 0.86	Five-point	Firms in Taiwan and UK
Allen et al (2014)	3	Alpha = 0.88	Five-point	Managers from different country

### Measures of ‘Perceived Work Demand’

This variable was measured with five items from Boyar and et al. (2007) that were used in a sample of manufacturing employees in the USA (see Table 6.17). Other researchers (Kacmar et al., 2014; Brough et al., 2014) also used these items on online panel and public service employees in Australia and New Zealand. The items are ‘My job requires all of my attention’, ‘I feel like I have a lot of work demand’, ‘I feel like I have a lot to do at work’, ‘My work requires a lot from me’, and ‘I am given a lot of work to do’. Previously, the items were used extensively in the work–life research.

**Table 6.17 Previous studies used scales for ‘Perceived Work Demand’**

Author/Year	Number of Items	Reliability	Scale	Context
Boyar et al (2007)	5	Alpha = 0.89	Five-point Likert scale	Manufacturing workers in USA
Kacmar et al (2014)	5	Alpha = 0.89	Five-point Likert scale	Online survey
Brough et al (2014)	5	Alpha = 0.93	Five-point Likert scale	Public service, health, education, finance etc. in Australia and New Zealand

### Measures of ‘Perceived Family Demand’

This variable was measured with four items from Boyar et al. (2007) that were used for manufacturing workers in the USA (see Table 6.18). The items were also used by other work–family researchers through an online survey (Kacmar et al., 2014). The items are: ‘I have to work hard on family-related activities’, ‘My family requires all of my attention’, ‘I feel like I have a lot of family demand’, and ‘I have a lot of responsibility in my family’. In the past, the items were used extensively in the work–life research.

**Table 6.18 Previous studies used scales for ‘Perceived Family Demand’**

Author/Year	Number of Items	Reliability	Scale	Context
Boyar et al (2007)	4	Alpha = 0.77	Five-point Likert scale	Manufacturing workers in USA
Kacmar et al (2014)	4	Alpha = 0.82	Five-point Likert scale	Online survey

**Measures of ‘Work–Family Conflict’**

This variable was measured with five items from Netemeyer et al. (1996) that was used for school teachers in USA (see Table 6.19). The items were used by several work–life researchers. For example, Scott et al. (2015) used the items in a sample of university staff in USA; Sidani and Hakim (2012) used the items in various organisations in Lebanon; and Wayne et al. (2013) used the items in a sample of construction engineers. The items are: ‘I have to work hard on family-related activities’, ‘The demand of my work interferes with my home and family life’, ‘The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil family responsibilities’, ‘Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me’, and ‘My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties’. The items were used extensively in the work–life research.

**Table 6.19 Previous studies used scales for ‘Work–Family Conflict’**

Author/Year	Number of Items	Reliability	Scale	Context
Netemeyer et al (1996)	7	Alpha = 0.88	Seven-point Likert scale	School teachers in USA
Scott et al (2015)	5	Alpha = 0.87	Five-point Likert scale	University in USA
Sidnani and Hakim (2012)	5	Alpha = 0.81	Five-point Likert scale	Different organisations in Lebanon
Wayne et al (2013)	5	Alpha = 0.88	Five-point Likert scale	Engineering consulting firms in USA

### Measures of ‘Family–Work Conflict’

This variable was measured with five items from Netemeyer and colleagues (1996) that were used for school teachers in the USA (see Table 6.20). The items were also used by other work–life researchers, for example, Sidani and Hakim (2012) used the items in various organisations in Lebanon. The items are: ‘The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities’, ‘I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home’, ‘Things I want to do at work don’t get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner’, ‘My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime’, and ‘Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.’ The items were used extensively in the work–life research.

**Table 6.20 previous studies used scales for ‘Family–Work Conflict’**

Author/Year	Number of Items	Reliability	Scale	Context
Netemeyer et al (1996)	5	Alpha = 0.86	Seven-point Likert scale	School teachers in USA
Sidnani and Hakim (2012)	5	Alpha = 0.76	Five-point Likert scale	Different organisations in Lebanon

### Measures of ‘Work–Life Balance’

This variable was measured with five items. The first item from Hill et al. (2001) was used in a sample of IBM employees in USA (see Table 6.21). The next two items adopted from Brough and colleagues (2014) were used in various organisations including public service, health, education, finance and manufacturing firms across Australia and New Zealand. Lastly, two items adopted from Carlson and colleagues (2009) were used in manufacturing and service industries in the USA. The first item is ‘I have sufficient time away from my job at workplace to maintain adequate work and personal/family life balance’. The next two items are ‘I currently have a good balance between the time I spend at work and the time I have available for non-work activities’ and ‘I feel that the balance between my work demands and non-work activities is currently about right’. The last two items are ‘I am able to negotiate and



accomplish what is expected of me at work and in my family’ and ‘I am able to accomplish the expectations that my supervisors and my family have for me’.

**Table 6.21 Previous studies used scales for ‘Work–Life Balance’**

Author/Year	Number of Items	Reliability	Scale	Context
Hill et al (2001)	5	Alpha = 0.83	Five-point Likert scale	IBM, USA
Lyness and Kropf (2005)	5	Alpha = 0.65	Five-point Likert scale	Large corporations in Europe
Greenhaus et al (2012)	5	Alpha = 0.92	Five-point Likert scale	University Alumni in USA
Brough et al (2014)	4	Alpha = 0.89	Five-point Likert scale	Public service, health, education, finance etc. in Australia and New Zealand
Carlson et al (2009)	6	Alpha = .93	Five-point Likert scale	Service and manufacturing organisations in USA
Kacmar et al (2014)	6	Alpha = .93	Five-point Likert scale	Online survey

### **Measures of ‘Job Satisfaction’**

This variable was measured with five items adopted from Brayfield and Rothe (1951), who first used them in a military sample in the USA (see Table 6.22). Several management researchers used the items in the past. For instance, Agho and colleagues (1992) used the items for a sample of hospital employees. Likewise, Keeney and colleagues (2013) used the items for university alumni, and Abbas and colleagues (2014) used the same items in a sample of bank and textile employees. The items are ‘My job is like a hobby for to me’, ‘My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored’, ‘I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people’, I like my job better than the average worker does’, and ‘ I find real enjoyment in my work’.

**Table 6.22 Previous studies used scales for ‘Job Satisfaction’**

Author/Year	Number of Items	Reliability	Scale	Context
Brayfield and Rothe (1951)	14	Alpha = 0.77	Five-point Likert Scale	Military training in USA
Agho et al (1992)	6	Alpha = 0.90	Five-point Likert Scale	Hospital in USA
Keeney et al (2013)	3	Alpha = 0.89	Five-point Likert Scale	University Alumni in USA
Abbas et al (2014)	6	Alpha = 0.67	Five-point Likert Scale	Banks, textiles, public, telecom in Pakistan

**Measures of ‘Life Satisfaction’**

This variable was measured with five items from Diener and colleagues (1985). Several management researchers have used the items in the past (see Table 6.23). For instance, Qu and Zhao (2011) used the items for a sample of hotel sales managers in China. Similarly, Keeney and colleagues (2013) used the same items for university alumni in USA. The five items are: ‘In most ways my life is close to my ideal’, ‘The conditions of my life are excellent’, ‘I am satisfied with my life’, ‘So far I have gotten the important things I want in life’, ‘If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing’.

**Table 6.23 Previous studies used scales for ‘Life Satisfaction’**

Author/Year	Number of Items	Reliability	Scale	Context
Diener et al (1985)	5	Alpha = 0.70	Seven-point Likert Scale	Undergraduate students in USA
Qu and Zhao (2012)	3	Alpha = 0.78	Seven-point Likert Scale	Hotel sales managers in China
Keeney et al (2013)	3	Alpha = 0.81	Five-point Likert Scale	University Alumni in USA

### Measures of ‘Organisational Commitment’

This variable was measured with five items adopted from Mowday and colleagues’ (1979) Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (see Table 6.24). Several management scholars have used the items in the past. For instance, Wang and colleagues (2011) used the items for a sample of bank employees from China and India. Shore and Martin used the items for another sample of bank employees from Kenya and Thailand, and Wang and Walumbwa (2007) used the items for a sample of bank employees in USA. The five items are: ‘I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organisation to be successful’, ‘I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for’, ‘I would accept almost any type of assignment in order to keep working for this organisation’, ‘I find that my values and the organisation’s values are very similar’, and ‘For me this is the best of all possible organisations for which to work’.

**Table 6.24 Previous studies used scales for ‘Organisational Commitment’**

Author/Year	Number of Items	Reliability	Scale	Context
Mowday et al (1979)	15	Alpha = 0.90	Seven-point Likert scale	University, hospital, banks, telecom in USA
Wang et al (2011)	Short version	Alpha = 0.88	Seven-point Likert scale	Banks in China and India
Shore and Martin (1989)	10	Alpha = 0.89	Seven-point Likert scale	Banks in Kenya and Thailand
Wang and Walumbwa (2007)	15	Alpha = 0.88	Seven-point Likert scale	Banks in USA

#### *6.4.2.2 Measures of In-Role Performance & Extra-Role Performance*

This research study consisted of two endogenous variables, e.g. in-role performance and extra-role performance. These endogenous variables are discussed below:

#### **Measures of ‘In-Role Performance’**

This variable was measured with six items from William and Anderson (1991) used in various organisations in the USA (see Table 6.25). Several management researchers have used the items in the past. For example, Diefendorff and colleagues

(2002) used the items in sample of undergraduate students in the USA. Likewise, Becker & Kernan (2003) used the items for postgraduate students in the USA. Similarly, Bagger & Li (2014) used the items for university staff in the USA. Furthermore, Abbas and colleagues (2014) used the items with various organisations including banks in the USA. Wright & Bonett (2007) used the items for customer services employees. The six items of In-Role Performance are: ‘I adequately complete assigned duties’, ‘I meet formal performance requirements of the job’, ‘I don’t neglect aspects of the job that I am obligated to perform’ (reverse coded), ‘I fulfil responsibilities specified in the job description’, ‘I engage in activities that can positively affect my performance evaluation’, and ‘I perform tasks that are expected of me’.

**Table 6.25 Previous studies used scales for ‘In-Role Performance’**

Author/Year	Number of Items	Reliability	Scale	Context
Williams and Anderson (1991)	6	0.91	Five-point Likert scale	Various organisations in USA
Diefendorff et al (2002)	6	0.91	Seven-point Likert scale	Undergraduate students in USA
Becker and Kernan (2003)	6	0.92	Seven-point Likert scale	Postgraduate students in USA
Bagger and Li (2014)	6	0.84	Seven-point Likert scale	University in USA
Abbas et al (2014)	6	0.77	Five-point Likert scale	Banks, textiles etc. in Pakistan
Wright and Bonett (2007)	6	0.91	Five-point Likert scale	Large customer service in USA

### **Measures of ‘Extra-Role Performance’**

This variable was measured with four items from Lynch et al. (1999) used in multiple organisations in the USA (see Table 6.26). The items are: ‘I can make constructive suggestions to the overall functioning of my work group’, ‘I encourage others to try new and more effective ways of doing their jobs’, ‘I am well informed where opinion might benefit the organisation’, and ‘I continue to look for new ways to improve the effectiveness of my work’.

**Table 6.26 Previous studies used scales for ‘Extra-Role Performance’**

Author/Year	Number of Items	Reliability	Scale	Context
Lynch et al (1999)	4	Alpha = 0.90	Seven-point Likert scale	Multiple organisations in USA
Shanock and Eisenberger (2006)	4	Alpha = 0.90	Five-point Likert scale	Large retailer in USA

### 6.4.3 Survey Method

The function of technology as a vehicle to advance communication is no longer debatable (Vocino & Polonsky, 2011). Researchers have acknowledged the growth of web surveys for data collection, particularly online panels, as a compelling story of the past decade (Baker et al., 2013, p. 715). The use of internet panels to collect survey data is increasing because it is cost-effective, enables access to large and diverse samples quickly, takes less time than traditional methods to get data back for analysis, and standardisation of the data collection process makes studies easy to replicate. Online panels have completely reshaped the whole survey research industry and are increasingly being used in different spheres such as social, medical and market research (Callegaro & DiSogra, 2008). Online surveys are considered to be faster, more cost effective, require fewer workforces, and create data that is ready for analysis immediately after delivery (Fan & Yan, 2010). Online panels also have been proven to have benefits over telephone and mail surveys in terms of their capacity to gather large numbers of responses fairly rapidly and at relatively low cost (Ilieva, Baron, & Healey, 2002).

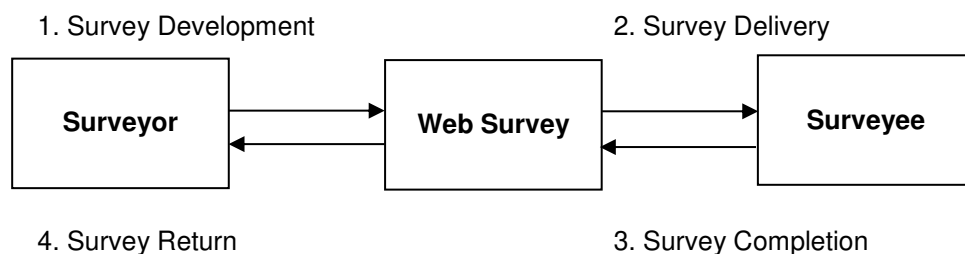
#### 6.4.3.1 Justification for Using the Survey Methodology

The present research collected web-based, self-reported survey data from a representative sample of 305 members belonging to one Australian online panel (i.e. Teg Rewards, formerly Nine Rewards) and, as such, the population of reference was ‘online panellists’. Nine Rewards confirmed that it was representative of the Australian population and that it complied with the European Society for Opinion and Marketing Research (ESOMAR) guidelines relating to online panels (ESOMAR, 2015). They further suggested that participants were only allowed to complete up to two surveys per month, and no more than 24 per year. The compensation for

completing a survey varied from \$1 to \$5 depending on survey length. Proprietary data surveying the panellists suggests that >60% of the firm's Australian panellists were also members of other Australian online panels. Indeed, 'online panels have grown to be used for almost 50 per cent of quantitative data in the United States' (United Sample Inc., 2010). Contrarily, the need for market research services has grown, whereas the breadth of the population participating in traditional types of research (i.e. surveys by phone, postal surveys) has declined (Namiranian, Moskowitz, & Gofman, 2006). Thus, understanding the motivation for people to participate in surveys and become part of an online panel is becoming a salient research topic.

#### 6.4.3.2 Data Collection Method

The research undertook a web survey that in general followed four basic steps (Fan & Yan, 2010). The first step was web survey development. This concerns the process by which surveyors design and develop a web survey and upload it to the survey website. The second step is survey delivery, or the process by which surveyors develop a sampling method, contact potential participants and deliver the web survey to each surveyee. The third step is web survey completion, or the process by which surveyees receive the survey announcement, log into the survey website, complete and submit the survey, and log out from the website. The fourth step is web survey return. It concerns the process in which surveyors download the survey data from the website in certain formats for data analysis on the research computers. Figure 6.2 shows the process of web survey used for the current research.



Source: Adopted from Fan and Yan (2010)

**Figure 6.2 The web survey process**

#### *6.4.3.3 Rationale for Using a Web-based Survey*

Most surveys in the recent past used face-to-face interviews, postal mail or the telephone to collect data. However, today the difficulties of carrying out surveys at reasonable costs have increased (Revilla & Saris, 2013). Web surveys are becoming a more attractive option, as they are usually cheaper, offer more flexibility and can reach a large population in a short time. It is true that the different modes of data collection may lead to different coverage, sampling, non-response and measurement errors. The researcher focuses on the last, as different modes have different properties: just because the question is asked in a different mode, a difference in responses may appear. For instance, Krosnick (1991) shows that varying levels of social desirability and satisficing biases exist depending on the mode of data collection used. This can be related to the presence of an interviewer in some modes but not in others. Chang and Krosnick (2009) compare the reliability in telephone and internet surveys of reports of vote choice. They find more random errors in the telephone survey; however, they are not considering the quality as a whole.

#### *6.4.3.4 Validity of Online Panels*

In the past decade, industry and professional associations worldwide have sought to guide their members on the proper and effective use of samples from online panels (Callegaro, Baker, & Bethlehem, 2014). Subsequently, the validity of the data derived from online panel companies was endorsed by International Organization for Standardization (ISO) 20632 in 2009 and ISO 20252 in 2012 following a series of external audits and compliance. In 2011 the global organisation European Society for Opinion and Marketing Research (ESOMAR) produced a guideline (fitting research objectives consistent to questionnaire) for online research to recognise their research method while collecting data for clients and researchers. The EFAMRO (European Federation of Market, Social, and Opinion Research Agency Trade Associations) endorsed both ISO 20632 and ISO 20252. The Canadian Market Research and Intelligence Association (MRIA) has recognised the validity of online panel data. In Australia, the Association of Market and Social Research Organisations (AMSRO) has also certified the data being collected through online panels (RICA, 2015).

#### *6.4.3.5 Use of Online Panels*

Research shows many advantages of web-based survey compared to traditional modes. Firstly, they are cost-efficient, and allow automatic correction of errors and

omissions during the survey (Alvarez & Beselaere, 2005; Hansen & Pedersen, 2011). Secondly, they lessen problems with social desirability bias towards interviewers (Baker et al., 2010; Kreuter, Presser, & Tourangeau, 2008). Furthermore, using web panels to conduct recurring surveys with the same group of respondents enables the building of true time-series data which mitigates the problem of endogeneity inherent in so many public opinion studies. Additionally, modest differences are found when comparing results from web panels with traditional modes of surveys (Sanders, Clark, Stewart, & Whiteley, 2007). Web panels even display higher levels of data reliability than telephone surveys (Braunsberger, Wybenga, & Gates, 2007; Hansen & Pedersen, 2012).

#### *6.4.3.6 Design, Development and Maintenance of Online Panels*

##### **Recruitment**

Before developing a plan to recruit online panellists, it is important to identify the particular motivations for participating and then define specific strategies intended to appeal to the specific need-based segments recruiters wish to pursue (Göritz, 2004; Hansen & Pedersen, 2011). The web surveys are classified into two types: non-probability surveys, and probability surveys. The former includes self-selected polls and volunteer opt-in panels, and do not have known or equal probabilities of selecting members of the target population (Couper, 2000). The latter uses random selection to select a sample. Further research is needed to empirically examine whether or how non-probability surveys or probability surveys are related to the response rate. The recruitment methods for non-probability panels are numerous and varied (Callegaro et al., 2014).

With regard to probability based panels, panel members' use established sampling methodologies, e.g. random digital dialing (RDD), addressed based sampling (ABS) and area probability sampling. Irrespective of the specific sampling method used, a key requirement is that all members of the population of interest have a known, non-zero probability of receiving an invitation to join. Apparently, it implies that people select themselves into the panel, rather than a researcher selecting specific individuals from a sampling frame that contains all members of target population. This means that the panel members did not know in advance who might get the invitation, nor how many times they might be encountered individually by the panel recruiters. The panel recruiters know the probability of selection of each member of



the panel. Companies that create non-probability panels tend to be secretive about specifics of their recruiting methods, believing that their methods provide them with a competitive advantage (Baker et al., 2010). For this reason there are few published sources to rely on when describing recruitment methods (Baker et al., 2010; Comley, 2007; Postoaca, 2006). However, in general, online recruitment is done by using a number of methods including placing banner ads on various websites, invitation via newsgroups or mailing lists, search engine ads (Nunan & Knox, 2011), social networking sites, affiliate hubs and/or snowballing.

### **Invitation-only Panels**

Invitation-only online panels are those whose members are invited from a list (an invitation-only panel). Firms building such panels do not permit volunteers to join; only invited individuals may do so. If the invited individuals are all members of a list or a random subset, then the obtained panel is a probability sample of the list. If the researchers then wish to generalise results to members of the list, there is a scientific justification for doing so.

### **Joining the Panel**

This typically requires that the potential panel member first indicates their intent to join by providing some basic information (e.g. name, email address) on the panel's join page. They are then sent an email with a unique link. After clicking on this link, the potential panel member completes an enrolment survey that may also include an extensive profiling questionnaire. During this process the potential member is often asked to read materials describing how the company will use their personal information, and other general information about membership and rewards. Most companies consider this sufficient to meet the double opt-in requirement.

### **Profile Stage**

This stage covers answering a series of questions on various topics. The data obtained through profiling are useful at the sampling stage by reducing the amount of screening required in a client's survey. Profile data are refreshed regularly to keep consistency with changes if any. Some panels allow respondents to update their profile data at any time, while others invite panelists to a profile updating survey on a regular basis. As such, profiling is an on-going process rather than a one-off event. Among the most important profile data are the demographic characteristics (e.g. age,

sex, region) of each member. Without full demographic information on its members, a panel company cannot meet that kind of specification. During the demographic profiling stage, many companies also collect information such as the mailing address and phone numbers to be used for respondent verification and to manage communication with members. These demographic variables can also be used as benchmarks to adjust for attrition in subsequent surveys. Once a potential panel member has completed a demographic profile survey, they are officially a panel member. The data obtained through profiling can be useful at the analysis stage in helping to understand non-response bias within the panel on specific surveys.

### **Incentives**

Incentives are employed in surveys for many reasons, with the two most often cited being increased participation and data quality improvement (Lavrakas et al., 2012). Incentives can be classified along different dimensions (Goritz, 2004). First, with regard to timing, there are prepaid and postpaid incentives. A review of literature suggests that prepaid incentives are rarely used in online panels because they are logistically more challenging, and are perceived to be more expensive, since everyone sampled is paid the incentive. A second dimension is whether everybody or only some respondents get incentives. It is distinguished as per-capita versus lottery incentives. With the former, every panelist who completes the survey gets the incentives, while with the latter, panel members get a 'ticket' for a monthly draw, and each time they complete a survey it increases their chance of winning by completing multiple surveys within a given month. A third dimension is the character of incentive, most often either monetary (e.g. cash, cheques, electronic payments, gift cards) or points that can be accrued and redeemed for goods or services.

### **Panel Attrition, Maintenance and Active Panel Membership**

Panel membership changes constantly (Callegaro & DiSogra, 2008), which means panels recruit new panel members continuously. As such, panels suffer from four kinds of attrition, which are briefly covered below.

## **Voluntary**

Voluntary attrition is the proactive action of panel members to contact the company and asked to be removed from the panel. This occurs for various reasons, including fatigue, growing concerns about privacy, and lack of satisfaction with the rewards earned. This attrition is relatively infrequent.

## **Passive**

More frequently, panel members simply stop answering surveys, or they change their email addresses without notifying the company. These members are also referred as ‘sleepers’, as they are not active, but some of them can be ‘awakened’ with specific initiatives (Scherpenzeel & Das, 2010). This form of attrition is relatively common.

## **Mortality**

This occurs when a panel members dies or is no longer physically or mentally capable of answering surveys. This is relatively uncommon.

## **Panel-induced Attrition**

The panel company can decide to ‘retire’ or force panel members out of the panel. Some panellists have a limit on panel tenure. Others have rules that place limits on noncompliance. How a panel manages its attrition can affect how well the panel performs. For example, aggressive panel management practices that purge less active members may increase the participation rate of each survey (Callegaro & DiSogra, 2008). This comes at the price of reducing active panel size and increasing the risk of bias, because more active panel members may respond differently than less active panel members (Miller, 2010). The effort that goes into maintaining an online panel is significant. Knowing how many active panel members are available and their characteristics is a key statistic for an online panel.

## **Sampling**

Quota sampling is currently the most commonly used method for selecting a sample from non-probability online panels (Rivers, 2007; Callegaro et al., 2014). It entails setting up quotas or maximum numbers of respondents in key subgroups, usually demographically defined but sometimes behaviourally defined as well. Quotas are enforced during questionnaire completion, rather than during sample draw. Once a

quota is filled, new respondents who might qualify for that cell are screened out and typically are politely informed that their responses are not needed.

#### **6.4.4 Sampling Strategy**

This section details the process used to determine which subjects to survey in order to obtain the relevant information for the research problem. The following five steps undertaken at this stage were in line with the recommendations made by Malhotra (2014).

- *Step 1: Define the target population*

Targeting a population is a prerequisite that enables the researcher to select an accurate sample for the research project. In this research, the target population consisted of employees who were working in the financial sector across Sydney in Australia. To be eligible for inclusion in the target population, the employees had to be married and have at least two years of work experience.

- *Step 2: Determine the sampling frame*

The composition of non-probability internet (convenience) panels is known to differ from that of the underlying population. It is estimated that in many developed countries, including the USA, nearly one-third of the adult population does not use the internet on a regular basis (Baker et al., 2013). Arguably, it is anticipated that panel members tend to be more educated and to have a higher socioeconomic status than non-panel members (Craig et al., 2013). The response rates for members of convenience panels tend to be low. Researchers suggest that response rates are often 10% or lower (Baker et al., 2013). As a result, many users of convenience panels utilise a quota sampling approach by targeting respondents with particular demographic and other characteristics. Past researchers reported that non-probability internet data collection yielded the most accurate self-reports from the most biased sample, but that the probability internet sample displayed the best combination of sample composition and self-report accuracy (Chang & Krosnick, 2009). Creating such an online panel has long been a useful tool in the researcher's tool belt.

The online panel provides clients with a wealth of knowledge and insight that can directly influence business-critical decisions (Survey Magazine, 2011). Many research companies with online-panel solutions that incorporate best practices

and technological advances, making it quicker and easier to get an online panel up and running and, more importantly, providing clients with accurate information based on sound data. It is to be noted that the present research used 'Nine Rewards', belonging to one Australian panel (member of ESOMAR), to collect data, which specialises in online research based in Sydney. The research agency is one of the biggest having more than four million active panellists across many countries in the world (Teg Rewards, 2016)

- *Step 3: Selecting a sampling technique*

During the past decade, the use of non-probability online panels in academic research has increased because of its easy accessibility to consumers (Baker et al., 2013). An initial email invitation was sent to selected panellists asking them to participate in the study. The survey web link was included in the email. This step was then followed by another invitation which required a high response rate. This achieved a response rate of 25.3% (i.e. population size of 1206 with effective sample 305), which was considered satisfactory as researchers (Malhotra et al., 1996) suggest that surveys without any prior contact with respondents can typically have less than a 15% rate of response.

- *Step 4: Determine the sample size*

With regard to sample size especially in SEM, it is difficult to have a single answer because several factors affect sample size requirements (Kline, 2012). In general, complex models with more cases require larger sample sizes because they have more parameters than simpler models. There are two issues to be concerned about in relation to sample size. One is the minimum number of cases needed for using multilevel regression to avoid biases and the other is sufficient statistical power needed to obtain significance. Generally, having more groups is more important than having more cases per group for either of these concerns. Hox (2002) provides the best overview of sample size issues with regard to minimum sample sizes needed. Under most conditions, fixed effects and their standard errors are unbiased. With fewer than five cases per group and fewer than 50 groups, standard errors for fixed effects will be too small (increased Type I errors), and random effects (variances) and their standard errors may be underestimated (Hox, 2010). Some authors have suggested that a minimum of 100 groups with 10 cases per group is needed for sufficient power to test fixed effects (Kreft, 1996), but Hox (2010) concludes that 50 groups with five cases

per group may be sufficient. Furthermore, Steven (1996) proposes that the sample size has to be five times higher than the total number of items. The present study has 54 items, which addresses Steven's requirement with regard to sample size with useable sample responses of 305.

- *Step 5: Execute the sampling process*

It is expected that the online panel providers must be transparent with researchers and clients about sample sources, the sampling process and its outcomes (ESOMAR, 2015). The research used quota sampling with criteria to filter participants (e.g. work experience, marital status, age, education, employment status). This sampling technique was employed to ensure that the sample represented the target population. It is to be noted that recent innovations such as online routers and advances in dynamic sourcing cast a still wider net across the internet to solicit volunteers to complete surveys.

## **6.5 Testing of the Reflective Measurement Model**

The present research argued for and undertook (see Section 6.3.2) the reflective measurement model which aimed to explore the nature of constructs, direction of causality, and the item characteristics of the proposed model (Coltman et al., 2008). Consistent with this model, the collected data must first go through an item intercorrelation process in order to assess internal consistency and reliability by Cronbach's alpha measure, average variance extracted (AVE) and factor loadings through confirmatory factor analysis. It is to be noted that the scales used in this research were derived from the extant work-life literature tailored in the finance sector in Sydney, Australia. The scales, however, had to be consistent with the specific requirements of the research study. The study employed both EFA (Exploratory Factor Analysis) and CFA (Confirmatory Factor Analysis) techniques to evaluate the quality of scale recommended by the researchers (Henson & Roberts, 2006). SPSS software was used to perform an EFA which would help to reduce the constructs to clearer factor structures (Hair et al., 2010) and to identify items with common variance (Rossiter, 2002). Other complementary measures were also used to evaluate the factorability of the correlation matrix, Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954), and KMO measure of adequacy (Kaiser, 1970, 1974).

### **6.5.1 Test for Unidimensionality**

In scale development, unidimensionality is of primary importance (Clark & Watson, 1995). Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010) explain unidimensional measures as a set of measured variables (indicators) whose variance can be explained only by underlying construct or factor. The item-total correlation and inter-item correlation methods are often used in the scale development process as a means of determining unidimensionality. While these methods have appeal in that they are easy to perform, they are not refined enough to identify unidimensionality. This requires the use of more advanced statistical procedures, such as Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was undertaken as it is crucial for reflective multi-item measures that the items should be strongly associated with each other and represents the same concepts (Hair et al., 2010). The objective of PCA was to confirm that only one latent construct was being measured by a set of multiple indicators (testing exclusivity), and to demonstrate that there was no cross or multiple loadings across items.

### **6.5.2 Tests of Reliability and Validity**

Cronbach's alpha (referred to as alpha coefficients) is the most frequently used measure of reliability (Byrne, 2006; Streiner, 2003). It is customary to report alpha values, and so they are reported in this research. Alpha coefficients were obtained for the total sample, as well as for the individual subgroups of interest (i.e. student gender and age groups). There is no universally agreed minimum threshold for a reliability coefficient (Kline, 2009; Urbina, 2004). However, values of 0.7 or greater are preferred (Netemeyer et al., 2003), and values of at least 0.6 are considered acceptable (Aron & Aron, 2003).

Typically, constructs are quantified using surveys that have undergone psychometric evaluation. Construct validation is the process used to determine whether survey instruments actually measure what they are supposed to measure. Thus, construct validity refers to whether or not a scale or test measures the construct adequately. Reber (1985) states that construct validity concerns a set of procedures for evaluating the validity of a testing instrument, based on a determination of the degree to which the test items capture the hypothetical quality or trait (i.e. construct) they were designed to measure.

According to Cronbach and Meehl (1955), construct validity is the extent to which a measure ‘behaves’ the way that the construct it purports to measure should behave, similar to established measures of other constructs. For example, based on the theory where a variable is hypothesised to be positively related to constructs P and Q, negatively related to R and S, and unrelated to X and Y, a scale that seeks to measure that construct should demonstrate relations that accord with those hypotheses. Indeed, Kaplan and Saccuzzo (2005) define construct validity as the degree of agreement between a score derived from the instrument and the construct it is supposed to be measuring.

Kline (2005) states that survey instruments designed to measure a construct are neither valid nor invalid in and of themselves. Hence, the scores obtained from a survey instrument are also neither valid nor invalid in and of themselves. Although judgements of the reliability of a survey instrument for a sample may be made through statistical measures such as Cronbach’s alpha, there are no such direct statistical measures to make judgements on the construct validity of a survey instrument. Instead, such judgements are based on the appropriateness of the inferences derived from instrument test scores where the inferences are guided implicitly or explicitly by theory (Cohen & Swerdlik, 2010; Furr & Bacharach, 2008; Thompson & Daniel, 1996). That is, if theory (which relates to the conceptualisation process) dictates that people rated high on a particular construct will behave in a certain way, while people rated low on the construct will behave in a different way, then the construct validation process should confirm this. As Byrne (1984) states, ‘construct validation studies seek empirical evidence to support hypothesised relationships associated with the nomological network of a construct’ (p. 431). Hence, construct validation should be undertaken in reference to at least one other construct or observable behaviour. Of two types of construct validity, e.g. convergent and discriminant validity, the research employed the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) technique to assess the construct validity.

### **6.5.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)**

Confirmatory Factor Analysis was conducted to validate factor structure for each scale in the instrument. In brief, CFA assumes that variation among observed scores for a set of survey items is due to the influence of a hypothesised underlying



construct, plus unique measurement error. Use of a CFA requires the researcher to postulate an a priori model structure that depicts a set of relations between a set of observed indicator variables (such as survey item responses) and an underlying construct (Brown, 2006), where the underlying construct is assumed to cause the responses given by participants to the survey items. CFA has one distinct advantage over exploratory factor analysis, namely that it produces measures of fit. In CFA the researcher builds a measurement model thought to describe the data, and then evaluates that model by statistical means in order to determine the goodness of fit to the sample data (Worrall, 2006). CFA is a viable option when the researcher has some knowledge of the underlying latent variable structure, knowledge that can come from theory or previous empirical research. In the present research, the knowledge concerning which model should be tested was developed following the exploratory factor analysis. The research employed congeneric models rather than parallel models, as congeneric models are considered parsimonious by determining the qualities of the items within factors and scales free from disturbance errors associated with other factors (Sinclair, Dowson, & McInerney 2006; Cunningham, 2010). Furthermore, congeneric CFA strives to test multiple factors in the context of multifactor CFA models to elicit multiple factor CFA from a single factor CFA model. This was applied in the current research.

## **6.6 Data Analysis**

This section covers the summary statistics used in the data analysis and is followed by an explanation of the testing of the means. Hypothesis testing was carried out through hypotheses 1 to 6 (proposing links between the constructs), and tested with structural equation modelling. The values from standardised estimates were considered whether to accept or reject the hypothesis. There is also discussion of the reasons behind using a structural equation modelling (SEM) technique in this section.

### **6.6.1 Data Preparation**

As the data for this research was collected through a web-based survey (e.g. online panel), it was possible to ensure that no survey was submitted incomplete. Data entry and analysis with online responses is much simpler (Evans & Mathur, 2005) and

reduces the need to separately code raw data (Aaker et al., 2010). With online surveys, data storage and retrieval might be bigger issues. In line with recommendations by Johnson (2006, p. 74), it was ensured that ‘storage space allotted for returns, bandwidth load and server capacity’ were satisfactory. The data cleaning process also ensures that a verification procedure is followed, with checks for the appropriateness of numerical codes for the values of each variable under study. This process is referred to as code and value cleaning, and is one of the first steps in this analysis stage. Data screening analysis included checking for the assumptions of normality (Hill et al., 2008; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). After the data cleaning and screening processes, the final data set comprised 305 cases.

### **6.6.2 Summarising Statistics**

Once the data have been prepared for analysis, the researcher should conduct some basic analysis including frequency counts, percentages and averages (Malhotra, 2014). Descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages were used to summarise the demographic information about the respondents. This enables the researcher to provide guidance in undertaking multivariate analysis (Hair et al., 2010; Malhotra, 2014).

### **6.6.3 Structural Equation Modelling**

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is employed to examine the relations between predictor variables and outcome variables. The outcome variables could be either latent variables or categorical variables. The *measurement model* describes the relation between a set of indicator variables and their associated respective latent variables, while the structural model shows the relations between latent variables (Byrne, 2006). The measurement model is what is tested when doing a CFA and the structural model describes relations through structural equations. According to DeShon (1998), SEM is one of the most popular and powerful statistical techniques in the social sciences. It holds several advantages over standard statistical procedures (Byrne, 1998) and has been derived from the statistical techniques of factor analysis, regression structure, and path analysis. Byrne states that SEM lends itself well to the analysis of data for inferential purposes through patterns of inter-variable relations. In SEM, measurement errors are taken into account, unlike other traditional data

analysis techniques, where errors are not considered (DeShon, 1998). Some other advantages of SEM are the feasibility of simultaneous examination of multiple relations between variables and of thorough investigation of hypothetical constructs.

In SEM, a theoretical model is said to fit the observed data to the extent that the model-implied co-variance matrix is equivalent to the empirical co-variance matrix (Schermelleh-Engell, Moosbrugger, & Müller, 2003). Marsh (1994) recommends a three-step general approach to determine whether the proposed theoretical model is an appropriate fit with the observed data. In the first step it is necessary to determine that the iterative procedures used in the SEM algorithm converge and that all parameter estimates are mathematically sensible (e.g. no negative variances, no correlations greater than 1). Next, the researcher establishes whether the parameter estimates (e.g. correlations) are reasonable in relation to the a priori model. In the third and last step, the chi-square test statistic and other selected fit indices are evaluated.

Finally, with SEM it is impossible to confirm that a proposed model is correct (McCoach, Black, & O'Connell, 2007). Thus, the SEM procedure is used to illustrate how well the model fits the available data. It may also be possible that other models fit the data (Tomarken & Waller, 2005). Accordingly, Tomarken and Waller (2003) add that there is no statistical test or fit index that can prove that a model is correct—rather, one can only conclude that a well-fitting model is one plausible solution. Thus, adherence to theoretical considerations is important in order to find a well-fitting and meaningful model that makes theoretical sense.

## **6.7 Ethical Considerations**

Before approaching potential participants for this research, ethics approval was required from the Western Sydney University (WSU) Human Research Ethics Committee. Approval was obtained by completing a National Ethics Application Form (NEAF) and submitting it to the committee. Data collection was administered following the approval from the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC). All respondents were promised anonymity and confidentiality of their responses. Special care was taken while reporting the research findings that none of the respondents would be recognisable or identifiable. The ethical guidelines of the Western Sydney

University were followed during all stages of the research. All relevant documents are attached in the appendix section.

## **6.8 Summary**

This chapter illustrated the quantitative research design of the project. This study is central to this thesis, as it seeks to investigate the nature of the relations between antecedents and outcome of work–life balance. The SEM procedure was discussed in detail, with attention being given to the strengths and limitations of SEM procedures. The conceptual and operational definitions underlying all the model constructs were explained. Finally, ethical considerations undertaken during the data collection stage were identified. The next chapter presents the quantitative findings.

## **Abbreviations used in Chapter 7**

AGFI: Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index

AMOS: Analysis of Moment Structure

CFA: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CFI: Comparative Fit Index

CV: Co-variance

FA: Factor Analysis

GFI: Goodness of Fit Index

KMO: Kaiser-Meyer-Okin

NFI: Normed Fit Index

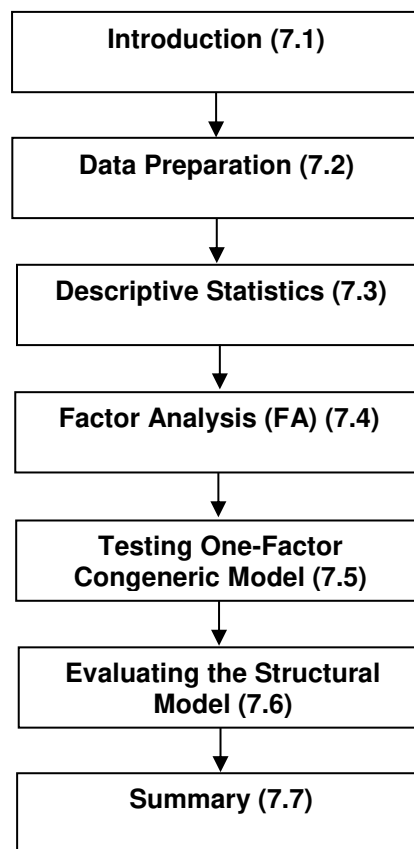
RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

TLI: Tucker-Lewis Index

# Chapter 7 Quantitative Findings

## 7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter described the pilot study, construct operationalisation and the methodology used to collect data for this project. This chapter will explain how the data was prepared for analysis, examined and analysed using the structural equation modelling (SEM) technique.



**Figure 7.1 Outline of Chapter 7**

This chapter has seven sections, as summarised in Figure 7.1. The chapter begins with an overview of the procedures undertaken for data preparation. Next, a descriptive statistic of the sample is undertaken by developing a respondent profile, followed by an examination of the dataset for reliability and validity using factor analysis and one factor congeneric model testing. The next section presents the

results of structural equation modelling followed by discussion and findings from the main model of the study.

## **7.2 Data Preparation**

To ensure that the data is prepared for statistical analysis, the researcher undertook the following steps:

- Scale transformation was checked to ensure the conceptual consistency of items within each variable. For the current project, only one item of the construct, In Role Performance (IRP\_3), was reverse-coded.
- The researcher performed descriptive statistics to examine maximum and minimum values within each variable. Both histograms and scatter plots were run to check any potential outliers in the whole dataset. The researcher also used frequency tables and histograms to examine the normality of distributions, the range, and extreme skewness and kurtosis if any. For example, the skewness was found between  $-1$  to  $+1$  and the absolute values of the kurtosis were less than three times the standard error, indicating both the skewness and kurtosis were not significantly different from that of the normal distribution.
- Missing data is a problem because nearly all standard statistical methods presume complete information for all the variables included in the analysis. The only really good solution to the missing data problem is not to have any. So in the design and execution of research projects, it is essential to put great effort into minimising the occurrence of missing data (Allison, 2001). The online data collection was undertaken with a design which did not consider any incomplete surveys.
- As soon as the data were entered in SPSS, the researcher ran frequencies on all the study variables to check if any obscure numbers emerged. This allowed the researcher to determine if there was any potential anomaly in the dataset. Furthermore, range and consistency checking were performed during data entry. An engaging strength of online surveys is that the data can be entered and analysed without any intervention (Minnaar & Heystek, 2013). Once respondents submitted their completed surveys, the researcher automatically received the raw data, which were stored in a database from where it was exported effortlessly to a spread sheet and was readily available for analysis (Wilson & Laskey, 2003). As

such, the web survey has its unique advantages in collecting all completed surveys (Fan & Yan, 2010).

From the process outlined above, the researcher concluded that data collected through the online panel was reliable and complete (i.e. there was no missing data). This allowed the researcher to have readymade data delivered by the research agency and to insert the right value without any error.

### **7.3 Descriptive Statistics**

The profile of all the respondents (n=305) is given in Table 7.1. All respondents were based in Sydney. The number of males (n=152) and females (n=153) was almost equal. Most respondents were married (n=232) and many of them (n=113) fell in the 31–40 age group. A majority of the respondents (n=250) was employed full-time while the rest (n=186) employees had been working between one to ten years for their current employer.



**Table 7.1 Respondent Profile**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Sex</b>		
Male	152	49.84%
Female	153	50.16%
<b>Age (in years)</b>		
21-30	52	17%
31-40	113	37%
41-50	70	23%
51-60	61	20%
60+	9	3%
<b>Education</b>		
<Year 10	9	3%
Year 11 or 12	52	17%
Diploma/certificate from a college	64	21%
Degree or diploma from a university	125	41%
Postgraduate degree	55	18%
<b>Marital status</b>		
Single	58	19%
Married/ De facto	232	76%
Separated or divorced	15	5%
<b>Tenure (in years)</b>		
<1 year	31	10%
1-5 years	95	31%
6-10 years	91	30%
11-15 years	40	13%
16-20 years	18	6%
21-25 years	9	3%
26-30 years	9	3%
30+	12	4%
<b>Employment status</b>		
Full-Time	250	82%
Part-Time	55	18%

## **7.4 Factor Analysis (FA)**

Factor analysis has been used to explore the possible underlying framework of a set of interrelated variables without imposing any preconceived structure on the outcome (Child, 1990). Factor analysis aims to identify the fewest possible constructs needed to reproduce the original data (Gorsuch, 1997). In this case, the researcher undertook factor analysis to explore whether the constructs had been used extensively in work–life literature applicable to the Australian finance sector. There are two types of model-based analysis for common factors: exploratory factor analysis (EFA), and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). EFA is an approach for determining the correlation among the variables in a dataset. It was required first, as there was no a priori hypothesis on factors of measured variables used in the current research (Finch & West, 1997). The EFA process assisted the researcher to make important decisions about how to conduct the analysis, as there was no set method. It is also a prerequisite before moving on to CFA. The researcher used EFA to re-specify the construct of the instrument, and substantiated it by conducting CFA to assess item performance and the final model fit (Yu & Richardson, 2015). It is argued that employing EFA and CFA together in validation studies creates added benefit. For example, the researchers can determine both the total number of factors to retract, and problematic items with the verification of the underlying structure of the factors (Marsh et al., 2014). Both methods of factor analysis are employed in order to identify the construct validity (Marsh et al., 2014; Yu & Richardson, 2015).

### **7.4.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)**

An EFA strives to identify the smallest number of meaningful latent variables or factors that closely reproduce the original correlations among a large set of measured variables (Gorsuch, 1997). The process should always be conducted for a new dataset as it detects problematic variables more easily than CFA. As mentioned earlier, the factors used in the current research were well established, so the intention was not exactly to extract the items, but rather to re-examine the factors' applicability in a new situation: the Australian finance sector. A principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted on 54 items including all constructs in the study. The results reported the factor coefficient values ranged from a low of 0.501 to a high of 0.987 (see Appendix 7.1) with no cross loadings. As a general rule, literature

endorses that an approximate value of factor loadings of 0.7 is more acceptable; however, a value of 0.501 is also considered acceptable (Cunningham, 2010), suggesting that approximately 50% of the variance of that item is accounted for by the factor (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Loadings less than 0.50 are considered poor and are recommended to be dropped from further analysis (Garver & Mentzer, 1999).

The factor-coefficient of 0.30 or greater is required for interpretation of the factor structure (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). This is consistent with the results of the correlation matrix that showed the items correlated 0.3 on each other. As a prerequisite, the Kaiser-Meyer-Okin (KMO) Test of Sampling Adequacy is commonly used to assess the strength of the relationships and suggest factorability of the variables (Beavers et al., 2013). The KMO value was 0.91, which is well above the minimum criterion of 0.5 and falls into the range of 'marvellous': that confirmed the sample size adequacy for factor analysis (Field, 2013). The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is also significant as it was found to be lower than 0.05. The Communalities values reported were greater than 0.7 (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988; Costello & Osborne, 2005; Beavers et al., 2013), which is a strong measure of data adequacy. The determination of cut-off point 1 is based on the interpretability of factors in which correlations between factors (loadings) are used to determine the inclusion or exclusion of variables. Researchers consider a factor solution to be acceptable if it explains 50-75 per cent of the variance in the original variables (Diekhoff, 1992). In relation to this, the Eigen values with corresponding percentage of variance supported good measures of data adequacy for the study. The results of PCA (see Table 7.2), while considering all constructs, explained more than 79% of the variance with Eigen values greater than 1 (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003).

**Table 7.2 Total Variance Explained for the study variables**

Component	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
SS	13.974	25.877	25.877
PWD	8.209	15.201	41.079
PFD	5.686	10.529	51.607
WFC	3.09	5.723	57.330
FWC	2.556	4.733	62.064
WLB	2.137	3.957	66.021
JS	1.749	3.239	69.26
LS	1.583	2.931	72.191
OC	1.36	2.519	74.710
IRP	1.234	2.390	77.100
ERP	1.140	2.112	79.212

#### **7.4.2 Reliability and Validity Analysis**

To test the measurement model, an estimation of internal consistency and convergent validity of the items was conducted. The measures of internal consistency included Cronbach's alpha. The reliability measures should be at least 0.70 to indicate adequate internal consistency (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Hair et al., 2010). Consistent with this, the study found the alpha coefficient of all variables was well above the cut-off threshold presented in Table 7.3.

**Table 7.3 Reliability of the variables**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Number of items</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>
Supervisor Support	5	0.91
Perceived Work Demand	5	0.93
Perceived Family Demand	4	0.84
Work–Family Conflict	5	0.84
Family–Work Conflict	5	0.94
Work–Life Balance	5	0.93
Job Satisfaction	5	0.89
Life Satisfaction	5	0.92
Organisational Commitment	5	0.89
In-Role Performance	6	0.92
Extra-Role Performance	4	0.88

Apart from Cronbach's alpha, Composite Reliability (CR) also indicates the reliability and internal consistency of a latent construct. A value of  $CR > 0.6$  is required in order to achieve composite reliability for a construct. In addition, Average Variance Extracted (AVE) denotes the average percentage of variation explained by the measuring items for a latent construct. An  $AVE > 0.5$  is required for every construct (Bagozzi & Yi, 2011). Table 7.4 presents the values of composite reliability and AVE.

**Table 7.4 Composite Reliability and Average Variance Extracted of the constructs**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Composite Reliability</b>	<b>Average Variance Extracted (AVE)</b>
SS	0.92	0.68
PFD	0.86	0.59
PWD	0.94	0.74
WFC	0.83	0.75
FWC	0.93	0.77
WLB	0.92	0.73
JS	0.9	0.64
LS	0.92	0.7
OC	0.89	0.63
IRP	0.93	0.83
ERP	0.78	0.51

Three types of validity are required for each measurement model. For example, convergent validity is said to exist when a strong correlation exists between two methods measuring the same trait (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). The construct validity is achieved when the Fit indices for a construct achieve the required level. The Fit indices indicate how fit the item is in measuring the respective latent constructs. An important aspect of conducting CFAs is establishing discriminant validity for the latent variables (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Discriminant validity is said to exist when a weak correlation lies between two traits measured by the same method and which should not exceed a value of 0.85 (Kline, 2014). This validity indicates the measurement model of a construct is free from redundant items. However, the motivation for applying discriminant validity tests is related to the need to identify the content and substance of constructs being used in this project. Because the constructs are intangible by definition, as such researchers are required to show evidence that all constructs in a model or research study are distinct and not just empirical reflections of each other (Voorhees et al., 2015). A lack of discriminant validity calls into question whether statistically significant parameters are really supported by the data or are simply an artifact of modelling the same constructs twice in one model for studies that model constructs in a series of independent and dependent relationships. The research reported the highest correlation as 0.63 between JS and OC (see Appendix 7.2). This is consistent with previous studies (Greenhaus et al., 2012; Keeney et al., 2013) that found a similar value. Most of the

variables are moderately correlated and there is no evidence of multicollinearity. This provides evidence that the indicators of the different constructs exclusively measure specific constructs.

### **7.4.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)**

CFA was undertaken using structural equation modelling. Although there are a number of packages (e.g. EQS, LISREL, Mplus) to conduct analysis, the researcher used SPSS AMOS (i.e. Analysis of Moment Structure) for several reasons. As noted by past researchers (Hoyle, 1995; Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004; Cunningham, 2010; Arbuckle, 2012; Narayanan, 2012), AMOS provides excellent graphical interface; is well-organised and quickly accessible to deliver output format, and enables the researcher to specify, estimate, assess and present models to show hypothesised relationships among variables. The software allows building of models more accurately than with standard multivariate statistics techniques. The researcher can choose either the graphical user interface or non-graphical, programmatic interface. Similar to other programs, AMOS also allows researchers to build attitudinal and behavioural models that reflect complex relationships. Furthermore, AMOS provides structural equation modelling (SEM) that is easy to use and to compare, confirm and refine models. It uses Bayesian analysis to improve estimates of model parameters and offers various data imputation methods to create different data sets.

#### *7.4.3.1 Model Fit Indices and Criteria*

It is necessary to understand how to evaluate the models before analysing the structural model. Fit measures are grouped into various types and each has its specific capability in model evaluation:

1. Measures of parsimony, e.g. degree of freedom (df) is one fit measure used for simplicity and goodness of fit
2. Minimum sample discrepancy function, e.g. the chi-square statistic is an overall measure of how many of the implied moments and sample moments differ. The chi-square statistic ( $\chi^2$ ) is the minimum value of the discrepancy divided by its degree of freedom. The ratio should be close to 1 (Arbuckle, 2005) or should not exceed 3 before it can be accepted (Byrne, 2010). As a general rule, if the chi-

square test is not significant, then the data supports the hypothesised model. If it is significant, a comparison of sample and model implied matrices, together with residual matrices, will identify where the data is failing to support the model. As the chi-square is sensitive to sample size, it is necessary to look at other measures that also support goodness of fit. Table 7.5 provides the model fit indices and their level of acceptance by different SEM scholars.

**Table 7.5 Summary of Fit Indices used in this research**

<b>Name of Category</b>	<b>Name of Index</b>	<b>Full Name of Index</b>	<b>Level of Acceptance</b>	<b>Supporting Literature</b>
Absolute Fit	Chi-Square	Discrepancy	P-value > 0.05	Wheaton et al. (1977)
	RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	RMSEA < 0.08	Browne and Cudeck (1993)
	GFI	Goodness of Fit Index	GFI > 0.90	Joreskog and Sorbom (1984)
Incremental Fit	AGFI	Adjusted Goodness of Fit	AGFI > 0.90	Tanaka and Huba (1985)
	CFI	Comparative Fit Index	CFI > 0.90	Bentler (1990)
	TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index	TLI > 0.90	Bentler and Bonett (1980)
	NFI	Normed Fit Index	NFI > 0.90	Bollen (1989b)
Parsimonious Fit	ChiSq/df	Chi Square/Degrees of Freedom	Chi-Sq/df < 3.0	Marsh and Hocevar (1985)

The chi-square statistic is an overall measure of how many of the implied moments and sample moments differ. Another example is the p-value, which is the probability of getting as large a discrepancy as occurred with the present sample under appropriate distributional assumptions and assuming a correctly specified model. So, a p-value is a method to select the model by testing the hypothesis to eliminate any model that is inconsistent with the available data or that which does not fit perfectly in the population.

- Measures based on the population discrepancy, for example, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is most commonly used, and the figure should be <0.08 to achieve model fit.



4. Comparison to a baseline model. Three significant indices are Normed Fit Index (NFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), CFI, and AGFI.
5. Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and related measures (Arbuckle, 2005; Byrne, 2010; Holmes-Smith, 2000).

Arbuckle (2005) affirmed that model evaluation is one of the most difficult and unsettled issues in structural equation modelling. There seems to be no agreement among scholars on which one of the fit indices should be adopted. Hair and colleagues (1995, 1998, & 2010) and Holmes-Smith, Coote and Cunningham (2006) suggested the use of at least one of the fit indices from each category of model fit. CFA models can also be measured using other standard estimates. These were used along with the model fit indices discussed previously. Table 7.6 shows these estimates and their value criteria.

**Table 7.6 Standardised estimates and criteria used for CFA models**

Standardised Estimates	Value Criteria
Factor Loading	>0.7 good, >0.5 acceptable, CR>1.96
Co-variance (CV)	>1.96
Item reliability or Squared Multiple Correlation (SMC)	>0.3 good

*Source: (Holmes-Smith, 2002)*

Usually in SEM the association between factor and variables is tested. Such an association is measured using factor loadings, and the strength of such a relationship depends on the weight of factor loading. The SEM output describes this as standard regression weight and a value > 0.5 indicates strong association (Churchill, 1979; Holmes-Smith, 2002). Co-variance is a measure of correlation between two variables and these variables may be influenced by other unmeasured latent variables. To assess the significance of the co-variance, the critical ratio (CR) is measured (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996). The critical ratio should be more than 1.96 for the factor loading or variance that it estimates. Therefore, for the purpose of this research, the critical ratio estimate of more than 1.96 was set as a criterion to assess a co-variance as significant (Byrne, 2001; Holmes-Smith, 2002). In the SEM output, the squared multiple correlation is an indicator of variable reliability for the observed variable. Variables are observed to measure underlying latent traits and it is important to ensure that these traits are well measured. Squared multiple correlation

is used to gauge such reliability and, in this research, a value above 0.3 was considered acceptable in terms of reliability (Holmes-Smith, 2002).

## 7.5 Testing One-Factor Congeneric Model

Past researchers (Joreskog, 1993) suggested that an initial first step in the analysis of SEMs was separately testing and evaluating a series of one-factor congeneric models for each latent variable in the model that comprises four or more indicator items. Consistent with this, the present research conducted CFA by harnessing all the latent variables separately before eliciting an overall SEM model. It is expected that the indicator variables contributing to the overall measurement of the latent variables are uni-dimensional. In addition, the goodness-of-fit measures can be viewed as confirming or not confirming the unidimensionality of the construct, which is a necessary requirement for the validity of reporting internal consistency (e.g. reliability estimates) including Cronbach's alpha (Hair et al., 2009). The analysis of one factor congeneric model allows measurement of problems if any need to be resolved before they form part of a full SEM. A one-factor congeneric model is the simplest form of measurement model and represents the regression of a set of observed variables on a single latent variable (Cunningham, 2010). The results of the one-factor congeneric model are summarised in Table 7.7.

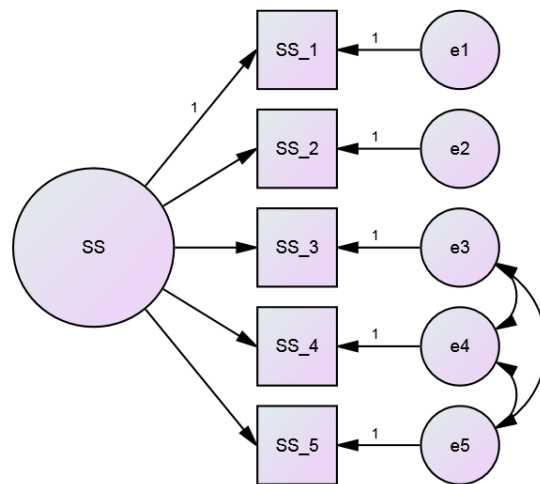
**Table 7.7 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of all one-factor congeneric models**

Factors	Number of items	CMIN/df	P-value	RMSEA	GFI	AGFI	CFI
SS	5	0.433	0.649	0.000	0.999	0.991	1
PFD	4	0.303	0.582	0.000	1	0.995	1
PWD	5	1.732	0.158	0.049	0.993	0.965	0.998
WFC	5	1.505	0.185	0.041	0.99	0.97	0.998
FWC	5	2.719	0.043	0.07	0.99	0.948	0.997
WLB	5	1.329	0.263	0.033	0.995	0.974	0.999
JS	5	0.997	0.407	0.000	0.995	0.981	1
LS	5	0.294	0.882	0.000	0.998	0.994	1
OC	5	1.936	0.085	0.055	0.987	0.961	0.994
IRP	6	1.824	0.059	0.052	0.983	0.96	0.995
ERP	4	1.652	0.199	0.046	0.997	0.973	0.999

The following section discusses each of the congeneric models through confirmatory factor analysis while involving 11 constructs of the main model. The results, including a diagram of the specified models with evaluation, are displayed in the table.

### 7.5.1 One-Factor Five-item Congeneric Model of ‘Supervisor Support’

The first latent construct, ‘supervisor support’, was measured by five indicator variables. The structure of this measurement model is presented in Figure 7.2.



**Figure 7.2 One-factor five-item congeneric model for ‘Supervisor Support’**

An examination of the modification indices showed that indicators SS\_3, SS\_4 and SS\_5 could co-vary. Two criteria were followed in order to ensure that no data-driven modifications were made to the model. Firstly, modification indices were used only for the error variances. Secondly, co-variances of error terms were freed for items for the same factor (Holmes-Smith, 2010). The results of the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement component of ‘supervisor support’ are summarised in Table 7.8.

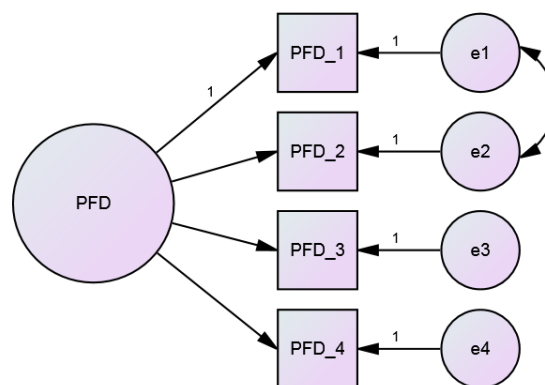
**Table 7.8 Fit Indices for one-factor five-item congeneric model for ‘Supervisor Support’**

Reliability – Cronbach Alpha				$\alpha=0.910$		
Standardised Regression Weight				C.R.	p-value	SMC
SS_1. My supervisor understands...	←	SS1a	0.901		0.000	0.811
SS_2. My supervisor listens when...	←	SS1a	0.840	10.216	0.000	0.706
SS_3. My supervisor acknowledges...	←	SS1a	0.908	6.545	0.000	0.825
SS_4. My supervisor is a good...	←	SS1a	0.738	10.313	0.000	0.544
SS_5. My supervisor demonstrates...	←	SS1a	0.726	10.438	0.000	0.526
Chi-Square ( $\chi^2$ ) (CMIN)				0.865		
Degrees of freedom (DF)				2		
p-value (Bollen-Stine bootstrap)				0.649		
Normed chi-square (CMIN/DF)				0.433		
Root mean square residual (RMR)				0.013		
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)				0.000		
Standardised root mean square residual (SRMR)				0.005		
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)				0.999		
Adjusted of goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)				0.991		
Normed fit index (NFI)				0.999		
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)				1.005		
Comparative fit index (CFI)				1		

The coefficient alpha for ‘supervisor support’ is 0.910 (see Table 7.8), indicating that the variable is a good measure of the construct. The results suggest all standardised regression weights are above 0.7, which shows that the items are loading well on to the factor. Similarly, all item reliabilities are well above the criteria of 0.3, which shows that these variables reflect the underlying trait of the construct. Thus, variable reliability indicated reasonably good measurement of supervisor support and provided evidence of convergent validity. Moreover, the normed chi-square value is also below threshold of 2.0. Examination of other fit indices (e.g. SRMR, GFI, AGFI, NFI, TLI and CFI) indicated that the model fitted the data well. An acceptable p-value of greater than 0.05 resulted after running a Bollen-Stine bootstrap. It is recommended that with non-normal data, the usual maximum likelihood-based p-value should not be used. In fact, the Bollen-Stine bootstrap can provide correct p-values for the chi-square statistics to assess the overall model fit (Bollen & Stine, 1992).

### 7.5.2 One-Factor Four-item Congeneric Model of ‘Perceived Family Demand’

The congeneric model of ‘perceived family demand’ was measured by four observed variables. The structure of the model of specific attitudes is presented in Figure 7.3. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement component of the one-factor congeneric model are summarised in Table 7.9.



**Figure 7.3 One-factor four-item congeneric model for ‘Perceived Family Demand’**

An examination of the modification indices showed that indicators PFD\_1, and PFD\_2 could co-vary. To improve the model fit, indicators within the same factor can be co-varied, which was supported by the previous researcher (Holmes-Smith, 2010). The results of the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement component of ‘perceived family demand’ are summarised in Table 7.9.

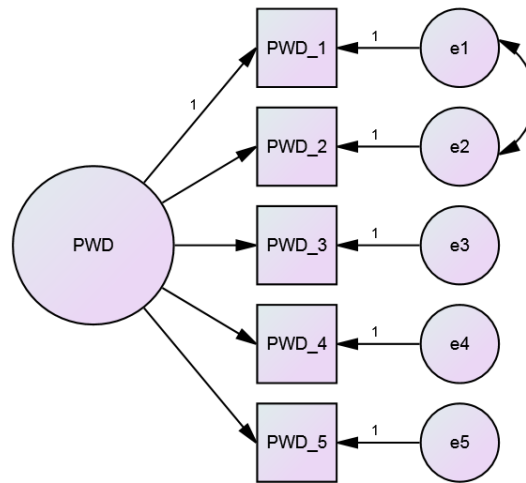
**Table 7.9 Fit Indices for one-factor four-item congeneric model for ‘Perceived Family Demand’**

Reliability – Cronbach Alpha				$\alpha=0.894$		
Standardised Regression Weight				C.R.	p-value	SMC
PFD_1. I have to work hard...	←	PFD1a	0.685		0.000	0.511
PFD_2. My family requires...	←	PFD1a	0.702	10.012	0.000	0.847
PFD_3. I feel like I have a...	←	PFD1a	0.921	5.338	0.000	0.493
PFD_4. I have a lot of...	←	PFD1a	0.715	10.273	0.000	0.469
Chi-Square ( $\chi^2$ ) (CMIN)				0.303		
Degrees of freedom (DF)				1		
p-value (Bollen-Stine bootstrap)				0.582		
Normed chi-square (CMIN/DF)				0.303		
Root mean square residual (RMR)				0.010		
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)				0.000		
Standardised root mean square residual (SRMR)				0.004		
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)				1		
Adjusted of goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)				0.995		
Normed fit index (NFI)				0.999		
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)				1		
Comparative Fit index (CFI)				1		

The coefficient alpha of ‘perceived family demand’ is high (0.894), as shown in Table 7.9, indicating that the variables are a good measure of specific attitudes. Results suggest that except for one item, all standardised regression weights and item reliabilities were well above the recommended criteria. Therefore, both the regression weights and the variable reliabilities indicated good measurement for the construct and provided evidence of convergent validity.

### **7.5.3 One-Factor Five-item Congeneric Model of ‘Perceived Work Demand’**

The congeneric model of ‘perceived work demand’ was measured by five observed variables. The structure of the model is presented in Figure 7.4. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement component of the one-factor congeneric model are summarised in Table 7.10.



**Figure 7.4 One-factor five-item congeneric model for ‘Perceived Work Demand’**

An examination of the modification indices showed that indicators PWD\_1, and PWD\_2 could co-vary. To improve the model fit indicators within the same factor can be co-varied, which is consistent with the recommendation by a previous researcher (Holmes-Smith, 2010). The results of the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement component of ‘perceived work demand’ are summarised in Table 7.10.

**Table 7.10 Fit Indices for one-factor five-item congeneric model for ‘Perceived Work Demand’**

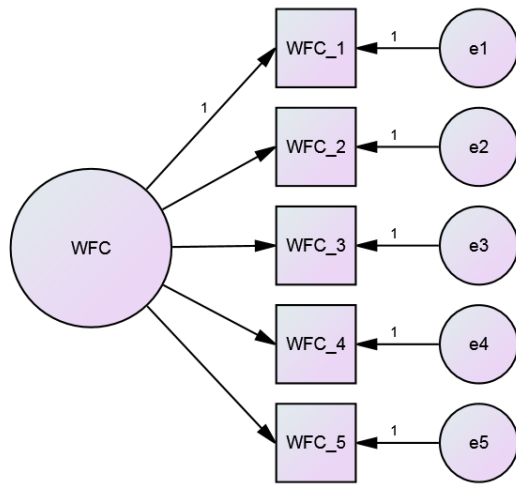
Reliability – Cronbach Alpha				$\alpha=0.934$		
Standardised Regression Weight				C.R.	p-value	SMC
PWD_1. My job requires...	←	PWD1a	0.687		0.000	0.472
PWD_2. I feel like I have...	←	PWD1a	0.859	10.043	0.000	0.737
PWD_3. I feel like...	←	PWD1a	0.942	6.622	0.000	0.888
PWD_4. My work requires...	←	PWD1a	0.885	9.509	0.000	0.783
PWD_5. I am given a lot...	←	PWD1a	0.910	8.817	0.000	0.829
Chi-Square ( $\chi^2$ ) (CMIN)				5.196		
Degrees of freedom (DF)				3		
p-value (Bollen-Stine bootstrap)				0.158		
Normed chi-square (CMIN/DF)				1.732		
Root mean square residual (RMR)				0.022		
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)				0.049		
Standardised root mean square residual (SRMR)				0.010		
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)				0.993		
Adjusted of goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)				0.965		
Normed fit index (NFI)				0.996		
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)				0.995		
Comparative Fit index (CFI)				0.998		

The coefficient alpha for ‘perceived work demand’ is high (0.934), as shown in Table 7.10, indicating standardised regression weights and items reliabilities were all acceptable. Thus, both the regression weights and the variable reliabilities indicated good measurement for the construct and provided evidence of convergent validity.

#### **7.5.4 One-Factor Five-item Congeneric Model of ‘Work-Family Conflict’**

The congeneric model of ‘work–family conflict’ was measured by five observed variables. The structure of the model of is presented in Figure 7.5. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement component of the one-factor congeneric model are summarised in Table 7.11.





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**Figure 7.5 One-factor five-item congeneric model for 'Work-Family Conflict'**

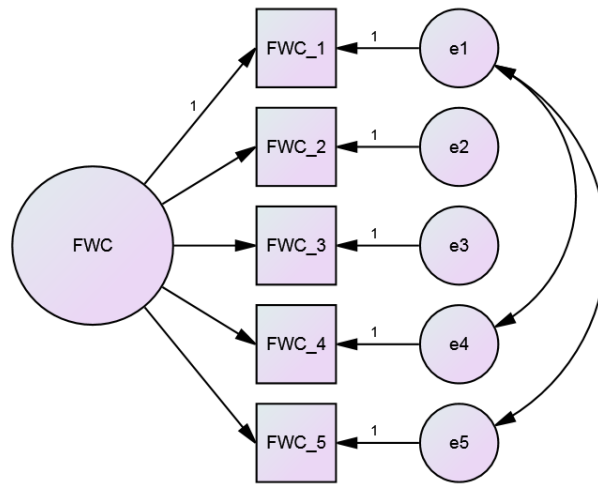
**Table 7.11 Fit Indices for one-factor five-item congeneric model for ‘Work–Family Conflict’**

Reliability – Cronbach Alpha				α=0.849		
Standardised Regression Weight				C.R.	p-value	SMC
WFC_1. The demands of my work...	←	WFC1a	0.888		0.000	0.879
WFC_2. The amount of time my...	←	WFC1a	0.910	8.766	0.000	0.829
WFC_3. Things I want to do...	←	WFC1a	0.852	10.407	0.000	0.725
WFC_4. My job produces...	←	WFC1a	0.889	9.571	0.000	0.79
WFC_5. Due to work-related...	←	WFC1a	0.838	10.614	0.000	0.702
Chi-Square ( $\chi^2$ ) (CMIN)				7.523		
Degrees of freedom (DF)				5		
p-value (Bollen-Stine bootstrap)				0.185		
Normed chi-square (CMIN/DF)				1.505		
Root mean square residual (RMR)				0.022		
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)				0.041		
Standardised root mean square residual (SRMR)				0.008		
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)				0.990		
Adjusted of goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)				0.970		
Normed fit index (NFI)				0.995		
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)				0.996		
Comparative Fit index (CFI)				0.998		

The coefficient alpha for ‘work–family conflict’ is high (0.849), as shown in Table 7.11, indicating that the variables are a good measure of specific attitudes. Results suggest that all standardised regression weights and items reliabilities were well above the recommended criteria. Hence, both the regression weights and the variable reliabilities indicated good measurement for the construct and provided evidence of convergent validity.

### 7.5.5 One-Factor Five-item Congeneric Model of ‘Family-Work Conflict’

The congeneric model of ‘family–work conflict’ was measured by four observed variables. The structure of the model of specific attitudes is presented in Figure 7.6. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement component of the one-factor congeneric model are summarised in Table 7.12.



**Figure 7.6 One-factor five-item congeneric model for ‘Family–Work Conflict’**

An examination of the modification indices showed that indicators FWC\_1, FWC\_4 and FWC\_5 could co-vary. These three indicators within the same factor were co-varied to improve the model fit which is consistent with the recommendation made by a previous researcher (Holmes-Smith, 2010). The results of the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement component of ‘family–work conflict’ are summarised in Table 7.12.

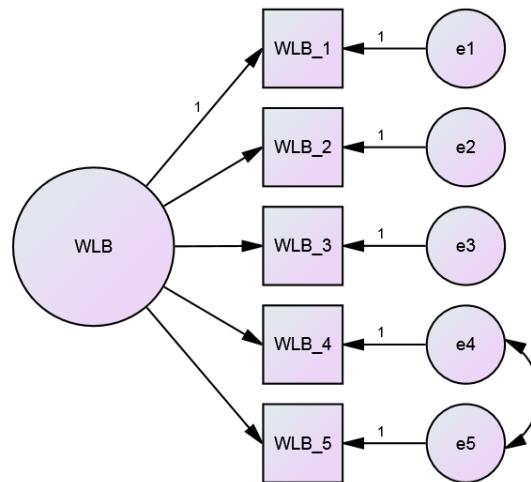
**Table 7.12 Fit Indices for one-factor five-item congeneric model for ‘Family–Work Conflict’**

Reliability – Cronbach Alpha				$\alpha=0.948$		
Standardised Regression Weight				C.R.	p-value	SMC
FWC_1. The demands of my family...	←	FWC1a	0.845		0.000	0.714
FWC_2. I have to put off doing...	←	FWC1a	0.912	8.673	0.000	0.832
FWC_3. Things I want to do...	←	FWC1a	0.946	6.292	0.000	0.895
FWC_4. My home life interferes...	←	FWC1a	0.837	10.664	0.000	0.700
FWC_5. Family-related strain...	←	FWC1a	0.841	10.600	0.000	0.707
Chi-Square ( $\chi^2$ ) (CMIN)				8.157		
Degrees of freedom (DF)				3		
p-value (Bollen-Stine bootstrap)				0.043		
Normed chi-square (CMIN/DF)				2.719		
Root mean square residual (RMR)				0.022		
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)				0.075		
Standardised root mean square residual (SRMR)				0.0092		
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)				0.990		
Adjusted of goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)				0.948		
Normed fit index (NFI)				0.995		
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)				0.989		
Comparative Fit index (CFI)				0.997		

The coefficient alpha for ‘family–work conflict’ is high (0.948). Thus, both the regression weights and the variable reliabilities indicated good measurement for the construct and provided evidence of convergent validity.

### 7.5.6 One-Factor Five-item Congeneric Model of ‘Work-Life Balance’

The congeneric model of ‘work–life balance’ was measured by five observed variables. The structure of the model of specific attitudes is presented in Figure 7.7. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement component of the one-factor congeneric model are summarised in Table 7.13.



**Figure 7.7 One-factor five-item congeneric model for 'Work-Life Balance'**

An examination of the modification indices showed that indicators WLB\_4, and WLB\_5 could co-vary. These two items were co-varied to improve the model which is consistent with the recommendation made by a previous researcher (Holmes-Smith, 2010). The results of the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement component of 'work-life balance' are summarised in Table 7.13.

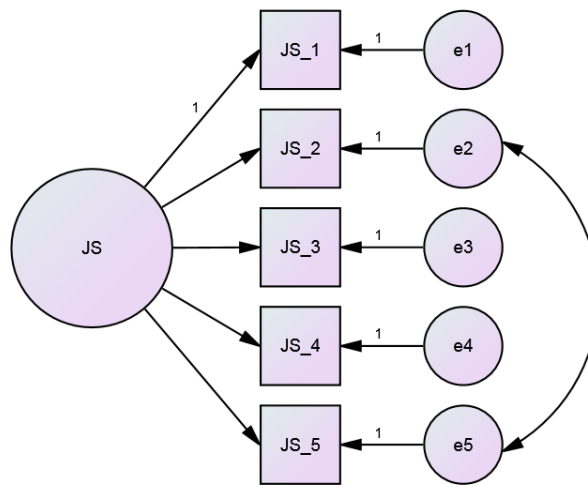
**Table 7.13 Fit Indices for one-factor five-item congeneric model for ‘Work–Life Balance’**

Reliability – Cronbach Alpha				$\alpha=0.938$		
Standardised Regression Weight				C.R.	p-value	SMC
WLB_1. I have sufficient time away...	←	WLB1a	0.924		0.000	0.854
WLB_2. I currently have a good...	←	WLB1a	0.963	5.108	0.000	0.927
WLB_3. I feel that the balance...	←	WLB1a	0.887	10.163	0.000	0.786
WLB_4. I am able to negotiate...	←	WLB1a	0.723	11.860	0.000	0.522
WLB_5. I am able to accomplish...	←	WLB1a	0.759	11.589	0.000	0.576
Chi-Square ( $\chi^2$ ) (CMIN)				3.986		
Degrees of freedom (DF)				3		
p-value (Bollen-Stine bootstrap)				0.263		
Normed chi-square (CMIN/DF)				1.329		
Root mean square residual (RMR)				0.014		
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)				0.033		
Standardised root mean square residual (SRMR)				0.005		
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)				0.995		
Adjusted of goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)				0.974		
Normed fit index (NFI)				0.997		
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)				0.998		
Comparative Fit index (CFI)				0.999		

The coefficient alpha for work–life balance is high (0.938), as shown in Table 7.13, indicating that the variables are a good measure of specific attitudes. Results found all the standardised regression weights and item reliabilities were well above the recommended criteria. Hence, both the regression weights and the variable reliabilities indicated good measurement for the construct and provided evidence of convergent validity.

### 7.5.7 One-Factor Five-item Congeneric Model of ‘Job Satisfaction’

The congeneric model of ‘job satisfaction’ was measured by five observed variables. The structure of the model of job satisfaction is presented in Figure 7.8. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement component of the one-factor congeneric model are summarised in Table 7.14.



**Figure 7.8 One-factor five-item congeneric model for 'Job Satisfaction'**

An examination of the modification indices showed that indicators JS\_2, and JS\_5 could co-vary. To improve the model fit, indicators within the same factor can be co-varied, which is consistent with the recommendation by a previous researcher (Holmes-Smith, 2010). The results of the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement component of 'job satisfaction' are summarised in Table 7.14.

**Table 7.14 Fit Indices for one-factor five-item congeneric model for ‘Job Satisfaction’**

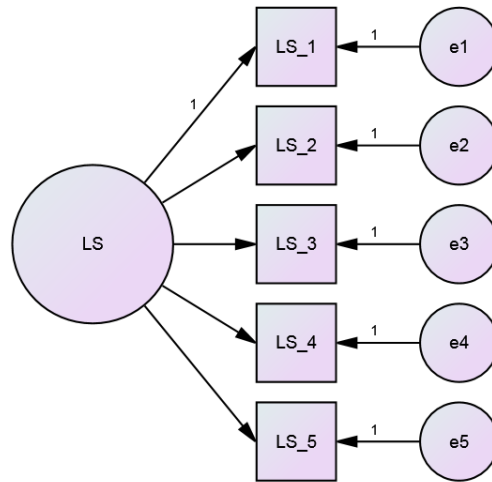
Reliability – Cronbach Alpha				$\alpha=0.910$		
Standardised Regression Weight				C.R.	p-value	SMC
JS_1. I have sufficient time away from...	←	JS1a	0.607		0.000	0.369
JS_2. I currently have a good balance...	←	JS1a	0.693	9.972	0.000	0.480
JS_3. I feel that the balance between...	←	JS1a	0.911	11.979	0.000	0.831
JS_4. I am able to negotiate...	←	JS1a	0.911	11.977	0.000	0.830
JS_5. I am able to accomplish...	←	JS1a	0.833	11.365	0.000	0.694
Chi-Square ( $\chi^2$ ) (CMIN)				3.990		
Degrees of freedom (DF)				4		
p-value (Bollen-Stine bootstrap)				0.407		
Normed chi-square (CMIN/DF)				0.997		
Root mean square residual (RMR)				0.026		
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)				0.000		
Standardised root mean square residual (SRMR)				0.011		
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)				0.995		
Adjusted of goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)				0.981		
Normed fit index (NFI)				0.996		
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)				1		
Comparative Fit index (CFI)				1		

The coefficient alpha of ‘job satisfaction’ is high (0.910) as shown in Table 7.14 indicating that the variables are a good measure of ‘job satisfaction’. Results suggest that except for two indicators, all standardised regression weights and item reliabilities were well above the recommended criteria. Therefore, both the regression weights and the variable reliabilities indicated good measurement for the construct and provided evidence of convergent validity.

### 7.5.8 One-Factor Five-item Congeneric Model of ‘Life Satisfaction’

The congeneric model of ‘life satisfaction’ was measured by five observed variables. The structure of the model of ‘life satisfaction’ is presented in Figure 7.9. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement component of the one-factor congeneric model are summarised in Table 7.15.





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**Figure 7.9 One-factor five-item congeneric model for 'Life Satisfaction'**

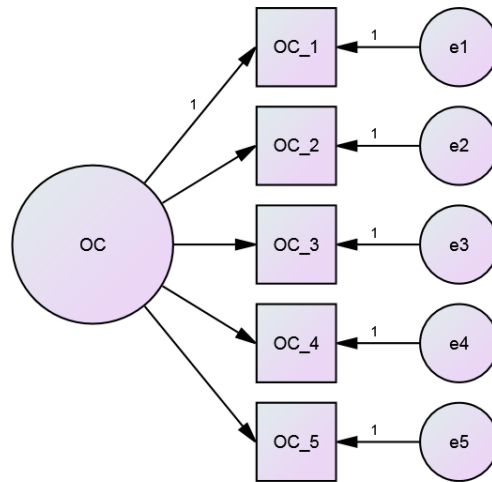
**Table 7.15 Fit Indices for one-factor five-item congeneric model for ‘Life Satisfaction’**

Reliability – Cronbach Alpha				$\alpha=0.921$		
Standardised Regression Weight				C.R.	p-value	SMC
LS_1. In most ways my...	←	LS1a	0.878		0.000	0.771
LS_2. The conditions of my...	←	LS1a	0.845	10.195	0.000	0.713
LS_3. I am satisfied with my...	←	LS1a	0.940	5.936	0.000	0.884
LS_4. So far I have gotten...	←	LS1a	0.810	10.722	0.000	0.657
LS_5. If I could live my...	←	LS1a	0.695	11.387	0.000	0.483
Chi-Square ( $\chi^2$ ) (CMIN)				1.178		
Degrees of freedom (DF)				4		
p-value (Bollen-Stine bootstrap)				0.882		
Normed chi-square (CMIN/DF)				0.294		
Root mean square residual (RMR)				0.013		
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)				0.000		
Standardised root mean square residual (SRMR)				0.005		
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)				0.998		
Adjusted of goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)				0.994		
Normed fit index (NFI)				0.999		
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)				1		
Comparative Fit index (CFI)				1		

The coefficient alpha for ‘life satisfaction’ is high (0.921), as shown in Table 7.15, indicating that the variables are a good measure of specific attitudes. Results suggest that except for one item, all standardised regression weights were well above the recommended criteria. Thus, both the regression weights and the variable reliabilities indicated good measurement for the construct and provided evidence of convergent validity.

### **7.5.9 One-Factor Five-item Congeneric Model of ‘Organisational Commitment’**

The congeneric model of ‘organisational commitment’ was measured by four observed variables. The structure of the model of organisational commitment is presented in Figure 7.10. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement component of the one-factor congeneric model are summarised in Table 7.16.



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**Figure 7.10 One-factor five-item congeneric model for 'Organisational Commitment'**

**Table 7.16 Fit Indices for one-factor five-item congeneric model for ‘Organisational Commitment’**

Reliability – Cronbach Alpha				$\alpha=0.893$		
Standardised Regression Weight				C.R.	p-value	SMC
OC_1. I am willing to put in a great deal...	←	OC1a	0.698		0.000	0.487
OC_2. I talk up this organisation to my...	←	OC1a	0.841	8.979	0.000	0.707
OC_3. I would accept almost any type ...	←	OC1a	0.762	10.445	0.000	0.580
OC_4. I find that my values and the...	←	OC1a	0.794	9.993	0.000	0.630
OC_5. For me this is the best of...	←	OC1a	0.860	8.401	0.000	0.739
Chi-Square ( $\chi^2$ ) (CMIN)				9.68		
Degrees of freedom (DF)				5		
p-value (Bollen-Stine bootstrap)				0.085		
Normed chi-square (CMIN/DF)				1.936		
Root mean square residual (RMR)				0.043		
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)				0.055		
Standardised root mean square residual (SRMR)				0.018		
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)				0.987		
Adjusted of goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)				0.961		
Normed fit index (NFI)				0.989		
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)				0.989		
Comparative Fit index (CFI)				0.994		

The coefficient alpha for ‘organisational commitment’ is high (0.893), as shown in Table 7.16, indicating that the variables are a good measure of organisational commitment. Results reported all standardised regression weights and item reliabilities were well above the criteria. Therefore, both the regression weights and the variable reliabilities indicated good measurement for the construct and provided evidence of convergent validity.

### 7.5.10 One-Factor Six-item Congeneric Model of 'In-Role Performance'

The congeneric model of 'In-Role Performance' was measured by six observed variables. The structure of the model of 'In Role Performance' is presented in Figure 7.11. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement component of the one-factor congeneric model are summarised in Table 7.17.

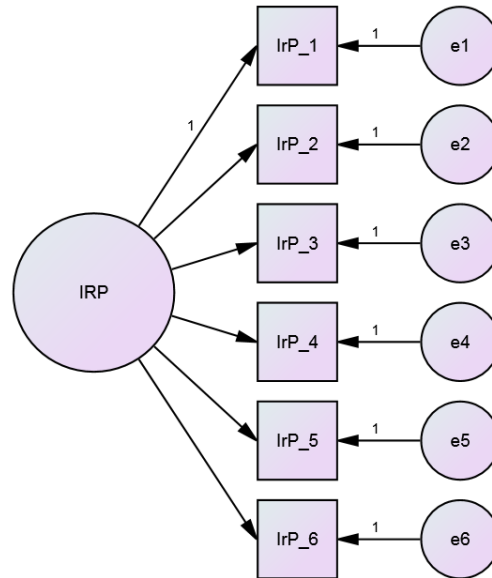


Figure 7.11 One-factor six-item congeneric model for 'In-Role Performance'

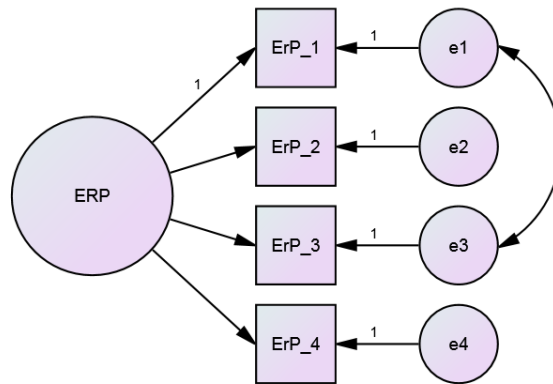
**Table 7.17 Fit Indices for one-factor six-item congeneric model for ‘In-Role Performance’**

Reliability – Cronbach Alpha				$\alpha=0.927$		
Standardised Regression Weight				C.R.	p-value	SMC
IrP_1. I adequately complete...	←	IRP1a	0.868		0.000	0.753
IrP_2. I meet formal performance...	←	IRP1a	0.882	10.075	0.000	0.778
IrP_3. I don't neglect aspects...	←	IRP1a	0.730	11.616	0.000	0.533
IrP_4. I fulfill responsibilities...	←	IRP1a	0.907	9.316	0.000	0.823
IrP_5. I engage in activities...	←	IRP1a	0.652	11.868	0.000	0.425
IrP_6. I perform tasks...	←	IRP1a	0.934	7.919	0.000	0.872
Chi-Square ( $\chi^2$ ) (CMIN)				16.418		
Degrees of freedom (DF)				9		
p-value (Bollen-Stine bootstrap)				0.059		
Normed chi-square (CMIN/DF)				1.824		
Root mean square residual (RMR)				0.021		
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)				0.052		
Standardised root mean square residual (SRMR)				0.017		
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)				0.983		
Adjusted of goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)				0.960		
Normed fit index (NFI)				0.989		
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)				0.992		
Comparative Fit index (CFI)				0.995		

The coefficient alpha for ‘In-Role Performance’ is high (0.927), as shown in Table 7.17, indicating that the variables are a good measure of ‘in role performance’. Results suggest that except for one item, all standardised regression weights and item reliabilities were well above the recommended measure. Thus, both the regression weights and the variable reliabilities indicated good measurement for the construct and provided evidence of convergent validity.

#### **7.5.11 One-Factor Four-item Congeneric Model of ‘Extra-Role Performance’**

The congeneric model of ‘Extra-Role Performance’ was measured by four observed variables. The structure of the model is presented in Figure 7.12. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement component of the one-factor congeneric model are summarised in Table 7.18.



**Figure 7.12 One-factor four-item congeneric model for ‘Extra-Role Performance’**

An examination of the modification indices showed that indicators Erp\_1, and Erp\_3 could co-vary. To improve the model fit, indicators within the same factor can be co-varied, which is consistent with the recommendation by a previous researcher (Holmes-Smith, 2010). The results of the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement component of perceived family demand are summarised in Table 7.18.

**Table 7.18 Fit Indices for one-factor four-item congeneric model for ‘Extra-Role Performance’**

Reliability – Cronbach Alpha				$\alpha=0.886$		
Standardised Regression Weight				C.R.	p-value	SMC
ErP_1. I can make constructive...	←	ERP1a	0.730		0.000	0.533
ErP_2. I encourage others to try...	←	ERP1a	0.83	8.263	0.000	0.689
ErP_3. I am well informed...	←	ERP1a	0.739	10.128	0.000	0.547
ErP_4. I continue to look...	←	ERP1a	0.899	5.317	0.000	0.807
Chi-Square ( $\chi^2$ ) (CMIN)				1.652		
Degrees of freedom (DF)				1		
p-value (Bollen-Stine bootstrap)				0.199		
Normed chi-square (CMIN/DF)				1.652		
Root mean square residual (RMR)				0.011		
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)				0.046		
Standardised root mean square residual (SRMR)				0.006		
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)				0.997		
Adjusted of goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)				0.973		
Normed fit index (NFI)				0.998		
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)				0.994		
Comparative Fit index (CFI)				0.999		

The coefficient alpha for ‘Extra-Role Performance’ is high (0.886), as shown in Table 7.18, indicating that the variables are a good measure. Results suggest that all standardised regression weights and item reliabilities were well above the recommended criteria. Thus, both the regression weights and the variable reliabilities indicated good measurement for the construct and provided evidence of convergent validity.

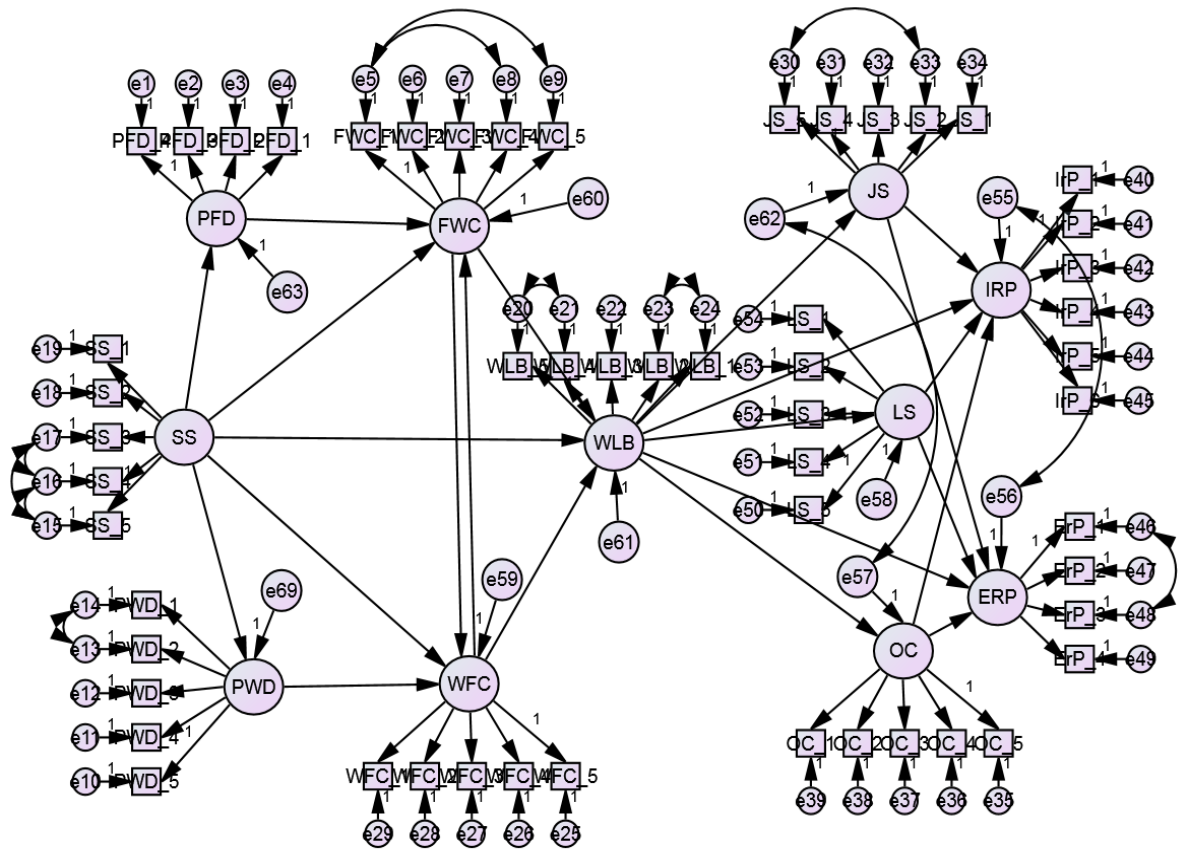
## 7.6 Evaluating the Structural Model

The second and final stage of SEM was to run the structural model. One of the fundamental requirements of SEM is to first do a measurement model, which in this case the researcher conducted previously through CFA. The results reported a good model fit. Rationally, this allowed the researcher to examine the structural model to determine the nature of the relationship between different constructs used in the research. This section discusses the evaluation of the main structural model, including research questions and hypothesis testing with corresponding fit indices, and the justification whether to go for model re-specification.



### **7.6.1 Estimating the Main Model and Testing of Hypotheses**

Several studies published with regard to fit indices in SEM analysis posit that the decision to choose the right index is subject to sample size and model misspecification (e.g. Fan, Thompson, & Wang, 1999; Gerbing & Anderson, 1993; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Sharma, Mukherjee, Kumar, & Dillon, 2005). The researcher asserted that ideally, all fit statistics will give the same approximate interpretation of fit, but the interpretation is an overall impression, and should not be based on a single fit index. Interpreting fit on the basis of two or more fit indices reduces the Type I and II errors associated with over-rejecting or over-accepting models on the basis of fit (e.g. Hu & Bentler, 1999). The main structural model is given in Figure 7.13. The fitness measures of the structural equation model are given in Table 7.19. The structural model (see Figure 7.13) shows the latent variables along with their hypothesised links: Supervisor support (SS) towards Perceived Work Demand (PWD), Perceived Family Demand (PFD), Work–family Conflict (WFC) and Family–work Conflict (FWC); PWD and PFD towards WFC and FWC; WFC and FWC to Work–life balance (WLB); WLB towards Job Satisfaction (JS), Life Satisfaction (LS) and Organisational Commitment (OC); JS, LS and OC toward Job Performance (JP); and WLB towards JP.



**Figure 7.13 Testing of the hypothesised model**

As is shown from the fit indices in Table 7.19, the normed chi-square ratio (1.93), this is consistent with the recommended range proposed by Marsh and Hocevar (1985). The values for GFI and AGFI were below the acceptable limits. Hair and colleagues (1995, 2010) and Holmes-Smith and colleagues (2006) recommend the use of at least one fit index from each category of model fit. The RMSEA was 0.05, which is equal to the recommended threshold. All in all, the results show that the model can be evaluated as being adequate. The p-value of 0.000 did not reflect a good-fit. However, a p-value less than 0.05 is commonly found in large samples of over 250 (Bollen, 1989; Segars & Grover, 1993). For this reason, the chi-square statistic is often only referred to for a quick review of the model fit (Byrne, 2010). Analogous arguments can be made that if the  $\chi^2$  statistic is not significant, model changes that are substantively defensible are made based on information not only in the standardised residuals co-variance matrix but also selected information from the modification indices (Cunningham, 2010).

**Table 7.19 Fit measures for the hypothesised model**

<b>Fit Indices</b>	<b>Main Model</b>
Chi-square	2601.81
Degree of freedom (df)	1342
Normed Chi-square (CMIN/df)	1.93
p-value	0.00
Root Mean Residual	0.22
Root mean square of error of estimation (RMSEA)	0.05
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	0.74
Adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)	0.71
Comparative fit index (CFI)	0.92
TLI	0.91
IFI	0.92

### **7.6.2 Testing the Hypothesis of the Main Model**

In view of the results from the data analysis, this section presents results for the formulated hypothesis. The main model aimed to test the links given in Table 7.20. As represented in Table 7.21, all hypotheses have been accepted except Hypothesis 1a. The strongest positive association can be seen between perceived family demand and family–work conflict (0.564). On the contrary, a very weak and non-significant relationship can be seen between supervisor support and perceived work demand (–.009).

**Table 7.20 Standardised estimates of the theoretical model**

<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Model Links</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>C.R.</b>	<b>P</b>
H1a	SS → PWD	-.009	.061	-0.142	0.887
H1b	SS → PFD	-.152	.056	2.374	0.018
H1c	SS → WFC	-.294	.052	-5.973	<i>p</i> <.001
H1d	SS → FWC	-.246	.088	-3.078	0.002
H1e	SS → WLB	.370	.051	6.815	<i>p</i> <.001
H2a	PWD → WFC	.470	.052	9.434	<i>p</i> <.001
H2b	PFD → FWC	.564	.105	6.798	<i>p</i> <.001
H3a	WFC → FWC	.458	.058	7.460	<i>p</i> <.001
H3b	FWC → WFC	.482	.049	9.750	<i>p</i> <.001
H4a	WFC → WLB	-.563	.056	-8.770	<i>p</i> <.001
H4b	FWC → WLB	-.087	.043	-1.710	0.041
H5a	WLB → JS	.485	.070	7.829	<i>p</i> <.001
H5b	WLB → LS	.523	.072	7.986	<i>p</i> <.001
H5c	WLB → OC	.426	.076	6.851	<i>p</i> <.001
H6a	JS → JP	.148	.076	2.417	0.016
H6b	LS → JP	.133	.056	2.001	0.045
H6c	OC → JP	.202	.066	3.049	0.002
H7	WLB → JP	.269	.064	3.493	<i>p</i> <.001

**Table 7.21 Summary of findings for research questions and hypotheses**

<b>Research Questions</b>	<b>Research Hypothesis</b>	<b>Results</b>
RQ1: How is supervisor support related to employees' demands, conflicts and work-life balance?	H1a: Supervisor support at work is inversely related to perceived work demand	Not supported
	H1b: Supervisor support at work is inversely related to perceived family demand	Supported
	H1c: Supervisor support at work is inversely related to work–family conflict	Supported
	H1d: Supervisor support at work is inversely related to family–work conflict	Supported
	H1e: Supervisor support at work is positively related to work–life balance	Supported
RQ2: How is perceived work and family demand related to work–family conflict and family–work conflict?	H2a: Perceived work demand is positively related to work–family conflict	Supported
	H2b: Perceived family demand is positively related to family–work conflict	Supported
RQ3: Do work–family conflict and family–work conflict influence each other?	H3a: Work–family conflict is positively related to family work conflict	Supported
	H3b: Family work conflict is positively related to work–family conflict	Supported
RQ4: Do work–family conflict and family–work conflict affect work–life balance?	H4a: Work–family conflict is inversely related to work–life balance	Supported
	H4b: Family–work conflict is inversely related to work–life balance	Supported
RQ5: How does work–life balance influence employees' attitudes?	H5a: Work–life balance is positively related to job satisfaction	Supported
	H5b: Work–life balance is positively related to life satisfaction	Supported
	H5c: Work–life balance is positively related to organisational commitment	Supported
RQ6: Does employees' attitude influence job performance?	H6a: Job satisfaction is positively related to job performance	Supported
	H6b: Life satisfaction is positively related to job performance	Supported
	H6c: Organisational commitment is positively related to job performance	Supported
RQ7: Does work–life balance relate to employees' job performance?	H7: Work–life balance is positively related to employees' job performance	Supported

### **7.6.3 Model Re-specification**

With the ability to improve model fit by using modification indices, researchers using SEMs have an incentive to re-specify their models to improve model fit (McQuitty & Wolf, 2013). However, re-specifying a model to obtain better fit is not good science, because doing so implies changing either the measurement theory (paths between observed items and constructs) or the substantive theory associated with how constructs relate to one another (structural paths). Strictly speaking, adding paths is defensible only when changes to the associated measurement or substantive theory can be justified, and then new data should be collected to evaluate the revised theory. The latter recommendation arises because model modifications can be based on data idiosyncrasies rather than errors in the original model's specification, and different data sets easily can suggest different models.

Another form of model modification concerns the co-variance between observed items that is not explained by common factors (i.e. error co-variance). Adding within-factor error co-variances in a prudent manner can be justified if an explanation can be found for why a pair of observed items should have co-variance beyond the construct (common factor) with which they are associated. If changes to the model are recommended by the model's coefficients or the modification indices, then such changes should be supported by theory (measurement and/or substantive) and new data collected to test the model. In line with arguments so far, no re-specification of the model was deemed necessary because the model is reasonably consistent with the data.

## **7.7 Summary**

This chapter covered discussions on the adjustment of measurement scales that were used in this research to measure corresponding constructs. Sample characteristics were described and measurement scales were assessed through EFA and CFA. Exploratory factor analysis confirmed no exclusion of items. This was justified based on the sufficient factor loadings elicited from the EFA analysis. Afterwards, CFA was performed using separate models on 54 items with all individual CFA models resulting in acceptable model fit. As far as the individual model is concerned, the sample size of 305 was adequate for parameter estimation.

## **Abbreviations used in Chapter 8**

FWC: Family-Work Conflict

JP: Job Performance

JS: Job Satisfaction

LS: Life Satisfaction

OC: Organisational Commitment

PFD: Perceived Family Demand

PWD: Perceived Work Demand

SS: Supervisor Support

WFC: Work-Family Conflict

WLB: Work-Life Balance

## **Chapter 8 Discussion**

### **8.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter discussed the quantitative findings. This chapter presents a detailed discussion of both qualitative and quantitative findings. The themes and subthemes identified through qualitative analysis will be examined with reference to extant literature. The detailed results elicited from quantitative analysis will then be justified in concert with existing literature to address research questions.

Mixing and integrating two methods allowed the researcher not only to have various constructs related to the lived experience of work-life balance through interviews but also assisted in the development of the questionnaire for validation and investigated the relations between antecedents and the outcomes of work-life balance. Following this process of ‘development’, whereby the results from one method helped develop and informed the other method, improved the validity of the results obtained in the mixed methods research (Green, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989).

The current research addressed the research gaps with its focus only in Australian finance industry. The stated aim of the research at the outset of the thesis was to investigate managers’ and employees’ perspectives and experiences unlike contrasting the differences of opinion of managers and employees through study 1 and study 2. However, the researcher recommends exploring the comparison of two groups as part of future study.

### **8.2 Qualitative Findings**

#### **8.2.1 Work-Life Balance**

The research found some similarities and differences of views and experiences in terms of conceptualising work-life balance from study 1. For instance, managers opined that quality of life, economic advantage, prioritising family, and normal life surrounding work-life balance were most significant factors than the employees. By contrast, most employees focused on maintaining a healthy balance, mitigating stress, equalising time between work and family, and avoiding work at the expense



of family. By and large, for both cohorts, a balanced involvement in work and life roles may augment work–life balance because they are fully engaged in both roles, with the ability to develop routines that enable them to balance all demands (Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003). A balanced engagement in work and life roles is expected to be associated with individual quality of life because such balance augments work–life balance and reduces stress, both of which affect quality of life and quality of time. However, the first research question (being part of qualitative stage) of the study was: How is WLB defined? How is WLB experienced by employees? How is WLB experienced by supervisors? This has been explained below in the alignment of qualitative findings.

Early on, the interview findings made it explicit that the definition and experiences of work–life balance varied between individuals. Among researchers, debate continues over how best to define the concept of WLB (e.g. Gatrell et al., 2013; O`zibilgin et al., 2011). Most researchers view WLB as the absence of work–family conflict, or the frequency and intensity in which work interferes with family or family interferes with work. Much research in WLB has focused on work–family conflict (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). Some scholars have suggested organisationally focused notions of WLB, expanded to wider issues such as how workplace performance and competence are measured and understood (Rapoport et al., 2002; Bailyn, 1993), others have taken an individually focused perspective, conceptualising WLB as individual perceptions and experiences of different life roles in line with current priorities (Kalliath & Brough, 2008).

In line with the above discussion, the study identified similar results from both cohorts (e.g. employees and supervisor) regarding conceptualisation and lived experience of work–life balance. These will be discussed below.

#### *8.2.1.1 Understanding and Perceptions of WLB*

While defining and experiencing WLB, employees have contended it to be a healthy balance, mitigating stresses, equalising work and family time, and work not at the expense of family. First, *stress mitigation*, as employees reported from the findings, can be explained in line with the *personal resource allocation* approach, which is similar to COR theory (Grawitch, Barber, & Justice, 2010). The first assumption is that work and non-work are both a part of the larger, overarching life domain. Personal pursuits and life demands have to be effectively managed or regulated,

whether they relate to work, family, leisure or any other activity. Such an approach integrates previous research on stress and work–life balance, arguing that positive and negative outcomes result from (in)effective management of life – daily, weekly and in general – given a finite amount of personal resources e.g., time, energy, and money (Grawitch, Barber, & Justice, 2010). The second assumption is that personal resource allocation is highly individualistic; that is, there is no ideal allocation of resources across individuals and/or domains. From this perspective, cognitive and affective outcomes that we experience in life situations are the result of the extent to which the amount of resources we expend to manage a particular demand is consistent with the amount of resources employees expect or prefer to expend to manage that demand, and the amount of resources employees have available to manage that demand.

Further, stressors in the work and family domains cause work–family conflict, which leads to strain upon the individual (Demerouti, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2005). As work and family roles represent core components of adult identity, impediments to work and family-related identity formation and maintenance are likely to be experienced as stressful (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). Thus, experiences of work-to-family (WF) conflict as well as family-to-work (FW) conflict are thought to be directly related to deleterious health outcomes (Frone, Russell, & Barnes, 1996).

Given the understanding and perceptions of WLB, the respondents could differentiate between positive and negative aspects of it and to trade-off between work, life and family as it affects virtually anyone who works in the financial sector. It is suggested that failing to reach an effective work–life balance can be damaging to an individual’s health. A good work–life balance can provide a range of benefits, including greater satisfaction with quality of life, mitigating stress, improving energy levels and longer life expectancy. On the contrary, a poor balance can undermine mental and physical health. The respondents have the perception that working long hours will likely result in the worker suffering from depression and burnout. Attending to one role at the expense of other can also yield negative outcomes.

It is challenging to manage time required for work and family. If balance is being maintained in work and family domains simultaneously, it is expected that employees would likely remain in the financial organisation as they are satisfied in both job and life. This equilibrium could also support their entire family back home,

and provide the employee with the incentive to make extra efforts to remain in the organisation, thus keeping their careers in perspective. At the same time, employers would support the retention of employees displaying both good performance and an intention to help the organisation sustain its business. It is a win-win situation for all. In addition, if the organisation is family supportive, satisfied employees would encourage others to join through word of mouth. This would have long-term implications for the entire financial sector in Australia.

Another important area reported by the employees was how to equalise work and family time. This can be interpreted through blurring of the boundaries that separate individuals between work and family domains (Clark, 2000). Most of the research evidence suggests that the boundaries are relatively weak. For example, stress at work can spill over into the home and cross over to affect family members (and vice versa). The problem is that in the contemporary context, employment often leaves little time or energy for other activities and sources of satisfaction or enjoyment (Lewis, 2003). Changes in the nature and timing of paid work, including the proliferation of nonstandard and flexible work arrangements, have fuelled the rise of the dual-earner household as the dominant family form (Jacobs & Gerson, 2004; Kalleberg, 2008). These developments have dramatically altered the ways in which work and family roles interact (Clark, 2000). As the boundaries between these role domains become more fluid for most employees, work–family role blurring (or the integration of behaviours and thoughts associated with work and family roles), has become an increasingly relevant work–family phenomenon (Desrochers, Hilton, & Larwood, 2005). This further pushes employees to a challenge where they struggle to trade-off time between work and family.

It is significant to find equilibrium between work and life (outside work). To sustain, one needs to work; and to survive, one needs to have life outside work, and family. Imbalances due to more time engaging with work rather than life and family would have medium to long-term impact. For example, those devoting long hours to work may be exhausted when interacting with their family and dealing with life, which could undermine their performance back at work over time. As many people wish to pursue long hours, regardless of sector or position, it might have a holistic impact on their life, families and society as a whole. Thus, it is not only the financial sector

which is ill-affected by an imbalance in work–life, but the whole Australian economy. This is one of the most important aspects of the current study.

Through interviews, the employees further asserted that one should not work at the expense of time required to devote to their family. This clearly implies a need to balance both domains equally. The general demands of each role (i.e. work or family) include the responsibilities, requirements, duties, commitments and expectations related to performance in any domain (Netemeyer et al., 1996). Indeed, the limited resources required to fulfil such role demands are frequently in a state of imbalance, leading to feelings of conflict between domains. In fact, exposure to stressors in one domain may lead to fatigue and/or preoccupation with those problems, further restricting one's ability to adequately perform role functions in the other domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Each individual has fixed amounts of physical and psychological resources (e.g. time, mental energy), so conflicts in one direction are likely to be coupled with expressions of conflict in the other direction. It is speculated that individuals experiencing a high demand in a work role would struggle to fulfil their life and family demands. This continuance over time would affect employees' family relations, and would have far reaching consequences.

By contrast, supervisors defined and experienced WLB as a 'quality of life', 'prioritising family', and to have a 'normal life'. Unlike employees, supervisors asserted that 'quality of life' was gained through balancing work and life. In general, work–life balance is thought to promote well-being which is reported to be synonymous with the quality of life (Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003). However, Kofodimos (1993) suggests that work imbalance arouses high levels of stress, detracts from quality of life, and ultimately reduces individuals' effectiveness at work. In supporting the mechanism by which individuals' work–life balance is linked to quality of life, scholars (Marks & MacDermid, 1996) believe that balanced individuals are 'prepared to hold the moment' when confronted with a role demand because no role is seen as 'less worthy of one's alertness than any other'. Further, balanced individuals experience low levels of stress when enacting roles, presumably because they are participating in role activities that are salient to them (Clark, 2000). This helps individuals' inculcate attributes needed to play a balanced role in their personal life. It would boost to harness positive attitudes required to enhance job

performance. A level of performance that satisfies individuals in both work and life would also serve to keep them happy.

It is further argued that balanced individuals experience less role overload, greater role ease, and less depression than their imbalanced counterparts (Marks & MacDermid, 1996). A balanced involvement in work and family roles may reduce chronic work–family conflict. Because balanced individuals are fully engaged in both roles, they do not allow any ‘situational urgencies’ to hinder role performance chronically (Marks & MacDermid, 1996). Instead, they develop routines that enable them to meet the long-term demands of all roles, presumably avoiding extensive work–family conflict. To summarise, a balanced engagement in work and family roles is expected to be associated with individual well-being because such balance reduces work–family conflict and stress, both of which detract from well-being (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). As long as individuals can mitigate work and life conflict arising from increased work and family demand, it would satisfy them in both domains. This is important for those working in the financial sector especially, where people traditionally work long hours, and under stressful situations. If people are not happy due to mismatches between their work and family issues, it would have an inverse effect on the financial sector in the long run.

The findings also reported that the family is as important as the work we do every day. It is a challenge to manage both work and family simultaneously. Past research reveals that conflict between paid work and family responsibilities has been linked to reduced employee productivity as well as decreased family functioning (Glass & Estes, 1997). As the number of dual-earner and single-parent households raising children continues to grow, pressure on organisations to attend to the family responsibilities of employees has been increasing (Families and Work Institute 1991, Goodstein, 1994).

#### *8.2.1.2 Supervisor Support*

Helping workers to balance their work and family lives is increasingly viewed as a business and social imperative (Carlson et al., 2009). The research findings (see Chapter 5) assert that supervisor support can play a significant role in employees’ work–life balance. It has been reported that supervisory support has a positive impact on (lessening) employees’ work–family conflict and enabling them to experience a balanced work and life (Goh, Ilies, & Wilson, 2015). Consistent with previous

research, many suggest that the existence of formal family supportive policies alone is not enough to ease employees' work and life demands, considering that these policies rely on the informal discretion of the employees' supervisor (Hammer et al., 2009). Supervisor support has been identified as a crucial component in decreasing work–family conflict (e.g. Allen, 2001; Behson, 2002). Thus, organisations must consider how supervisors play a role in influencing employees' work and family demands, work–family conflict, work–life balance, attitudes and job performance.

It is contended that supervisor support related to work and family is likely to be a psychologically and functionally useful resource to manage work–family stressors such as time, strain or behaviour-based conflicts (Kossek et al., 2011), because it acts as a buffer against stress from job demands. Hence, supervisor support does not directly reduce one's job demands, but helps employees reduce the effects of job demands on home life. Further, employees receive a boost to their psychological resources when they experience empathy from a supervisor regarding their family obligations, which subsequently reduces distress and conflict in the workplace (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

The interview findings further revealed that flexibility provided to employees by their supervisors is considered crucial for managing work–life balance (Byron, 2005; Gajendran & Harrison, 2007). Several researchers have reported the use of flexible work practices and observed an association with reduced work–life interference (Alexander & Baxter, 2005; Skinner & Pocock, 2008; Hayman, 2009; Skinner & Pocock, 2011a). For example, flexible time scheduling (e.g. change, start and finish times) is consistently associated with reduced work–life interference (Alexander & Baxter, 2005; Hayman, 2009). Brough and colleagues (2005) found that greater use of flexible work arrangements was associated with greater satisfaction with family life. In the same vein, the perceptions of supervisor and organisational support for family-responsive policies, including flextime, were also related to a reduction in work–family conflict (O'Driscoll et al., 2003).

When employees receive workplace support, it can serve to increase their motivation to make an extra effort in their daily work. This is in line with the current research that if employees in the financial sector are satisfied with their work–life balance, they are more likely to excel at work. The spill-on effect is that this job satisfaction is reflected in the home, and that home-life satisfaction is reflected back at work, and

so on – resulting in an elevated commitment by that employee to their job and employer.

From the opposite viewpoint, when employees feel that they lack support from supervisors, or that the work environment is not friendly enough to share their family concerns, or that the supervisor and the organisation are not allied to them, they may fail to perform to their full potential. Hence, if supervisors or managers are unwilling to ask employees about their family and work, this may lead to negative outcomes for the financial organisation. Dissatisfied employees both in work and life might eventually pose a detrimental effect sooner or later for the financial sector. From a broader perspective and consistent with the cyclical nature and interdependence of business, detrimental effects to the financial industry impact the entire economy in the long run.

#### *8.2.1.3 Home and Work Life*

The findings reported that many parents do not pass their leisure time effectively with their children, which is crucial for their holistic development. It is said that ‘quality time’ epitomises the ideal image of ‘happy families’ and parents are key actors (Christensen, 2002). Parents are responsible for making time and situations when, by giving children their undivided attention, they create ‘family time’ as a harmonious experience of togetherness. This is achieved through parents and children engaging in activities that communicate and support their mutual affection and enjoyment. Such parental care is often illustrated with images of parents and children in conversations, playing games or going places together. Advocates of the quality time perspective focus on blocks of time shared by all family members, which mainly consists of leisure activities and events that are organised around and targeted at children’s needs and interests, such as outdoor excursions, visits to the zoo, and birthday parties (Christensen, 2002; Daly, 2001; Gillis, 2003). These family activities are claimed to be beneficial to children’s well-being because they allow both parents and children to replenish themselves and escape the pressures of everyday life.

Research has reported that a father’s long work hours are negatively associated with the breadth of activities he undertakes with his children (Bulanda, 2004; Yeung, Sandberg, Davis-Kean, & Hofferth, 2001). Fathers spend less time with their spouse and have lower marital quality if they have high role overload, and have less positive

involvement with adolescent children (Crouter, Bumpus, Head, & McHale, 2001). The feeling that they were not spending enough time with their children was widespread and higher for fathers who spent more hours away from home in the paid workforce than mothers (Milkie, Mattingly, Nomaguchi, Bianchi, & Robinson, 2004). In contrast, much of the unpaid family work, such as meal planning and maintaining contact with extended family is unacknowledged and not counted as work, yet such responsibilities are likely to contribute to women feeling strain (Dressel & Clark, 1990). It is reported that many working mothers spend a lot of time and energy anticipating the needs of other family members (Dressel & Clark, 1990). Additionally, they showed that women, more than men, do not even consider many daily activities of family care worth reporting to researchers. Thus working mothers make a number of sacrifices for the family due to work obligations.

Research has shown that social interaction between family members, even when not shared by the whole family, can help reinforce a sense of family unity and togetherness (Minuchin, 1985, 2002). Quantity time is assumed to be the most desired kind of time, the 'norm' provided when one parent (presumably the mother) is a child's full-time caregiver. However, when parents cannot give their children *quantity time* because of work, they are encouraged to give them *quality time*, largely by devoting time focused solely on children through participation in out-of-the-ordinary activities. Time – whether in quantity or quality – is assumed to be necessary in creating family togetherness and relationships, and for imparting critical knowledge to children. But beyond that, the debates continue as to whether quantity is the necessary ingredient, or if making the most of limited, yet quality, chunks of time is enough. This view was, however, countered with arguments that it is not necessarily more time that families need. To remedy the pressures of everyday life it was suggested that attention had to be paid as to how parents spent their time together with their children.

The findings revealed that benefits being offered to employees could play a significant role in keeping them satisfied in the workplace. This is consistent with the logic underlying employer strategies to voluntarily provide benefits, suggesting that benefit offerings are associated with employee satisfaction, which in turn is associated with their attitudes and behaviours (Harris & Fink, 1994). The implied process, based on social exchange theory, is that when employees are satisfied with



benefits provided to them, they are committed to the employer, remain with the employer, and perform their jobs well, which in turn leads to strong organisational performance. In line with enrichment theory and through this process, satisfied employees can enrich their home life, which eventually enables them to have a balanced life.

### **8.2.2 Work–Family Conflict**

Findings from the interviews supported the bidirectional conceptualisation of work–family conflict (Frone et al., 1997). In most cases, participants were able to distinguish whether interference was due to experiences in the work domain or the family domain that impacted their work–life balance. The findings suggest that the conceptualisation of work–family conflict in other country contexts is largely applicable to the Australian context, especially in the financial sector. As noted previously, several studies have examined within-domain demands as causes of work–family conflict. Within-domain demands are characteristics of one domain that are associated with processes that limit the ability of individuals to meet obligations in another domain (Voydanoff, 2005).

The findings indicated that working longer hours meant participants were less engaged with family members. The number of hours an employee works constitutes a primary demand of any job, and long work hours are a reality in many contemporary workplaces. Consistent with COR theory (Hobfoll, 1988), time is among the most highly valued personal resources. The greater the number of hours a person works, the less of this precious resource they have to devote to family and personal life. In addition, long work hours can drain other vital resources, such as energy, that are needed in non-work roles. Consistent with this argument, several studies have found that longer work hours are associated with greater work–family conflict with diminished work–life balance (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1997; Grandey, Cordeiro, & Michael, 2007; Major, Klein, & Ehrhart, 2002; Valcour, 2007; Voydanoff, 2005; Wallace, 1997, 1999).

The research findings can be compared with role theory (Kahn et al., 1964) and the COR model (Hobfoll, 1989). For example, longer work hours were reported to be associated with increased WFC and FWC. This is due to the fact that by making less non-work time available to employees may result in employees needing to take care

of non-work matters during the extra hours of work time (DiRenzo et al., 2011). A meta-analysis to examine long work hours found a curvilinear relationship between hours squared and the relationship between work hours and WFC and FWC (Ng & Feldman, 2008). They found a stronger relationship between hours worked and WFC and FWC respectively as hours increased.

Work and family are interlinked in part through an individuals' allocation of resources, of which time is perhaps the most tangible. Given that time is a finite resource that cannot be expanded through engagement in multiple roles, an hour devoted to one domain represents an hour that is not available to the other domain. Energy may also be used up through longer hours at work, such that people who work longer hours have less energy available to meet family demands. Since work and family are both 'greedy institutions' (Coser, 1974) that tend to demand as much as possible from people engaged in them, longer hours devoted to work are expected to reduce people's ability to meet family demands, thereby diminishing their satisfaction with work–family balance. In other words, the more hours people work, the more likely it is that role demands will outstrip resources and the less likely people are to feel successful at handling all of their work and family demands. This cognitive appraisal is accompanied by a lowered level of contentment. This argument is supported by several studies that have found that working longer hours is associated with greater work–family conflict (Frone et al., 1997; Major et al., 2002; Wallace, 1999), which is, in turn, associated with lowered job and life satisfaction (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). In the end, the likely conflicts arising from work, life and family are significant in that they affect an individual's work–life balance. If not mitigated, such conflict would have a far reaching effect for employees, employers and managers working in the Australian financial sector as it is related to their attitudes and job performance.

### **8.2.3 Individual Performance**

The findings revealed that employee attitudes including job satisfaction, life satisfaction and organisational commitment were the drivers that could affect their performance. These can be explained using social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). When treated favourably by the organisation, employees will feel obliged to respond in kind, through positive attitudes or behaviours toward the source of the treatment.

Using the provision of work–life balance practices as an indicator of favourable treatment, employees will reciprocate in ways beneficial to the organisation—increased commitment and satisfaction with their job and life. The availability of work practices designed to assist employees with managing their responsibilities at home may also increase employee perceptions of organisational support, particularly if these work–life balance practices are seen as being useful (Lambert, 2000). Supervisor support from the organisation can also be used as an indicator of favourable treatment, prompting reciprocal positive actions from employees. This proposition finds support in the results of Allen (2001), which indicated that perceptions of the organisation as being family-supportive mediated the link between work–life practice availability and both commitment and job satisfaction.

It can be speculated that employees having a balanced work and life through job satisfaction, life satisfaction and commitment to the organisation is often associated with improved organisational performance. This is highly desirable for the whole financial sector. Making practices of WLB available to the employees also appears to give financial industry employers a competitive advantage with regard to their present and future recruitment, by enhancing perceptions of anticipated organisational support among potential job seekers (Beauregard, & Henry, 2009; Casper & Buffardi, 2004). This outcome, if replicated and implemented in other industries, would further promote employees' job performance. On the contrary, if the employees are dissatisfied because they cannot trade-off work and family demands, that would undermine their performance. As performance is likely to go down, that would impact the bottom-line of financial organisations, and in the end the whole industry could be negatively affected.

### **8.3 Quantitative Findings**

The main objective of the quantitative study was to test linkages between the antecedents (e.g. SS, PWD, PFD, WFC, and FWC) and outcomes (e.g. JS, LS, OC and JP) of WLB of employees in the context of the financial sector in Sydney, Australia. This section focuses on the empirical results, explanations and interpretations, while also addressing the researcher questions proposed in the research.

### 8.3.1 Research Question 1

*How is supervisor support related to employees' demands, conflicts and work-life balance?*

Hypothesis 1a tested the relationship between supervisor support and PWD. It was not supported by the results ( $\beta = -.009$ ,  $p > .05$ ) shown in Table 7.20 (see Chapter 7). This can be justified in line with previous findings that unsupportive supervisors have the ability to countervail the desired effects of work-life benefits and policies (Kossek, 2005). Supervisor support may not help to ease employees' work demand. The use of formal supports in addition to supervisor support does not have any significant impact on an employee's work demands if the culture is not supportive (Allen, 2001; O'Driscoll et al., 2003; Thompson et al., 1999). Furthermore, the general lack of a comprehensive measurement of 'supervisor support' may have attributed to the failure to support Hypothesis 1a.

Hypothesis 1b tested the relationship between supervisor support and PFD. This was supported by the results ( $\beta = -.152$ ,  $p < .05$ ), which were consistent with previous findings suggesting that supervisor support demonstrates understanding and empathy towards employees' family demands. It boosts an individual's psychological resources to deal with related stress stemming from the family domain, thus reducing conflict (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Supervisor support pertaining to family is expected to be a more psychologically and functionally useful resource while managing work-family demands than general workplace social support (Kossek et al., 2011). It is further reported that employees enjoying greater support from their supervisors in dealing with family issues should be less likely to experience work interfering in their daily home life, even when job demands are high.

Hypothesis 1c tested the relationship between supervisor support and WFC. This was supported by the results ( $\beta = -.294$ ,  $p < .001$ ). This is consistent with past studies, which indicates that supervisor support is negatively related to work-family conflict (e.g. Kossek et al., 2011; Lapierre & Allen, 2006). It is argued that having a supportive supervisor encourages employees to utilise family-friendly benefits without fear of being penalised, which helps reduce work-family conflict (Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999). By nurturing a family-friendly environment in which employees do not assume that attending to home demands signifies a resource loss at work, work-family conflict should be reduced (Kossek, Colquitt, & Noe, 2001;

Lobel & Kossek, 1996). Supporting this argument, Behson (2005) demonstrated that supervisor support is a more important predictor than formal support (i.e. organisational initiatives).

Hypothesis 1d tested the relationship between supervisor support and FWC. This was supported by the results ( $\beta = -.246, p < .01$ ). Supervisor support works as a supplier of resources (e.g. energy, time) to the employees, which helps them not to be affected through resource drain, because they are capable of drawing upon a solid reservoir within themselves. Subsequently, this helps employees to hold back stresses stemming from family–work conflicts. Furthermore, higher levels of supervisor support have been reported to reduce family-to-work conflict (Sieger & Wiese, 2009; Ayman & Antani, 2008). This would lead to an increased level of WLB for employees.

Hypothesis 1e tested the relationship between supervisor support and WLB. This was supported by the results ( $\beta = .370, p < .001$ ). Research consistently shows that employees who perceive their organisation as family-supportive report more work–life balance (e.g. Allen, 2001; Booth & Matthews, 2012; Kossek et al., 2011). Supervisor support in the workplace was also shown to be a crucial contextual resource to help employees accomplish greater WLB (Aryee et al., 2005; Ferguson et al., 2012; Greenhaus et al., 2012). Employees can meet their work and non-work responsibilities successfully as a result of support from supervisors in the workplace (Hammer et al., 2009). Supervisors support can nurture optimal psychological and environmental conditions for employees who then feel safer and more able to invest in activities that promote enhanced WLB.

### **8.3.2 Research Question 2**

*How is perceived work and family demand related to work–family conflict and family–work conflict?*

Hypothesis 2a tested the relationship between PWD and WFC. This was supported by the results ( $\beta = .470, p < .001$ ). It is also argued that the more an individual devotes themselves to the work role, the greater the possibility they may bring work problems home, and the bigger the WFC (Zhang & Liu, 2011). So, high devotion to work negatively impacts on family life, resulting in WFC. Studies further found that more conflict, pressure and stress at work were related to WFC (Carlson, 1999;

Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Fox & Dwyer, 1999; Greenhaus, Bedeian, & Mossholder, 1987; Greenhaus et al., 1987; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Shamir, 1983; Wallace, 1997). Past research reported the characteristics of the work domain as a predictor of WFC. Research also suggests that unpredictability in the work routine promotes WFC, given that work variability (Fox & Dwyer, 1999) and working weekends or rotating shifts (Shamir, 1983) both relate to higher conflict. Those who are troubled by a sense of inequity in rewards at work (Greenhaus et al., 1987), experience abusive supervision (Tepper, 2000), or have a profit-driven focus (Wallace, 1997) also tend to report higher WFC. Being self-employed is also related to a range of work–family outcomes including greater parental demands, WFC and job satisfaction, as well as lower family satisfaction (Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). Similarly, Hypothesis 2b tested the relationship between PFD and FWC. This was supported by the results ( $\beta = .564, p < .001$ ). A high involvement in family-related matters can induce intervention in the workplace that may lead to FWC. Furthermore, conflict arises when participation in one role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in another role (Jansen et al., 2003).

### **8.3.3 Research Question 3**

*Does work–family conflict and family–work conflict influence each other?*

Hypothesis 3a tested the relationship between WFC and FWC. This was supported by the results ( $\beta = .458, p < .001$ ). When employees face conflict in work, it interferes with demands for their participation in the family; thus one domain unavoidably affects the other (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). It is also difficult for individuals to meet demands in both life spheres, causing a depletion of resources (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). This is in line with role theory as explained by several researchers (e.g. Geurts et al., 2003; Luk & Shaffer, 2005; Slatten, 2008; Spector et al., 2004). Role theory postulates that multiple roles (e.g. work or family domain) lead to role stress, and this stress results in strain. Specifically, expectations associated with work and family roles can lead to physical and psychological strain in two ways. Firstly, role expectations can lead to role overload within the work or family domain. Secondly, expectations surrounding either of these roles can evoke pressures that dominate the time of an individual and interfere with expectations associated with the performance of the other role.

Hypothesis 3b tested the relationship between FWC and WFC. This was supported by the results ( $\beta = .482, p < .001$ ) shown in Table 7.20. In supporting the theory (COR), it can be argued that the demand of the family domain requires the reallocation of resources that take an individual away from other obligations and priorities (Shaffer et al., 2001). Individuals have a limited amount of time in a day to meet family demands, and that constrains the amount of time they have to meet obligations for work. In supporting this, several researchers used the scarcity theory (e.g. Aryee et al., 2005; Aycan & Eskin, 2005; De Luis et al., 2004b; Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Lyness & Judiesch, 2008; Skitmore & Abmad, 2003) to explain inputs to the work–life interface. This entails that people with a greater number of family roles are more likely to deplete their resources for work, resulting in role overload or role conflict. Active participation in non-work domains such as family, community and recreation have been viewed historically as reducing the time available for work, as well as affecting individuals’ feelings of commitment to their jobs (Goode, 1960). Furthermore, the strain derived from conflicts with colleagues is likely to transfer to the home domain (e.g. spillover) and conflicts at home affect the employee’s work role (Sanz-Vergel, Rodríguez-Muñoz, & Nielsen, 2014). In their analysis employing structural equation modelling with a sample from the United States, Frone and colleagues (1992) found a positive reciprocal relationship between work–family conflict and family–work conflict: each affected the other simultaneously.

#### **8.3.4 Research Question 4**

*Does work–family conflict and family–work conflict affect work–life balance?*

Hypothesis 4a tested the relationship between WFC and WLB. This was supported by the results ( $\beta = -.563, p < .001$ ). Similarly, Hypothesis 4b tested the relationship between FWC and WLB. This was supported by the results ( $\beta = -.087, p < .05$ ) shown in Table 7.20. It is reported that employees experience WLB when they are effective and satisfied in those parts of their lives that are salient to them (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). Employees also have to have equal balance in both work and life domains to experience WLB. It is argued that the factors that promote effectiveness and satisfaction in the work and family domains enhance feelings of balance for employees, whereas factors that inhibit effectiveness and satisfaction in work and

family domains weaken feelings of WLB. Therefore, WFC causes someone to have WLB or not. When conflict occurs due to work interfering with family life (WIF) performance and satisfaction in the family role is compromised, and when conflict occurs due to family interfering with work (FIW), performance and satisfaction in the work role is weakened (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Thus WIF and FIW dampen performance and satisfaction in the work and/or family domains, and both directions of conflict are negatively related to feelings of WLB.

### **8.3.5 Research Question 5**

*How does work–life balance influence employees’ attitudes?*

Hypothesis 5a tested the relationship between WLB and JS. This was supported by the results ( $\beta = .485, p < .001$ ). This suggests that balanced employees will be more satisfied with their job when offered WLB practices (Nelson et al., 1990; Scandura & Lankau 1997; Hughes & Bozionelos, 2007). Researchers have emphasised that employees are increasingly demanding WLB initiatives (e.g. flextime, job sharing, part-time work, telework, child or elder care) due to prevalence of dual career couples, family or dependent responsibilities, or wanting to spend time with friends or enjoy leisure activities (Lavoie, 2004). Consequently, companies that implement WLB practices are expected to have more satisfied employees. It is contended that individuals who experience WLB may be more satisfied with their job and life ‘because they are participating in role activities that are salient to them’ (Greenhaus et al., 2003, p. 515).

Hypothesis 5b tested the relationship between WLB and LS. This was supported by the results ( $\beta = .523, p < .001$ ). This was consistent with previous studies stating that employers offering, and employees using, WLB practices increased employees’ life satisfaction (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Allen, Herst, Bruch & Sutton, 2000). Extant research shows that people who perceive balance between their work and life roles tend to be more satisfied with their life and report better physical and mental health (Brough et al., 2014; Carlson et al., 2009; Greenhaus et al., 2003; Ferguson, Carlson, Zivnuska, & Whitten, 2012; Haar, 2013; Lunau, Bambra, Eikemo, van der Wel, & Dragano, 2014). It is believed that balanced individuals may be mentally healthier because they experience a sense of harmony in life and optimal psycho-physiological conditions which enable them to meet the long-term demands of work and non-work



roles (Greenhaus et al., 2003). This may lead them to be less apprehensive about their abilities to conciliate work and non-work commitments and also less prone to develop ruminating thoughts.

Hypothesis 5c tested the relationship between WLB and OC. This was supported by the results ( $\beta = .426, p < .001$ ). This is consistent with the previous findings that WLB has a positive effect on employees' level of commitment to their organisations (Casper et al., 2011; Must et al., 2008). It is because the experience of work-life balance generates feelings of loyalty to the organisation. This commitment engenders an emotional attachment to the organisation, which can cause employees to remain with the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1996). Further, employees become strongly attached to their organisation when their needs and expectations are satisfied (Meyer et al., 1993), and balanced employees reported high levels of commitment to the organisation. Lambert (2000) found that workers' experiences with family-friendly benefits (as part of WLB) fostered organisational citizenship behaviours, suggesting that workers feel obligated to exert 'extra' effort in return for 'extra' benefits. It is suggested that if employees perceive that they are being cared for through the provision of family-friendly programs (e.g. child care, flexible work arrangements), they will conclude that the organisation is treating them well, and will feel obligated to reciprocate by becoming more committed to the organisation. Other researchers (e.g. Grover & Crooker, 1995; Halpern, 2005; Kossek, Colquitt, & Noe, 2001) also found that employee commitment was enhanced when organisations provided work-friendly programs to help employees fulfil family and non-work responsibilities.

In addition to the above discussion, several researchers' argue that high WLB leads to positive outcomes including job satisfaction, job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour (Carlson et al., 2013; Marks & MacDermid, 1996; Voydanoff, 2005). Part of the reason could be that attitudes give rise to emotional responses and energise and direct behaviour (Eagly & Chaiken, 1984). People who hold favourable evaluations of an attitude object engage in behaviours that 'approach, support, or enhance the attitude object' (Eagly & Chaiken, 1984, p. 155) or increase positive feelings (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), whereas those with unfavourable evaluations engage in behaviours that 'avoid, oppose, or hinder the attitude object' (Eagly & Chaiken, 1984, p. 155) or reduce negative feelings (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). According to Eagly and Chaiken (1984), positive attitudes toward one attitude object

(e.g. satisfaction with integration across work and family) relate to emotional responses toward similar classes of attitude objects (e.g. satisfaction within work and family). Similarly, greater balance satisfaction should relate to other positive feelings and cognitions toward one's organisation (e.g. commitment and fewer intentions to quit).

### **8.3.6 Research Question 6**

*Does employees' attitude influence job performance?*

Hypothesis 6a tested the relationship between JS and JP. This was supported by the results ( $\beta = .148, p < .05$ ). Increasing employee job satisfaction will have a positive effect on job performance (Fisher, 2003). Job satisfaction and job performance relationship is grounded by the fact that the attitude leads to behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Empirical research reported the association between JS and JP (Wright, Corponzano, & Bonett, 2007). Past researchers have found a positive correlation between employees' job satisfaction and organisational performance (Chan, Gee, & Steiner, 2000; Ellinger, Ellinger, Yang, & Howton, 2002; Huselid, 1995; Koys, 2001; Latif et al., 2015; Mafini & Poee, 2013).

Hypothesis 6b tested the relationship between LS and JP. This was supported by the results ( $\beta = .133, p < .05$ ). In the light of expectancy theory, goal-setting theory, and attribution theory, past researchers concluded that each theory predicts that a positive mood is related to motivation across a wide range of situations, which in turn influences job performance over time (Wright & Staw, 1999).

Hypothesis 6c tested the relationship between OC and JP. This was supported by the results ( $\beta = .202, p < .01$ ). Employees with strong affective commitment are willing to exert great effort for the organisation and this results in increased job performance (Meyer et al., 1989). Similarly, commitment was reported to be correlated with performance (Moorman et al., 1993; Mayer & Schoorman, 1992). Overall commitment to supervisors was more strongly associated with job performance than was overall commitment to organisations (Becker et al., 1996). Predictors as Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment, and Life Satisfaction have been found relatively weak but significant associations and this is consistent to previous research that if resources (e.g., individual ability, time, money, marital and social status, etc.) are not supplied by organizations to assist individuals in managing work and family

domains, the potential for negative outcomes exists through perceptions of increased conflict, specifically increased work–family conflict (Odle-Dusseau, Britt, & Greene-Shortridge, 2012).

### **8.3.7 Research Question 7**

*Does work–life balance relate to employees' job performance?*

Hypothesis 7 tested the relationship between WLB and JP. This was supported by the results ( $\beta = .269, p < .001$ ). Past empirical studies show that the experience of work–life balance is positively related to employee performance (e.g. Harrington & Ladge, 2009; Parkes & Langford, 2008). Several researchers argue that the work–life balance allows individuals to experience psychological well-being and harmony, which helps employees to concentrate on their work and yields a better performance in the workplace (Magnini, 2009). In the same vein, employees having a balanced work–life can augment their in-role performance and extra-role performance (Netemeyer, Maxham, & Pullig, 2005).

It is also argued that job performance can be enhanced if the organisations share an interest in employees' family role while taking part in their work role (Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012). This creates a benign culture that enables employees to engage more with the organisation. Results further revealed that a climate of sharing in the work domain positively predicted self-reported job performance. Several researchers reported that a positive culture of sharing family roles in the workplace results in positive behaviour from the employee. One of the overarching issues to note is that if employees are able to manage work and family domains, they can perform well in the work domain. Past researchers have provided support for the positive effects of organisational work–family resources on performance. Several studies indicated a positive link between work–family human resources practices and job performance (Perry-Smith & Blum 2000; Konrad & Mangel, 2000; Kossek & Nichol, 1992; Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton, 2006). As such there is evidence for positive influence on employee job performance when these formal organisational work–family resources are available.

## 8.4 Implications

The presence of limited conceptually based measure provides researchers and practitioners with little opportunity to document employees' level of work–life balance, and impairs the ability to identify and evaluate viable organisational strategies for promoting work–life balance (Wayne, Butts, Casper, & Allen, 2015). The present research is in response to a call that work–life balance is much needed to assist employees to find equilibrium in their work and family lives, especially in the Australian financial sector. It is justifiable to control work–family conflict to promote work–life balance that would uphold employees' positive attitudes needed to enhance their performance. Further, the presence of limited psychometrically sound measure of work–life balance is a significant barrier to determining the relevance of work–life balance and its concepts to individuals and organisations (Carlson et al., 2009).

Past studies widely investigated the impacts of work–life balance and its influence on employees' attitudes and their performance, but not through the indirect mechanism where the effects could have been different. This has been addressed in the present study. The results can help managers understand the conditions in which supervisor support affects WLB through demands and conflicts, and how WLB affects employees' performance through job satisfaction, life satisfaction and organisational commitment. The findings have meaningful implications for managers, especially in the financial sector where limited research has focused on the antecedents and the outcomes of work–life balance. The findings are relevant, as they explain how the antecedents, including SS, PWD, PFD, WFC and FWC, are linked to WLB, and how WLB is related to employees' attitudes (e.g. JS, LS and OC) and their performance.

The findings reported above are particularly relevant for employees working in the financial sector in Australia, which has been reported to be notorious (e.g., absenteeism, stress, staff turnover) in recent times. When employees struggle to manage competing demands from work and family and have little formal support from the organisations, the unofficial support provided by their supervisors becomes more important to them. The results indicate that supervisor support negatively influences PFD, WFC and FWC, and positively influences WLB. Similarly, WLB was positively related to JS, LS, OC and JP. As work, life and family are intertwined,

the roles employees need to play in either domain are unavoidable. Managers in the financial sector need to recognise the extent and intensity of the relationships within the variables reported in the research. This would enable them to deal effectively with work–life issues as they influence the performance of their organisation.

Supervisor support is important because it is associated with WLB outcomes including job attitudes and job performance of employees. The results suggest that supervisor support can help reduce employees' demands and conflicts arising from both work and family domains in order to enhance WLB. In the same vein, supervisors can guide employees through job satisfaction, life satisfaction and organisational commitment to promote their performance. Organisational managers are becoming more aware of the importance of work–life balance in their workforce, and research supports their efforts to invest in improving positive links between work and life domains. This subsequently helps employees to develop job related skills and coping strategies, build employee networks, and create opportunities for success and empowerment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Hill et al., 2007). As the present research reveals, supervisor support, along with WLB and positive attitudes of employees, will have the greatest impact on job performance. These findings clearly have implications for financial organisations that wish to foster a culture that values work–life balance as it is related to their daily life. In particular, financial organisations may need to fine-tune their current policy in relation to work–life balance and to pay closer attention to the future needs of employees, as it is their aim to maximise job performance through work-life balance.

Improved planning and coordinating of tasks and resources, by both supervisors and employees, could reduce daily workload (Goh et al., 2015). Encouraging supervisors to discuss and accommodate employees work and family concerns can specifically weaken the positive influence of workload on employees' conflict experiences at home after work. Having formal organizational policies might be costly and less effective than building a family-supportive organizational culture by means of inculcating family-supportive attitudes and behaviors in supervisors. In fact, the literature indicates that family-supportive informal support seems to be a necessary condition, as compared to formal policies or general support in promoting work–life balance (Kossek et al., 2011).

## **Abbreviations used in Chapter 9**

FWC: Family-Work Conflict

JP: Job Performance

JS: Job Satisfaction

LS: Life Satisfaction

OC: Organisational Commitment

PFD: Perceived Family Demand

PWD: Perceived Work Demand

SS: Supervisor Support

WFC: Work–Family Conflict

WLB: Work-Life Balance

## **Chapter 9 Conclusion**

### **9.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter covers the discussion based on qualitative and quantitative findings, and implications of the study. This chapter discusses the study's contribution to the theory, its limitations, and the need for future research on work–life balance in the context of the Australian financial sector.

### **9.2 Contribution to the Theory**

In supporting past study, researchers must now redefine WLB in situational terms through the lived experience to develop and agree measures that respond to the situational definition to have a baseline for comparative analysis of WLB initiatives to replicate in other allied sectors similar to financial industry (Reiter, 2007). This practical approach to WLB that keeps the values, needs, and desires of the target audience in focus will provide a clearer way forward to understand what factors contribute to the attainment of WLB for particular groups.

Past studies have investigated a number of predictors of WLB (e.g. social support, organisational resources), but the influence of antecedents (e.g. supervisor support, work and family demands and work–family conflicts) on WLB and its subsequent effects on employees' attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction, life satisfaction and organisational commitment) and job performance has not been fully examined. The present study has addressed these research gaps by applying a mixed methods approach. In doing so, the study has strived to ease the conceptual clarity of work–life balance being experienced by employees and supervisors; and also to test a comprehensive model that reported significant relations between the antecedents and outcomes of WLB of employees working in the financial sector. Hence, the research has extended existing knowledge.

In spite of increasing interest from research and practice in WLB, little is known about the underlying behavioural processes, the antecedents, and the consequences of the construct (Hammer et al., 2009; Hopkins, 2005; Kossek et al., 2010). In this

study, a multilevel conceptual framework is tested that explores and advances understanding of the complex mechanism of WLB. The study extends the findings by identifying the mechanism by which supervisor support promotes WLB through demands and conflicts from work and family roles. It also shows how WLB influences JS, LS and OC and the JP. In relation to this, WLB is improved as a result of support received from supervisors through PFD, WFC, and FWC. Continued research along these lines is needed to fully understand the conditions that promote employee work–life balance which would impact their JP. The interactive effect showed some significant findings, specifically that supervisor support does not have any effect on PWD. By contrast, supervisor support was negatively related to PFD, WFC and FWC. Further, WLB was positively related to JS, LS and OC and JP. Consistent with previous studies, the results received strong support when supervisor support was an informal workplace practice, not a formal one, offering a more flexible, personalised response to the individual trying to balance work and life demands (Wayne et al., 2006). To my knowledge, no other studies in the Australian financial sector have reported the complex and detailed mechanism between supervisor support, work-life balance, individual attitudes and job performance, making this finding significant.

### **9.3 Limitations**

The present research initially sought to investigate cross-cultural differences on work–life balance, but data inaccessibility, limited time and budget did not allow the researcher to do so and eventually the research was conducted only in Australia. The method followed in the first stage had few limitations as it fulfilled its purpose of exploring the conceptualisation of work–life balance and developing relevant constructs for a survey questionnaire. One of the limitations was the use of ‘purposive sampling’, which resulted in a small number of participants ( $n=14$ ). As established during the collection of data, no new insights were gained after interviewing 14 participants. It is likely that data saturation occurred sooner in this study because of the focused nature of the research question; the interviews had a basic structure addressing similar focus areas, and the participants were a relatively homogenous group (Johnson, 1998; Guest, Bunce & Johnson, 2006). It is also important to note that although there are no published guidelines for estimating the



sample size to reach data saturation (Guest et al., 2006), there is a general consensus that if the research objective is to describe a shared experience among a relatively homogenous group, then a sample of six to 12 interviews will likely be sufficient (Nielsen & Landauer, 1993; Morse, 1995; Johnson, 1998; Guest et al., 2006). Another limitation was that most of the participants were recruited from the Sydney Metropolitan Area, which does not represent the entire nation. Further, only participants fluent with the English language were recruited for the in-depth interviews. The involvement of participants from non-English-speaking backgrounds (NESB) could have highlighted cultural challenges being faced by the participants. However, as mentioned earlier, due to the nature of the interviews and logistic difficulties obtaining interpreters, the involvement of NESB participants was beyond the scope of this study. Nevertheless, the qualitative interviews resulted in rich narratives of the participants' lived experiences of work–life balance.

It is to be noted that instrumental support was not considered to measure supervisor support in study 2. Due to this, supervisor support may not gain support to perceived work demand. This may change the interpretation in a way that despite the existence of supervisor support, demand for work in the workplace should reduce that would lead to balanced work and life. In future, using full measurement scales could enable researchers and practitioners to make informed decision to mitigate work-life imbalances. With regard to quantitative data analysis, the research used the standard estimation method in SEM with maximum likelihood (ML) estimation where a smaller sample size is needed. An ideal sample size in SEM is about 200 (Shah & Goldstein, 2006), which may be adequate for analysing a CFA. Hence, the sample size of 305 can be justified. Moreover, a larger sample size may be needed when a method other than ML estimation is used or distributions are severely non-normal (Kline, 2010). Survey data were collected through an online panel, due to the numerous advantages of this method as reported by the researchers (Couper, 2000; Couper, Traugott, & Lamias, 2001). The low response rate is one of the concerns that the researcher needed to consider, as previous research found that a low response rate of around 11% is common in web survey comparing to other modes (Manfreda et al., 2008; Fan & Yan, 2010).

Survey data was collected from a single source (the financial sector), and from Sydney, therefore conclusions may carry less weight than those triangulated from

multiple sources and across the nation. All of the variables were self-reported at only one time period, leaving the data subject to an array of response biases, most notably self-presentation. Consistent with past research, steps were taken to reduce single-source bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The cross-sectional nature of the data being used does not allow testing temporal relationships. Although the order of variables was theoretically based, one cannot rule out alternative causal directions such as the possibility that both employees' attitudes and performance may lead to WLB. The model denotes a complex process that unfolds over time. The study is a step in understanding the interactive process of antecedents and outcomes of WLB. Future research can test the model using data collected at different points in time (e.g. longitudinal) so that temporal precedence can be recognised. In addition, the non-experimental nature of the study prohibits the direct investigation of causality. Systematic replication of this study across different samples and using different measures would be useful for generalising the results of the study and mitigating its limitations. Another limitation is that the study did not perform multi group analysis which could have produced different results while considering either single or multiple demographic variables. Caution should be used in interpreting results given the larger group could be driving results. Future research considering other variables (e.g. work–family enrichment, enhancement) while collecting larger samples would reflect population proportions to increase generalisability across industries.

#### **9.4 Future Research**

The results of this study suggest several additional avenues for future research. Further detailed analyses on the different dimensions of supervisor support (e.g. FSOP, FSSB) may provide insight into when supervisor support is most effective in assisting employees to elevate their performance. Additional research is also necessary to enhance the internal and external validity of the present findings. As noted earlier, longitudinal designs can help rule out alternative causal explanations imposed by the cross-sectional design. The use of multiple sources of data on variables such as family-supportive supervision (e.g. supervisors) and work–family conflict (e.g. spouses) would help allay concerns regarding common method variance, although the interactions observed were not the result of a common method

(Evans, 1985). Utilising the same source in examining the interactive effects should actually deflate the results (Siemsen, Roth, & Oliveira, 2010).

The study has provided a step in the direction proposed in the model, and future research might benefit from looking at it in a more integrated fashion. Past research found that WLB explains variances beyond that explained by traditional measures of work–life enrichment with respect to outcomes such as job satisfaction and family satisfaction (Carlson et al., 2009). Thus, exploring balance along with enrichment may yield greater understanding of how each of these factors influences outcomes important to organisations, employees and families. Systematic examination of enrichment, and its relationship to JP, could assist understanding that these do not operate as different sides of the same coin but require new theories and perspectives. The current research also recommends exploring the comparison of similarities and differences of opinions and perceptions on work-life balance between managers and employees in future.

## **9.5 Conclusion**

Despite tremendous progress made in implementing work–life balance policies and programs over the past two decades, especially in leading companies, we still face a significant challenge to institutionalise this new way of working and managing the workforce (Harrington, & Ladge, 2009). Such deepening of organizational commitment will require viewing work–life balance as a cultural change endeavour to a much greater degree than what is being practised today. The current research has focused on the financial industry which is a very significant sector due to its importance and lack of limited research. The business case for work-life balance practices relies on their ability to enhance recruitment and retention, and increase work-life balance among employees (Beauregard & Henry, 2008). It makes intuitive sense that offering work-life balance practices would attract individuals to an organization, and using these practices would result in improved employee attitudes and behaviours within the organization. This is what the current research revisited through a mixed methods study in the finance sector in Australia. Work-life balance practices are often associated with improved organizational performance (Beauregard & Henry, 2008) as the current research has demonstrated. Making practices available to employees appears to give financial organisations a

competitive advantage in terms of recruitment, by enhancing perceptions of anticipated organizational support among job seekers (Casper & Buffardi, 2004).

The study explored the conceptualisation and lived experience of WLB of employees working in banks, followed by a detailed empirical investigation to address the relations between antecedents and outcomes of WLB of employees working in the Australian financial sector. The study tests and finds support for a model that considers direct and indirect relations between supervisor support and WLB through PWD, PFD, WFC, FWC, and between WLB and JS, LS and OC and JP. This research fills a gap primarily by building on the conservation of resources theory, scarcity theory, and role theories to examine the direct and indirect relations between supervisor support and WLB, and WLB and JS, LS and OC and JP. This allows the researcher to more fully answer the research questions, ‘What causes WLB’, and ‘how is WLB related to employees’ attitudes and job performance?’

The study presented both qualitative and quantitative data from the Australian financial sector. More importantly, a valid model can now identify the antecedents and outcomes of work–life balance. The findings can work as a springboard for organisations along with government and policy makers in various disciplines to determine the extent and intensity of relevant antecedents of work–life balance causing job performance.

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## Appendices

### Appendix 2.1: WLB definition and its limits postulated by scholars

Authors	Definition	Limits
Kofodimos (1993)	Work-life balance (WLB) is 'a satisfying, healthy, and productive life that includes work, play, and love...' (p.13).	Focuses satisfaction in work domain than life and not touching other dimensions of workplace.
Marks and MacDermid (1996)	Role balance is 'the tendency to become full engaged in the performance of every role in one's total role system, to approach every typical role and role partner with an attitude of attentiveness and care. Put differently, it is the practice of that even handed alertness known sometimes as mindfulness' (p.421).	Other factors stemming out from work and life might moderate someone's performance.
Clark (2000)	WLB is 'satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home with a minimum of role conflict' (p.349).	Does not cover other workplace constructs as commitment, performance etc.
Kirchmeyer (2000)	WLB as 'achieving satisfying experiences in all life domains and to do so requires personal resources such as energy, time, and commitment to be well distributed across domains' (p.81).	Does not say anything regarding work which is formidable.
Hill, Hawkins, Ferris, and Weitzman (2001)	WLB defined as 'the degree to which an individual is able to simultaneously balance the temporal, emotional and behavioural demands of both paid work and family responsibilities' (p.49).	Does not specify which aspects of three demands of temporal, emotional, and behavioural required to balance
Feldstead, Jewson, Phizacklea, and Walters (2002)	WLB can be defined as the 'ability, irrespective of age and gender, to find a life rhythm that allows individuals to combine their work with other responsibilities, activities or aspirations' (p.56).	Does not say anything in particular which responsibilities, activities, or aspirations of work and life required to balance
Rapoport, Bailyn, Fletcher, and Pruitt (2002)	Propose 'Work-personal life integration' instead of balance to encompass different parts of life and their integration depends on one's priorities, which not necessarily need to demand equal amount of personal resources (p.31).	Ignores other responsibilities which could stem out from many different sources as an individual gets along.
Greenhaus, Collins, and Shaw (2003)	WLB reflects an individual's orientation across different life roles, an inter-role phenomenon' (p.513).	Only covers life role than work role which is integrated to each other.

Frone (2003)	WLB is 'Low levels of conflict and high levels of inter-role facilitation represent work-family balance' (p.145).	Does not clearly indicate how to ensure low level of conflict in which domain, whether work or life
Bratton and Gold (2003)	WLB is to 'balance work and leisure/family activities' (p.442).	Does not say which aspects of work and life an individual needs to balance.
Batt and Valcour (2003)	WLB as having a measure of control over when, where and how one works as issues of perceived control over managing work and family demands are related to the notion of integrating the two (p.191)	Does not tell to what extent an individual trades-off between work and family.
Greenhaus and Allen (2006)	WLB is 'the extent to which an individual's effectiveness and satisfaction in work and family roles are compatible with the individual's life priorities' (p.10).	Focuses more on individual's life satisfaction while ignoring equal priorities to work.
Grzywacz and Carlson (2007)	WLB '...as accomplishment of role related expectations that are negotiated and shared between an individual and their role partners in the work and family domain (p.459).	Focuses more on individual's partner's role in work and family domain while undermining other priorities.
Fleetwood (2007)	'Work-life balance is about people having a measure of control over when, where and how they work (p.351).	Says only work while overshadowing life.
Lewis and Campbell (2007a)	WLB referred to combining paid work and unpaid family-work and leisure for all employees rather than just meeting family cares obligations and employer's expectations (p.5).	Does not say anything on workplace dimensions.
Kalliath and Brough (2008)	'Work-life balance is the individual perception that work and non-work activities are compatible and promote growth in accordance with an individual's current life priorities' (p.326).	Not clear whether an individual could incline more on life or work or both priorities to have growth in both domains.
Parkes and Langford (2008)	WLB defined as 'an individual's ability to meet their work and family commitments, as well as other non-work responsibilities and activities' (p. 267).	Says only commitment than other constructs.
Voydanoff (2008)	'Work-life balance is the global assessment that work and family resources are sufficient to meet work and family demands such that participation is effective in both domains' (p.48).	Says work and family resources but not specifying to what extent of which and what to undertake to balance.



## Appendix 2.2: List of relevant research undertaken in the area of WLB literature

Literature	Findings/Themes	Types of research
Talukder and Vickers (2014)	Explores the link between work–life balance and work performance	Conceptual
Talukder and Vickers (2014)	Examines the relationship between work–life balance and manager’s performance	Empirical N=100
Bagger and Li (2014)	Investigates the link between supervisory family support and employee outcome	Empirical N=225
Brough et al (2014)	Measures of work–life balance demonstrate robust psychometric properties and predicts relevant criterion variables	Empirical N=6983
Wayne, Casper, Matthews, and Allen(2013)	Family-supportive organisational perceptions relates to affective commitment	Empirical N=1506
Mills, Matthews, and Hennings (2014)	Examines how work-family supportive organisations and supervisors influence its outcomes	Empirical N=304
Allen, Johnson, Kiburz, and Shockley (2013)	Investigates the relationship between work–family conflict and national paid leave policies	Empirical N=643
Straub (2012)	Family supportive supervision as a prerequisite for effective work–family integration and employee well-being	Conceptual
Greenhaus, Ziegert, and Allen (2012)	Examines the relationships between family-supportive supervision and work–family balance	Empirical N=170
Odle-Dusseau, Britt, and Greene-Shortridge (2012)	Organisational resources predict job attitudes and supervisors performance	Empirical N=174
Masuda, McNall, and Tammy (2012)	Flexible work arrangements and their relationship with manager outcomes	Empirical N=3918
Shaffer, Harrison, Gilley, and Luk (2011)	Explores measurements, theories, antecedents, consequences and uniqueness of the work–family interface	Conceptual
Chang, McDonald, and Burton (2010)	Work-life balance research needs greater consistency between conceptualisation and operationalisation of measures	Conceptual N=225
Powell and Greenhaus (2010)	Effects of sex on work-to-family conflict and positive spillover	Empirical N=264
Carlson, Grzywacz, and Zivnuska (2009)	Explains variance beyond traditional measures of conflict and enrichment for employee outcomes	Empirical N=685
Kalliath and Brough (2008)	Reviews conceptualisations of work–life balance	Conceptual

Bardoel, De Cieri, and Santos (2008)	Reviews major themes and sub-themes of work life research between 2004 to 2007	Conceptual
Dex and Bond (2005)	Weekly hours of work is a primary determinant of work–life balance	Case study
Clark (2000)	Conceptualises the influence of work/family border theory on work/family balance	Conceptual

# Appendix 3.1 Ethics Approval

Locked Bag 1797  
Penrith NSW 2751 Australia  
Office of Research Services

ORS Reference: H10569



## HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

12 August 2014

Professor Margaret Heather Vickers  
School of Business

Dear Margaret Heather,

I wish to formally advise you that the Human Research Ethics Committee has approved your research proposal H10569 "Exploring Work Life Balance: The Lived Experience of Employees and Employers in Australia and Bangladesh", until 19 March 2017 with the provision of a progress report annually if over 12 months and a final report on completion.

### Conditions of Approval

1. A progress report will be due annually on the anniversary of your approval date.
2. A final report will be due at the expiration of your approval period as detailed in the approval letter.
3. Any amendments to the project must be approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee prior to the project continuing. Amendments must be requested using the HREC Amendment Request Form: [http://www.uws.edu.au/data/assets/pdf\\_file/0018/491130/HREC\\_Amendment\\_Request\\_Form.pdf](http://www.uws.edu.au/data/assets/pdf_file/0018/491130/HREC_Amendment_Request_Form.pdf)
4. Any serious or unexpected adverse events on participants must be reported to the Human Ethics Committee as a matter of priority.
5. Any unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project should also be reported to the Committee as a matter of priority
6. Consent forms are to be retained within the archives of the School or Research Institute and made available to the Committee upon request

Please quote the registration number and title as indicated above in the subject line on all future correspondence related to this project. All correspondence should be sent to the email address [humanethics@uws.edu.au](mailto:humanethics@uws.edu.au).

This protocol covers the following researchers:

**Margaret Heather Vickers, Aila Khan, A Talukder**

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "E. Deane".

Professor Elizabeth Deane  
Presiding Member,  
Human Researcher Ethics Committee

## Appendix 3.2 Flyer for Volunteers

**WESTERN SYDNEY**  
UNIVERSITY



### **Be a part of our study!**

We are looking for full-time employees and supervisors to participate in a study to explore the lived experiences of work–life balance.

The Western Sydney University is conducting a research study to explore conceptualisation, lived experiences, feelings and expectations of work–life balance of employees and supervisors who are working full-time in banks across Sydney, Australia.

### **Criteria for participation**

We are looking for full-time employees who:

- Work at least 30 hours a week;
- Age ranges between 18 to 65 years;
- Married;
- Two years work experience;
- Live in a capital city or metropolitan area;
- Fluent with the English language.

If you would like to be involved, please contact Mr. A K M Mominul Haque Talukder (PhD student), Tel: 9685 9194 or Email: [m.talukder@westernsydney.edu.au](mailto:m.talukder@westernsydney.edu.au)

(This study has been approved by the Western Sydney University, Human Research Ethics Committee # H10569)

## Appendix 3.3 Information for Participants

**WESTERN SYDNEY**  
UNIVERSITY



### **Exploring Work–life balance: The Lived Experience of Employees and Employers in Australia**

**Investigators:** Professor Margaret H Vickers, School of Business, Western Sydney University, Tel: 9685 9661; Dr. Aila M Khan, Lecturer (Marketing), School of Business, Western Sydney University, Tel: 9685 9873; Mr. A K M Mominul Haque Talukder: PhD student, Western Sydney University, Tel: 9685 9194.

Dear Participant

You are invited to participate in a study conducted by A K M Mominul Haque Talukder, a PhD student of the School of Business, Western Sydney University.

*What is the study about?*

The present research proposes that work and life systems though different are interconnected. Today's managers and professionals are not only working far more than previous generations, but are also experiencing the sting of reality, 'with work demands increasingly spilling into and overshadowing their family and personal life.' Changes in society have increased the number of individuals with significant responsibilities both at home and at work. Thus further inquiry is needed into the inter-dependencies between work and home life. The composition of the workforce has changed in recent years with an increasing proportion of employees having regular family responsibilities in addition to their work responsibilities. For many of these employees, the expectations resulting from participating in the work role and in the family role are often incompatible resulting in high levels of work-family conflict. These conflicting demands between the work role and the family role are considered to be a potential source of employee absenteeism, turnover, reduced productivity, as well as burnout or reduced levels of well-being at work. The present research will explore work–life paradigms, and the constructs of work–life balance affecting employee performance in organisations.

*What will I be asked to do?*

Participants will be requested to volunteer for the research project. The researcher will interview the participants to explore work–life issues in phase 1 and in phase 2 survey questionnaires will be distributed by a research agency.

*How much of my time will I need to give?*

- 30 to 60 minutes for interviews
- 15 to 20 minutes to fill in the questionnaires

*What specific benefits will I receive for participating?*

The research would strive to differentiate those employees and supervisors who might have low level of job satisfaction, life satisfaction, commitment and performance stemming from work-life conflicts. This would add value to the existing literature and would provide new knowledge for academics, employers and the business world in relations to work-life issues.

*Will the study involve any discomfort for me? If so, what will you do to rectify it?*

Participation in this study will be voluntary and confidential. In the event that participants become upset or anxious during interview then contact details of available local counselling services/helpline will be provided to all participants in both locations. Participants may withdraw at any stage without fear of disadvantage or penalty.

*Can I withdraw from the study?*

Participation is entirely voluntary and you are not obliged to be involved. If you do participate, you can withdraw at any time without giving any reason. If you do choose to withdraw, any information that you have supplied will remain confidential.

*Can I tell other people about the study?*

Yes, you can tell other people about the study by providing them with the chief investigator's contact details. They can contact the chief investigator to discuss their participation in the research project and obtain an information sheet.

*What if I have a complaint?*

This study has been approved by the Western Sydney University's Human Research Ethics Committee. The approval number is H10569. If you have any complaints or reservations about the ethical conduct of this research, you may contact the Ethics Committee through the Office of Research Services on Tel +61 2 4736 0229 Fax +61 2 4736 0013 or email [humanethics@wetsernsydney.edu.au](mailto:humanethics@wetsernsydney.edu.au)

Any issues you raise will be treated in confidence and investigated fully, and you will be informed of the outcome.

## Appendix 3.4 Participant Consent Form

**WESTERN SYDNEY**  
UNIVERSITY



### **Exploring Work–life balance: The Lived Experience of Employees and Employers in Australia**

**Investigators:** Professor Margaret H Vickers, School of Business, Western Sydney University, Tel: 9685 9661; Dr. Aila M Khan, Lecturer (Marketing), School of Business, Western Sydney University, Tel: 9685 9873; Mr. A K M Mominul Haque Talukder, PhD student, Western Sydney University, Tel: 9685 9194.

I have read and have understood the *Information sheet for participants*, and I consent to participate in this research project, which has been explained to me by

\_\_\_\_\_.

I understand that I am free to withdraw from this project at any time and this decision will not otherwise affect me at the Bank. I am aware and agree to the interview being recorded on audiotape.

Name of participant:

\_\_\_\_\_

Signature of participant: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature of participant: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature of participant: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_



## **Appendix 3.5 Demographic Details**

**WESTERN SYDNEY**  
UNIVERSITY



**Sex: Male/Female**

**Age:**

**Education:**

**Marital status:**

**No of children:**

**Position: Employee or supervisor**

**Employment status: Full-time or part-time**

**Tenure with current organisation:**

**Postcode:**

## Appendix 3.6 Focus Areas of Interview

**WESTERN SYDNEY**  
UNIVERSITY



The following focus areas will be used to guide the conversation with participants. Open ended questions will be used to probe participants about their lived experiences, feelings and expectations about each of the following areas. This is a guide only; discussions during interview will follow what participants want to talk about. The focus areas will be covered, but not necessarily in this order, and additional areas may also be discussed depending on what participants believe is important.

- Working long hours, its effect on individual life and family
- Taking work home and home into workplace, and the way it impacts
- Working late or weekends and its consequences on life and family
- Meeting role expectation in workplace, especially from supervisors, peers and subordinates
- Time for leisure during weekend, outings, spending time with family, children, and friends
- Satisfaction in job, performance and life satisfaction and the influencing drivers
- Work life/family conflict and family–work conflict and bi-directional effect
- Commitment to work and family and the way it is related to individual performance

## Appendix 6.1 Survey Questionnaire

Dear Participant:

I am a doctorate student of the *Western Sydney University* doing a survey for the partial fulfilment of my research project on 'Exploring Work-life balance: The Live Experience of Employees and Employers in Australia.' The study has been approved by the Western Sydney University Human Research Ethics Committee (H10569). Your response will be highly appreciated for this study. This information will be used only for research purposes and will not be disclosed elsewhere. Thank you for your cooperation in advance.

### BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Please tick (✓) the following boxes that match your current status.

SEX:

Male	Female
------	--------

AGE (in years):

<21	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-70	>70
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POSITION:

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MARITAL STATUS:

Married/Partnered/Cohabiting	Single
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PARENTAL RESPONSIBILITIES:

Has child or children age 18 or over	Doesn't
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JOB TENURE (in years):

<1	1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26-30	>30
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EDUCATIONAL LEVEL:

High School	Diploma/Certificate	Graduate	Postgraduate or above
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EMPLOYMENT STATUS:

Full-Time	Part-Time
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RESPONDENT'S POST CODE:

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PLEASE tick (√) your answer in the boxes consistent to the degree of your agreement.e.g. 1= strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3= slightly disagree; 4= neutral; 5= slightly agree; 6= agree; 7= strongly agree

Work–life balance (WLB)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
WLB_1. I have sufficient time away from my job at workplace to maintain adequate work and personal/family life balance.							
WLB_2. I currently have a good balance between the time I spend at work and the time I have available for non-work activities.							
WLB_3. I feel that the balance between my work demands and non-work activities is currently about right.							
WLB_4. I am able to negotiate and accomplish what is expected of me at work and in my family.							
WLB_5. I am able to accomplish the expectations that my supervisors and my family have for me.							
Perceived Family Demand (PFD)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PFD_1. I have to work hard on family-related activities.							
PFD_2. My family requires all of my attention.							
PFD_3. I feel like I have a lot of family demand.							
PFD_4. I have a lot of responsibility in my family.							
Perceived Work Demand (PWD)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
PWD_1. My job requires all of my attention.							
PWD_2. I feel like I have a lot of work demand.							
PWD_3. I feel like I have a lot to do at work.							
PWD_4. My work requires a lot from me.							
PWD_5. I am given a lot of work to do.							
Supervisor Support (SS)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SS_1. My supervisor understands my family demands.							
SS_2. My supervisor listens when I talk about my family.							
SS_3. My supervisor acknowledges that I have obligations as a family member.							
SS_4. My supervisor is a good role model for work and non-work balance.							
SS_5. My supervisor demonstrates how a person can jointly be successful on and off the job.							

Work–family Conflict (WFC)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
WFC_1. The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.							
WFC_2. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil family responsibilities.							
WFC_3. Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.							
WFC_4. My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties.							
WFC_5. Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.							
Family–work Conflict (FWC)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
FWC_1. The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities.							
FWC_2. I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.							
FWC_3. Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner.							
FWC_4. My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.							
FWC_5. Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.							
Job Satisfaction (JS)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
JS_1. My job is like a hobby to me.							
JS_2. My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.							
JS_3. I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.							
JS_4. I like my job better than the average worker does.							
JS_5. I find real enjoyment in my work.							
Life Satisfaction (LS)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
LS_1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.							
LS_2. The conditions of my life are excellent.							
LS_3. I am satisfied with my life.							
LS_4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.							
LS_5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.							

Organisational Commitment (OC)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
OC_1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organisation be successful.							
OC_2. I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for.							
OC_3. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organisation.							
OC_4. I find that my values and the organisation's values are very similar.							
OC_5. For me this is the best of all possible organisations for which to work.							
In Role Performance (IRP)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
IRP_1. I adequately complete assigned duties.							
IRP_2. I meet formal performance requirements of the job.							
IRP_3. I don't neglect aspects of the job that I am obligated to perform. (Reversed Coded)							
IRP_4. I fulfil responsibilities specified in the job description.							
IRP_5. I engage in activities that can positively affect my performance evaluation.							
IRP_6. I perform tasks that are expected of me.							
Extra Role Performance (ERP)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ERP_1. I can make constructive suggestions to the overall functioning of my work group.							
ERP_2. I encourage others to try new and more effective ways of doing their jobs.							
ERP_3. I am well informed where opinion might benefit the organisation.							
ERP_4. I continue to look for new ways to improve the effectiveness of my work.							

**Appendix 7.1 Results of Factor Analysis of all the constructs using  
PCA**

<b>Constructs and Items</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>1. Supervisor Support (SS)</b>											
SS_1	.971										
SS_3	.853										
SS_2	.818										
SS_4	.655										
SS_5	.640										
<b>2. Perceived Work Demand (PWD)</b>											
PWD_3		.952									
PWD_5		.923									
PWD_4		.841									
PWD_2		.822									
PWD_1		.715									
<b>3. Perceived Family Demand (PFD)</b>											
PFD_3			.889								
PFD_4			.789								
PFD_2			.671								
PFD_1			.625								
<b>4. Work-Family Conflict (WFC)</b>											
WFC_5				.910							
WFC_2				.824							
WFC_4				.813							
WFC_3				.779							
WFC_1				.751							
<b>5. Family-Work Conflict (FWC)</b>											
FWC_3					.981						
FWC_2					.892						
FWC_4					.886						
FWC_1					.830						
FWC_5					.825						
<b>6. Work-Life Balance (WLB)</b>											
WLB_2						.936					
WLB_1						.924					
WLB_3						.834					
WLB_5						.749					
WLB_4						.678					

<b>7. Job Satisfaction (JS)</b>										
JS_3						.891				
JS_4						.880				
JS_5						.816				
JS_2						.729				
JS_1						.561				
<b>8. Life Satisfaction (LS)</b>										
LS_1							.903			
LS_3							.886			
LS_4							.793			
LS_5							.773			
LS_2							.744			
<b>9. Organisational Commitment (OC)</b>										
OC_3								.933		
OC_5								.853		
OC_2								.811		
OC_4								.738		
OC_1								.574		
<b>10. In-Role Performance (IRP)</b>										
IRP_6									.987	
IRP_4									.967	
IRP_1									.919	
IRP_2									.896	
IRP_3									.703	
IRP_5									.501	
<b>11. Extra-Role Performance (ERP)</b>										
ERP_2										.866
ERP_4										.848
ERP_3										.707
ERP_1										.701



## Appendix 7.2 Correlations between latent variables of the study

Latent Variables	Correlations	Latent Variables	Correlations
WLB-JS	0.43	LS-OC	0.37
OC-WLB	0.38	OC-IRP	0.21
WLB-LS	0.47	WFC-PWD	0.49
WLB-WFC	-0.60	WFC-FWC	0.50
WLB-FWC	-0.26	JS-LS	0.52
WFC-PFD	0.35	OC-ERP	0.46
FWC-PFD	0.42	IRP-ERP	0.57
JS-OC	0.63	PWD-ERP	0.19
SS-WLB	0.51	SS-WFC	-0.32
WLB-IRP	0.35	WLB-ERP	0.33