KWAME NKRUMAH UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

COLLEGE OF ART AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

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DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES AND ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

THE EFFECTS OF ORGANISATIONAL WORK-LIFE BALANCE POLICIES ON EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT

BY

FELICITY ASIEDU-APPIAH (MRS.)

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES AND ORGANISATIONAL DEVELOPMENT, KWAME NKRUMAH UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work towards the PhD and that, to the best of my knowledge, it contains no material previously published by another person nor material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree of the University, except where due acknowledgment has been made in the text.

FELICITY ASIEDU-APPIAH   10th June 2015

Student's Name   **Signature**   **Date**

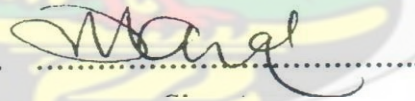**Certified by:**

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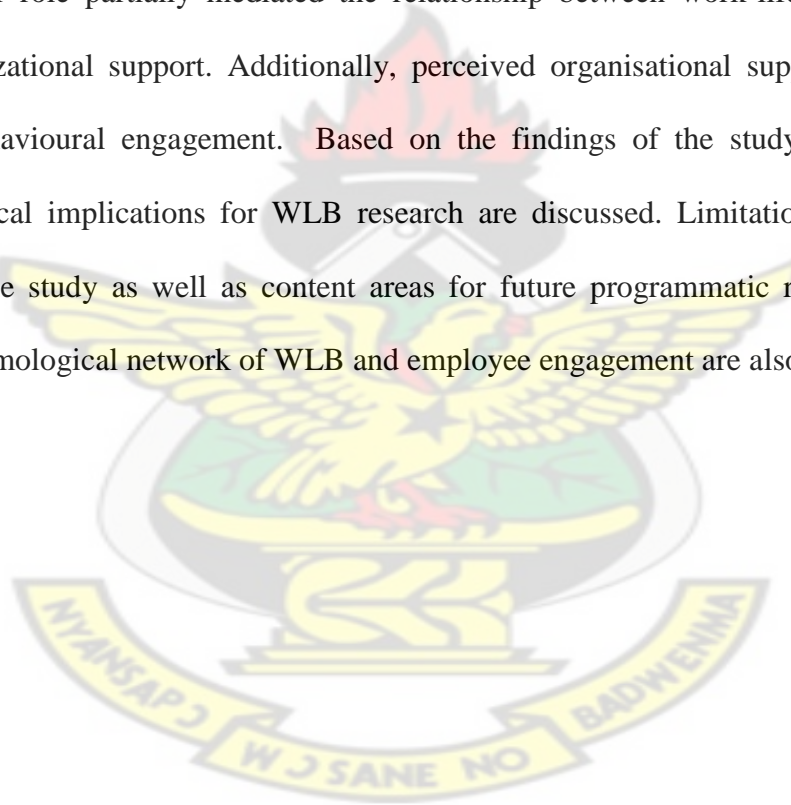
ABSTRACT

Underpinned by the boundary management theory, organisational support theory, role theory and other related theories, the study proposed and tested a multi-level model that simultaneously examined the intermediate linkages or mechanisms through which work-life balance (WLB) impact individual and organisational work-related outcomes. First and underpinned by boundary management theories, the study examined at the organisational level, collective employee awareness and usage of organizational WLB policies, as pathways through which the adoption and implementation of WLB policies influences collective experience of WLB at the organizational level. Second and, underpinned by organisational support (perceived organizational support) and social exchange (employee engagement) theories, the study examined cross level mechanisms through which experienced WLB may influence employee work-related attitude and behaviour such as cognitive engagement and perceived organisational support. At the individual level of the model, the study investigated the linkages between job resources and its potential outcomes such as work-life enrichment, perceived organizational support and behavioural engagement on the basis of organizational support theory, role and spill-over theories. Propositions made in this study were also tested with multisource data obtained from junior and senior staff, and managers of 30 organisations from the three major sectors of the Ghanaian economy. Results of the hierarchical multiple regression (HMR) analysis revealed that (i) collective employee awareness and usage of WLB policies influenced collective experience of WLB at the organisational level. Additionally, results of hierarchical linear modelling (HLM) tests of the cross-level influences on the motivational implications of WLB revealed that, collective awareness, usage and experience of WLB had positive and significant influence on perceived organizational support at the individual level. The result also indicates

that employees' collective experience of work-life balance (EWLB) significantly but negatively moderates the relationship between employee cognitive engagement and perceived organisational support (POS) such that at low levels of cognitive engagement, high EWLB influences POS more than low EWLB. Results from HMR analysis of level one hypotheses revealed that job resources led to work-life enrichment, perceived organizational support and behavioural engagement among employees. Employees' satisfaction with WLB policies partially mediated the relationship between job resources and employees' behavioural engagement, while traditional gender role partially mediated the relationship between work-life enrichment and perceived organizational support. Additionally, perceived organisational support had a direct influence on behavioural engagement. Based on the findings of the study, theoretical and managerial/practical implications for WLB research are discussed. Limitations related to the field-nature of the study as well as content areas for future programmatic research aimed at enhancing the nomological network of WLB and employee engagement are also discussed.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to God; for His love and tender mercies.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Since the beginning of creation, people have had to work to make ends meet for themselves and their families. In the past, they fulfilled their responsibilities through hunting and gathering. Men were always considered bread winners and so went out to hunt while their wives stayed at home as caretakers of the children and maintained the home. With the emergence of civilization, both men and women began to obtain formal education and formal employment which led to further changes in gender roles. One of the most significant changes in the labour market over the last three decades has been the dramatic increase in the participation of women in the labour force. This coupled with the increasing rate of divorce with its attendant single parent phenomenon and the desire of men to participate more in the nurturing of their children has led to satisfying but most times stressful experiences for working adults with non-work responsibilities (Wharton, 2012).

As a result, the work and non-work domains have come to represent sources of satisfaction as well as sources of stress as working men and women juggle between often conflicting demands and/or responsibilities from multiple life domains. This situation has been aggravated by the constant changes in the work environment due to globalisation which in turn has led to hyper competition at both local and international levels. In order for organisations to survive in this competitive environment, drives towards efficiency have led to the restructuring of jobs, leading to greater workload, very demanding targets, stricter deadlines, increased use of part-time, contract workers and a twenty-four hour-seven days are week work schedule, made possible by

technology and a workplace environment characterised by high job insecurity (Asiedu-Appiah et al, 2013). The effects of the associated stress experienced by employees is seen in lower levels of worker satisfaction and productivity, poor mental and physical health, and withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism and turn over intentions, as well as the wider impact on family through a negative spillover effect.

The desire for a quality of life that goes beyond job satisfaction and encompasses satisfaction and good functioning in other life or non-work domains has resulted in the concept of work-life balance becoming an important issue in recent debates in public discourse and a distinctive issue that needs to be addressed through research. Studies over the years have shown a desire for excellence in career that enhances the accomplishment of non-work roles rather than a career success that limits non-work role accomplishment. This is evidenced by Scase and Goffee (1989) who found that managers were less interested in the conventional career success that led to the subordination of non-work roles and were more interested in what Schein (1996) later referred to as lifestyle career anchor. This proposes that the primary career objectives among the employees surveyed was to integrate the requirements of their career with their personal and family needs in order to effectively accomplish role-related expectations and priorities in the multiple life domains in which they are engaged.

The desire for a life style career anchor or a career that helps one to integrate and effectively accomplish work and non-work demands is not only restricted to managerial staff but this desire has been found to be more pronounced and stronger among young employees than other groups of employees. Several studies in Europe and North America have shown evidence of this

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phenomenon to be stronger among young employees than those at the same age in previous generations (Loughlin and Barling, 2001; Lewis et al, 2002; Smola and Sutton, 2002). This is because young people in this generation seem to put more emphasis on their effective participation in non-work domains and thus wish to manage their domains to enable them live a balanced life.

The growing desire to live a balanced life seems to be thwarted by the long working hours that many employees in both developed and developing countries have to contend with. However, the culture of 'presenteeism' which suggests that an 'ideal worker' must come to work earlier than expected and be the last to leave has contributed to the increased stress and imbalance among employees. This culture has been partly attributed to restructuring in the form of downsizing and the consequent increase in workloads among those who remain in employment must contend (Asiedu-Appiah et al., 2013). There is also evidence that suggests an increase in work intensity in recent years (Wharton, 2012).

The work-life balance debate has also been going on in Africa and Ghana in particular. For example, Agyapong and Owusu-Ansah (2012) found that burnout among MBA part time students in Ghana was high and this was due to multiple-related factors. Also, Boohene, Ricky-Okine and Agyemang (2012) found that productivity depended on work-life balance policies available in Ghanaian organisations. Similar studies have found positive links between work-life balance and employee wellbeing on one hand and productivity on the other (Asiedu-Appiah et al, 2013; Ofori et al., 2013).

Work-life balance has been defined by Clark (2000) as "satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home with a minimum of role conflict" (751). This definition suggests that when work-life balance is characterized by the absence of unacceptable levels of interference between work and non-work demands (Greenblatt, 2002) such that demands from the work and non-work domains are mutually incompatible, conflict is likely to occur. Therefore, an absence of balance between work and non-work demands and resources is commonly conceptualized as work/family conflict or work/non-work conflict (Frone et al, 1997). Studies have shown that work-non work conflict has both individual level and organisational level consequences. At individual level, it negatively affects employee wellbeing which is characterised by stress and burnout. These in turn can lead to withdrawal behaviours such as a poor attitude to work characterised by lateness, absenteeism, turnover intentions, low levels of work engagement and poor perception of organisational support among employees. The organisation stands to suffer as these withdrawal behaviours can negatively influence work-related outcomes such as in-role and extra-role performance (Beauregard and Henry, 2009).

Aside individual and organisational outcomes of work-life conflict, the society also bears the negative consequences of work-life conflict. There is a growing concern that the quality of home and community life is deteriorating. Various explanations have been offered for this situation; affluence, urbanization, increased employment level of women, the growth of single parent families which is provoked by increasing rate of divorce, the restriction of familial relationships to immediate family (leading to the privatization of family life) resulting in a smaller pool of resources to buffer the effects of the burgeoning work-non work demands (Major and Burke, 2013). These factors can be seen at play in the urban societies where unparalleled proportions of

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women from all social classes are engaged in paid employment than ever before. This crisis is worsened in developing countries where traditional gender roles have not changed much and women as still expected by society to play their nurturing/unpaid role in addition to taking up paid employment. In addition, the pressures and demands of work reflected both in longer hours, more exhaustion and the growth of evening and weekend work schedules reduces "quality" family (non-work) time. The consequences include increases in juvenile delinquency and crime, more drug abuse, reduction in time spent in community participation and less willingness to take responsibility for care of elderly relatives and for the disadvantaged. While the interventions to address these concerns goes beyond the ambit of employing organisations, it is still plausible to argue that the ever increasing demands of the work domain plays a critical role in the work-life conflict experienced by many employees and therefore organisations must play a major role in helping employees better manage multiple demands and effectively participate in multiple role domains as dictated by the individual's life priorities and the society in which they live. For example, the inability of an employee to participate in non-work activities such as caring for a child or a sick parent due to work demands can lead to a stressful situation which is the emotional side effect of not feeling able to find enough time to do those things you know need to be done (Gardner et al., 2001). This can negatively affect the emotional wellbeing and work related attitudes and behaviours of employees. Hence organisations (especially in more developed countries) have over the years, developed and implemented WLB policies that are aimed at helping employees achieve satisfaction and good functioning (Clark, 2000).

More specifically, in developing countries, such WLB policies are hard to find in organizations (Ghana News Agency, 2011). This is because women's move into paid employment has been

relatively slower than in developed countries and this has been as a result of traditional socio-cultural norms of practices. This has led to a transition of gender inequality and gender roles away from traditional to modern gender role expectations, which has been observed to constitute cultural universals that affect the WLB of employees (Lee and Kanungo, 1984, Watanabe, Takahashi, and Minami, 1997). Therefore, the participation of women in paid employment has been hailed as a harbinger of changes in gender relations within the family, reflected in the term new families (Aryee, Srinivas and Tan, 2005). As a concept, new families describe family systems defined by three characteristics: (a) egalitarian norms of family relationships, (b) equitable distribution of domestic labour, and (c) shared decision-making patterns and gender-free perceptions. In her review of the evidence for the emergence of new families in terms of gender roles, domestic division of labour, and decision making, Bharat (2003) noted that working women and their spouses continue to regard breadwinning as essentially a man's job and home management as a woman's job (Bharat, 1995; Ramu, 1989). Hence, women continue to bear the burden of household responsibility regardless of their employment status (Bharat, 1992; Ramu, 1989). Despite evidence that men in dual-earner families have assumed household responsibilities for less taxing and masculine responsibilities, such as repairs and keeping monthly accounts (Bharat, 1992), Bharat (2003) concluded that the emergence of new families in developing countries like Ghana is a distant reality. Specifically, she noted that,

> while social, legal, and economic reforms have helped women in a small measure to join the work force, the continuing influence of normative attitudes and values have prevented them from altering society's and their own perceptions of sex roles and demands (Bharat, 2003, pp. 168 -169).

Although emergence of new families may be a distant reality in a developing country like

Ghana, the direction of the changes suggests that family relations are characterized by a coexistence of traditional and modern gender role expectations. Consequently, compared to the West, there will be similarities and differences in men's and women's experiences of the work–family interface.

Today, half of the workforce in Ghana are women (Ghana Statistical Service, 2000). This has increased the number of dual-earner families in Ghana and its attendant consequences of work-life conflict Nevertheless, studies in many developing countries as well as Ghana have shown, sociocultural barriers, such as gender discrimination and unbalanced roles between family and work, continue to keep women stagnating at lower management levels within their organisations (Sanda and Sackey 2010, Tlaiss and Kauser 2011). These sociocultural barriers are likely to emanate from the macho characterisation of the countries' sociocultural norms, which influence the structural design, and management of organisations. A gendered division of labour, with the wife caring for the family and the husband assuming the breadwinner role, is no longer a viable option for couples today.

In Ghana's sociocultural environment, women are regarded as supporters of their male counterparts. For the most part, women's childhood socialisation prepares them for motherhood, and, therefore, their roles are limited to taking care of the home, bearing children and engaging in small businesses (Sackey and Sanda 2009). Over the years in most developing countries, women have been made to believe that men are the primary decision makers, be it at home, or at the workplace. Accordingly, women have been culturally socialised to adopt certain behaviours and traits that drive them to fulfil assumed roles, such as their obligation to deal with domestic

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responsibilities, leaving the managerial positions to be filled by men (Sanda and Sackey 2010, Tlaiss and Kauser 2011). Therefore, most women in formal employment in Ghana have not reached the top of their organisation's hierarchy, because they stereotypically believe that some positions are the preserve of men (Sanda and Sackey 2010). However, the growing number of educated women in developing countries like Ghana who participate in the urban, organized, industrial sector in technical, professional, and managerial positions has been accompanied by a steady growth in dual-earner families (Komarraju, 1997). The changing workforce demographics have made it difficult for many individuals to balance the conflicting demands of work and family life.

A research finding by Sackey and Sanda (2009) has shown that the stress of carrying out two full-time jobs (in the labour force and at home) is wearing many employees (especially professional women) out. Yet, most Ghanaian organisations do not have flexible work arrangements for their employees. This assertion is confirmed by the General Secretary of Ghana Mineworkers Union who appealed to the government and employers to collaborate with the Trades Union Congress in promoting work-life balance (GNA, 2011). He said there should be joint efforts by government, employers and trade unions to work towards the ratification of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) Convention 156 (2011) that deals with workers with family responsibilities.

In Ghana, there is equal participation in employment between men and women. In other words, women form fifty percent (50%) of those in employment (Amu, 2005). However, a much higher concentration of women are found at the lower echelons of economic activity and are therefore

less likely to influence policy decisions in their favour. The participation of women at the lower levels of economic activity is explained partially by their low access to education and other economic resources that could enhance their economic performance. It may also be explained by their generally low self-esteem, which is attributable to the way females are socialized in the society (Amu, 2005).

In 2003, the Ghana Labour Act 651 was established to govern employer-employee relations in Ghana. Though Ghana is one of the many countries that have not ratified the ILO (workers with family responsibilities) Convention 156, the Act deals with general working conditions issues in various sections including Parts three, four and six. Some of the issues addressed in the Labour Act include but not limited to the worker's right to have rest, leisure and reasonable limitation of working hours and period of holidays with pay as well as remuneration for public holidays (Ghana Labour Act, 2003). Despite these provisions, most organisations do not implement even the minimum requirements of the Act. This can be attributed to the high unemployment rates over several decades, which have created an employers' market. For example, the minimum requirement of fifteen working days per year for annual leave is not adhered to by some private organisations in Ghana.

According to a study conducted by Gambles, Lewis and Rapoport, 2006, unlike developed countries where WLB issues are seriously dealt with and pragmatic steps are taken by management to ensure that employees achieve a high level of balance between work and family, most organisations in developing countries do not give any strategic importance to WLB issues. The study also revealed that only a few organisations in Ghana can boast of an effective WLB

policy. Even in such organisations, WLB policies are applied on a case by case basis and in an ad hoc manner leading to inconsistencies and arbitrariness. Also, in organisations where there are some form of WLB policy, most of the employees are unaware and/or unwilling to take advantage of such policies for fear that they may be labelled as lazy and uncommitted to their organisations. As a result, organisations in Ghana are yet to realise the full benefits of employee WLB policies (Asiedu-Appiah et al, 2013). This study will investigate the correlates and consequences of WLB in Ghana in the banking, health and telecom sectors of the economy.

1.2 Statement of the problem

The African traditional view of the male as breadwinner and the female as homemaker has been shifting over the years. This can be attributed to socio-cultural changes and economic conditions, which have resulted in both working men and women placing high value on both work and family roles (Greenhaus, Callanan, and Godshalk, 2009; Oheneba-Sakyi and Takyi, 2001; Mokomane, 2013). The demands of professional work and family/non-work responsibilities at home contemporaneous with limited resources, have led to stress, burnout and a sense of failure both at work and at home. This sense of failure can have deleterious consequences on employee and organizational work-related outcomes as well as on employee well-being (Bianchi and Milkie, 2010; Hoobler et al., 2009; Wierda-Boer, Gerris and Vermulst, 2008).

Consequently, a major focus in human resource management and organizational behaviour theory and practice in the past three decades has been the research into and adoption of family-friendly policies to assist employees to better manage their work and family/non-work responsibilities (Lobel and Kossek, 1996, Fleetwood, 2007, Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007). While

research has shown such work-life balance (WLB) policies to have important individual and organizational outcomes (Allis and O'Driscoll, 2008; Casper and Harris, 2008; Ilies et al., 2009), there is recognition that these WLB policies do not necessarily lead to expected organizational outcomes and employee wellbeing at all times due to the role of intervening mechanisms that either mediate or moderate the effect of WLB on employee and organizational outcomes (Aryee et al., 2013; Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007). Consequently, research focus has now shifted from the study of the relationship between WLB and organizational outcomes to the study of the intervening mechanisms underlying the relationship (Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008, Grawitch and Barber, 2010; Aryee et al, 2013). Although this research stream has enhanced our understanding of the effects of WLB policies on employee and organizational outcomes, answers to some pertinent questions still remain unclear.

First, while research has shown supportive aspects of the work environment to reduce deviant behaviours and promote employee and organizational outcomes (Baran, Shanock, and Miller, 2012; Ferris, Brown and Heller, 2009), more studies are need that explains how perceived organizational support (which, according to Eisenberger et al., (2002), is the assurance that assistance will be available from the organisation when it is needed to carry out one's job effectively and to deal with stressful situations) impacts the relationship between WLB policies and individual and organizational outcomes in developing countries such as Ghana. Second, although collective experience of WLB (EWLB) has been shown to be associated with positive job attitudes and behaviours no known research has investigated it as a moderating variable between employees' cognitive engagement and perceived organisational support as a cross-level interaction. Third, even though several research has been done to establish the negative effect of

job and family demands (Work-life Conflict) on employee-wellbeing, (Voydanoff, 2005; Wierda-Boer, Gerris and Vermulst, 2008; Culbertson, Mills and Fullagar, 2012; Schaufeli, Bakker and Rhenen, 2009), there is the need to expand knowledge on the positive effect of participation in both work and non-work domains, by examining how employee satisfaction with organisational WLB policies mediate the relationship between job resources and employee engagement. Fourth, although much WLB research has been grounded in role theories (which according to Katz and Kahn (1978), examines how individuals interpret social expectations about their life roles), it has not specifically examined the mediating role of traditional gender role of employees on the relationship between WLE and POS (Ahmad et al, 2013).

Although much is now known about these intermediate linkages, the extant literature has yielded only limited insights into the influence of the use of WLB on employee outcomes such as employee cognitive engagement (Robinson and Gifford, 2014; Kelly et al., 2008; Beauregard and Henry, 2009). This is particularly unfortunate, as human resource (HR) practices have been argued to influence employee attitudes and behaviour (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004). Although recent research has started to address this gap, it has focused predominantly on individual-level analysis (Aryee et al., 2013; Timms et al., 2014; Siu et al., 2010). Consequently, there is a need for multilevel research to examine WLB processes at the organisational level and how these processes simultaneously impact and influence work-related outcomes at the individual level of analysis (Major et al., 2013). This is particularly important if researchers and practitioners are to more accurately understand how and why individual and organizational influences shape the work-related effects of the use of WLB and thereby provide organizations and their managers with practical knowledge about how to use WLB policies effectively to create and sustain

competitive advantage. Further, although the relative dearth of WLB research in some of the sectors covered in the study has increasingly been addressed, much of this research has examined role stress theory (Work-Life Conflict) to account for the demonstrated influence of work-life interface on employee stress and burnout (Peeters et al., 2005; Hakanen and Schaufeli, 2012). This has resulted in a neglect to model the influence of engagement in the intermediate linkages between the use of WLB and its work-related outcomes (Robinson and Gifford, 2014; Timms et al., 2014). This is an important oversight, especially given the critical role of engagement in theorizations of the WLB–positive organisation behaviour relationship (Allen, 2001, Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). The design and findings of this research sought to address these gaps identified.

Therefore, the present study seeks to contribute to WLB research by proposing and testing a model of the mechanisms underlying the influence of organisational WLB policies on employee and organizational outcomes such as POS and employee engagement. Specifically, the study investigates how collective employee awareness of organisational WLB policies leads to the utilization of those policies at the organisational level and how that in-turn influence collective employees' experience of WLB at the organisational level and POS at the individual level of the organisation. The study also investigates how the availability of job resources (which can spillover to help family demands) leads work-life enrichment which also engenders employee engagement.

The study will contribute to the literature in four significant ways. First, by examining traditional gender roles as a mechanism that underpin the influence of WLE on its documented outcomes such as POS, the study will provide a more complete test of role theory by exploring the less

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researched effect of traditional gender roles on employees' POS (Blanch and Aluja, 2012; Perrone, Wright and Jackson, 2009). Furthermore, the study will extend previous research by proposing the demonstrated influence of job resources on employee work outcomes (Voydanoff, 2005) such as behavioural employee engagement. More generally, the study extends our understanding of the effects of WLB by using EWLB as a boundary condition or a moderator to test the relationship between cognitive employee engagement and POS (Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008; Culbertson, Mills and Fullagar, 2012). Finally, the study of the aforementioned mediating and moderating variables (which have not featured much in WLB studies) in studies using multi-level analysis in the African context (being a less researched context) will help push the frontiers of WLB theory and practice by developing a fuller understanding of WLB (Zoogah, 2008; Mokomane, 2013; Mordi, Mmieh and Ojo, 2013) .

1.3 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study are categorized into two; general objective and specific objectives.

1.3.1 General objective

The general objective of the study was to investigate the underlying mechanisms between the collective employee awareness of WLB policies and organisational and individual level outcomes in some selected Ghana.

1.3.2 Specific objectives

The study achieved the general objective in some selected organizations in Ghana through the following specific objectives:

1. To examine the effect of collective employee awareness and usage of organisational WLB policies on EWLB.

2. To investigate the cross-level effect of collective awareness and usage of WLB policies and EWLB on POS.

3. To evaluate the mediating role of collective usage on the relationship between collective awareness of WLB policies and EWLB.

4. To examine the cross-level moderating role of EWLB on the relationship between cognitive employee engagement and POS.

5. To study the direct and indirect relationships and the intervening mechanisms between job resources (JR) and WLE on POS and behavioural engagement at the individual level of the organisation.

1.4 Research questions

Based on the objectives above, the major question this research sought to answer was:

What are the mechanisms that intervene in the relationships between WLB and individual and organizational outcomes?

In order to answer this question, the study sought to find answers for the following specific research questions:

1. How does collective employee awareness and usage of organisational WLB policies affect EWLB?

2. What is the cross-level effect of collective awareness and usage of WLB policies and EWLB on POS?

3. How does the collective usage of WLB policies mediate the relationship between awareness and EWLB?

4. How does the cross-level moderating role of collective EWLB influence the relationship between POS and cognitive engagement?

5. What are the direct and indirect effects of job resources and WLE on POS and behavioural engagement at the individual level of the organisation?

1.5   Significance of the study
This section includes sections on the theoretical as well as the practical significance of the study.

1.5.1 Theoretical Significance

The study will contribute to the literature in four significant ways. First, by examining traditional gender roles as a mechanism that underpin the influence of WLB policies and practices on its documented outcomes, the study will provide a more complete test of role theory by exploring the less researched mediating effect of traditional gender roles on work-life enrichment and perceived organisational support (Blanch and Aluja, 2012; Perrone, Wright and Jackson, 2009). Second, the study will extend previous research by proposing and testing the moderating influence of employee engagement (Voydanoff, 2005) on the relationship between EWLB and Perceived Organisational Support (POS). Third and more generally, the study extends the antecedents of employee engagement to include job resources (Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008).

Finally, the study of the aforementioned mediating and moderating variables (which are not known to have featured much in WLB studies) at multiple levels in the African context will help push WLB theory and practice by developing a fuller and better understanding of WLB (Mordi, Mmieh and Ojo, 2013, Acquaah et al., 2013) .

1.5.2 *Practical significance*

Apart from its contribution to literature, it is hoped that this study will drive policy and decision makers in organisations and government to develop policies and institute practices that will facilitate WLB among Ghanaian workers with its resultant socio-economic benefits.

1.6 Overview of research methodology

The study adopted the deductive approach and quantitative methods to achieve the objectives of the study. Both primary and secondary sources of data were used in the study. The survey method was adopted to collect data and sample will be drawn randomly from the major sectors of the economy including banking, health and telecommunication sectors.

1.6.1 Data Analysis

Due to the nature of the conceptual framework of the study, multi-level data analyses tools were employed. Tools for data analysis included Structural Equation Modelling, Hierarchical Multiple Regression and Hierarchical Linear Modelling.

1.6.2 Measures

English is the language of commerce and administration in Ghana, so the questionnaires will be administered in English. Respondents' questionnaires will be pre-tested using a sample of 40employees drawn from the three selected organisations in Kumasi. Most of the response

options will range from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Scales will be developed to measure the relationships between the variables in the conceptual framework.

1.6.3 Controls

Following previous research (Mathews, Bulger and Barnes-Farrell, 2010; Aryee et al., 2012; Ahmad, King and Anderson, 2013), the study controlled for respondent's *age* and *gender* since these variables have been found to be related to experienced WLB and its associated outcomes (Rusconi, Moen and Kaduk, 2013). Age and sex were measured using a single item that requested respondents to indicate age and to indicate their sex (Male = 1 and Female =2). I also controlled for marital status, number of children and available childcare options to isolate the impact of increased caring responsibilities associated with marriage and children (Mathews, Bulger and Barnes-Farrell, 2010). This may affect the use and effect of WLB policies. I also controlled for position in the organisation, level of qualification, tenure and type of employment because most studies show that managerial and professional full-time workers who have been with the organisation for a some years are more likely than other workers to know about and have access to work–family policies and are more likely to use them (Glass and Estes 1997; Lambert 1999; Jacobs and Gerson 2004).

1.6.4 Validity and reliability of data

Validity of data was ensured through a representative sample size and the assurance of confidentiality. This ensured that respondents gave their honest opinions without fear. Questions

asked in the questionnaire were also tested for their level of reliability using the Cronbach alpha (α) criterion.

1.7 Geographical Scope of the study

The study was conducted in the first and second capital of Ghana, Accra and Kumasi respectively. The organisations included in the study were drawn from different sectors of the economy including the mining, health, education, banking and finance, courier and manufacturing companies. The diverse sample also consisted of respondents from small, medium and large formal organisations in the two major cities of the country. This was done to improve the representativeness of the data collected.

1.8 Brief overview of limitations of the study

The most important limitation of this study is its cross-sectional nature, throwing the question of causal direction into serious doubt. Notwithstanding, the existing and tested theories guided the assumptions about the causal order and several longitudinal and/or experimental studies provide some evidence for the postulated causal relationships (e.g., Culbertson, Mills and Fullagar, 2012; Hakanen, Schaufeli and Ahola, 2008; Perrone, Wright and Jackson, 2009; Aryee et al., 2012). Although longitudinal samples are most appropriate for testing hypotheses of causality, they are no panacea for all research questions (Taris and Kompier, 2003).

1.9   Organisation and plan of study

The first chapter which is the general introduction will cover the background to the study, problem statement among others. This will be followed by chapter two which will review extensive related literature on WLB, employee work-related outcomes and the mediating and moderating variables in the conceptual framework. The theoretical framework and hypothesis will be covered in chapter three. Chapter four covers the methodology for the study which comprises the research purpose, approach and strategy including, sample and sampling technique, sources of data and data collection instruments, method of data analysis, questionnaire design, measures of variables and organizational profile of the study area. Chapter five deals with the presentation and analysis of data collected. The final chapter will summarize the major findings of the study, identify the contributions and implications of the study and draw conclusions on the objectives of the study. A detailed description of the lessons learnt, limitations and areas of further research will also be provided.
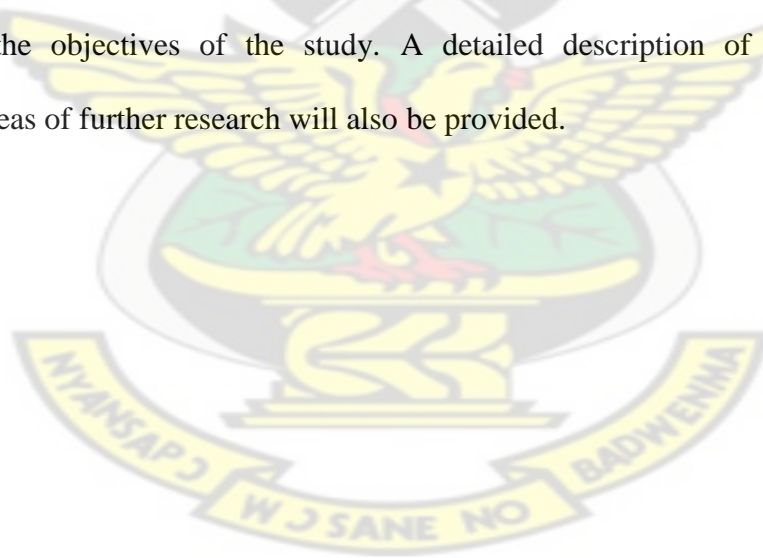
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Introduction

The changing socio-economic conditions and the resulting demands have transformed the nature

of work the world over. Initially, work was a prerequisite for survival. However, in recent times

the role of "work" has incrementally evolved and the composition of the workforce has changed.

Increasingly work is regarded as a means of personal satisfaction. It is an established fact that a

good balance in work and life can play a critical role in the attainment of personal goals and

satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 2003).

Work-Life balance is fundamental to the issues surrounding human resource management

(HRM). Grzywacz and Carlson (2007), in their work, argue and provide evidence to the effect

that, work-family balance is central to HRM's major functions (implicitly and explicitly) and that

it can serve as a powerful tool for promoting individual wellbeing and organizational

effectiveness.

Work-Life Balance (WLB) has been an issue of concern for many researchers and practitioners

for the last few decades (Kelly et al., 2008). The current world of work is marked by the

changing demographics, intense pressure; fast pace of change, constant deadlines, increased use

of technology and the resulting co-existing virtual workplace (Wharton, 2012). Juxtaposed with

this, the average increase in income and incremental rise in living standards have resulted in

individuals striving for better working conditions and improved family and personal life.

The primary theory behind the concept of "work-life balance" is that individuals have varying, and sometimes mutually exclusive demands on them due to the roles that they play in the different facets of their lives (for example, wife, mother, worker) (Ford, Heinen, and Langkamer, 2007; Kahn et al 1964). As Shelton, Danes and Eisenman summarized, "meeting the demands from one domain reduces the time and energy available to function in the other domain and this tends to create conflict when individuals seek to function effectively in both domains" (2008, p. 318).This results in a negative spillover effect with its potential conflict. Work-life balance practices therefore assist individuals to gain greater control over their circumstances, in order to manage their life effectively (Ruderman et al, 2002; Shelton, Danes and Eisenman, 2008).

This chapter evaluates the existing body of knowledge on the correlates and consequences of work-life balance. The chapter starts with a critical discourse of the nature of work-life balance delving into the various theories and approaches that have shaped the definitions and dimensions of work-life balance. This is followed by a critical review of employee work-related outcomes as a consequence of work-life balance at the individual and organizational levels. The chapter also draws on major theories such as role theory, border and boundary theories (referred to as boundary management theories) and social exchange theory to examine the WLB as a motivational tool with the inherent ability to elicit positive organisational behaviour at both organisational and individual levels. It also evaluates literature on gender roles as a mediating variable between the work-life enrichment and perceived organisational support. Finally, literature on the key concepts of the study is also reviewed.

2.2   The definitions of WLB

Given the long-standing tradition of scholarship on and practical interest in WLB, definitions within the field have recently been criticized as beset with problems of inconsistencies (Ozbilgin et al., 2011 and Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007).

Historically, researchers have viewed work–life balance as the absence of work–family conflict, or the extent to which work interferes with family or family interferes with work (Frone, 2003). Greenhaus, Collins, and Shaw (2003), drawing on role balance theory (Marks and MacDermid, 1996; Clark, 2000 and Kirchmeyer, 2000), defined work–family balance as "the extent to which individuals are equally engaged in and equally satisfied with work and family roles" (p. 513). Voydanoff (2005), drawing on person–environment fit theory, suggested that work–family balance is "a global assessment that work and family resources are sufficient to meet work and family demands, such that participation is effective in both domains" (p. 825). Most recently, Greenhaus and Allen (2006) defined work–family balance as the extent to which an individual's effectiveness and satisfaction in work and family domain roles are compatible or consistent with the individual's life priorities.

Although helpful, some of these definitions do not adequately capture practical representations of work–family balance. Most of these definitions have their roots in role balance theory. Marks and MacDermid (1996, p. 421) define role balance as;

> ''…the tendency to become fully 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''.

Greenhaus et al. (2003), however suggested that there is little evidence in the literature suggesting that people seek "equality" or even "near equality" in their work and family lives. Undeniably, role balance theory suggests that people seek full and meaningful experiences in their work and family lives (Marks, Huston, Johnson and MacDermid, 2001; Marks and MacDermid, 1996). It is important to note that role balance theory does not prescribe equality across roles, partly because it is doubtful whether work-and-family-related activities have comparable worth to different people and that they can be effectively monitored (MacDermid, 2006). There is also little empirical evidence suggesting that working adults think of balance as a transaction between work-related resources and family-related demands, or vice versa, as conceptualized by Voydanoff (2005). Greenhaus and Allen's (2006) definition of work–family balance is convincing because it combines the key themes used by prominent researchers in the field; equality (Clark, 2000; Kirchmeyer, 2000; Marks and MacDermid, 1996; Mead, 1964) and engagement (Marks and MacDermid, 1996).

However, it has been criticized as overemphasizing individual satisfaction in work and family (Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007). Satisfaction within and across life domains is important, but defining balance in terms of satisfaction may lead to conceptualisation problems. The primary problem is that defining balance in terms of individual satisfaction isolates individuals in their work and family-related activities from the context of the organizations and families in which these activities are performed. The fundamental issue raised here is whether work–family balance is a psychological or social construct. By claiming that work–life balance is "inherently in the eye of the beholder,"Greenhaus and Allen (2006) situate balance as a psychological construct. However, can one say that there is work-life balance if an individual is satisfied and

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feels "effective" in both domains but this satisfaction and appraisal of effectiveness is at the expense of another (say the organisation or family members)? Decontextualized views of balance which focus on introspective and to a certain degree, hedonistic elements of daily work and family life such as satisfaction do not adequately capture the fundamental meaning of work–family balance.

Defining balance in terms of satisfaction also raises practical problems. Developing effective and sustainable interventions to enhance satisfaction within and across the work and family domains is challenging for organisations because, like other concepts that have little observable meaning outside of the individual, it is inherently retrospective, evaluative and under constant construction and reconstruction based on recent and previous experiences (Gergen, 1973). If work–family balance is, indeed, individualistic and personal, then, it can be argued that employers' effort to create systematic strategies to help individual workers balance work and family responsibilities is of little or no effect because the experience of work–family balance is inherently personal.

Even more disconcerting, is the potential for reducing the whole concept of work–family balance down to an individual-level problem. Viewing work–family balance as an individual-level problem borders on victim blaming because individuals shoulder the burden of the work–family challenge; yet the challenge of managing the work-life interface itself is the consequence of sociological changes resulting in demographic transitions in the workforce (for example, the movement of more women into formal employment) and changes in how work is performed (Bianchi et al., 2005). Of course, work–family balance is likely shaped by both individual and

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contextual factors, thereby necessitating a view of the construct that is not exclusively psychological but also sociological. Therefore, Grzywacz and Carlson (2007), define work-life balance as accomplishment of role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between an individual and his or her role-related partners in the work and family domains. Several features of this definition warrant specific comment. First, the definition's focus on accomplishing role-related activities across various life domains is consistent with role balance theory (Marks and MacDermid, 1996) and the argument that full engagement in both work and family is possible and fulfilling. It is also in line with the emerging developmental theory, which suggests that effectively and successfully managing multiple roles and responsibilities is a developmental task for adults in modern times (Lachman and Boone-James, 1997). Second, by focusing on accomplishment of (traditionally-given) role-related activities as opposed to satisfaction with life roles, work–life balance is viewed as a social rather than a psychological construct and it takes on meaning outside of the individual. This is because contextual issues at work and in the family domains have different relations with work-life conflict and enrichment. Hence, giving work–life balance meaning outside the individual has significant implications for testing and refining WLB theories (Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007, Reiter, 2007).

As a result of the inconsistencies found in the definitions discussed above, Grzywacz and Carlson's (2007) definition focuses on accomplishing role-related expectations that are socially negotiated and shared. This focus is consistent with long-standing views that individuals are not passive participants but rather actively "take" and "make" roles (Clark, 2000; Kahn et al, 1964; Thomas and Biddle, 1966). Their definition is also consistent with the view that "work" and "family" are shorthand labels for a countless of on-going and spontaneous daily interactions that

individuals have with other people. Focusing on the inherently interactional aspects of daily work and family life is essential for accurately illustrating work–family balance. This is in line with Clark's (2000) work/family border theory, which was an attempt to explain the complex interaction between border-crossers and their work and family lives, to predict when conflict will occur and also gave a framework for attaining balance. According to Clark (2000), the primary connection between work and family systems is not emotional but human. For some individuals, the transition is unnoticeable, but for others, the contrast between work and family is much greater, thus requiring a more extreme transition. People are border-crossers who make daily transitions between these two settings, often tailoring their focus, their goals, and their interpersonal style to fit the unique demands of each. Though many aspects of work and home are difficult to alter, individuals can to some degree shape the nature of the work and home domains, and the borders and bridges between them, in order to create a desired balance.

Despite the gains made in defining the concept of WLB, some people (including managers and supervisor) perceive the concept of work-life balance as 'less work and more play' (Burton, 2004 and Reiter, 2007). Though this is an unpopular view among academics and practitioners and less cited in the literature, the findings of Greenhaus et al.'s (2003) study have been interpreted as supporting this view (Reiter, 2007). This exceptionist view of 'balance' draws its roots from teleological theories that suggest that an action that benefits individuals the most and harms them the least is the right action (Reiter, 2007). This concept probably originates from the hedonic approach (referred to as the pursuit of the good life) which equates wellbeing and work-life balance with hedonic pleasure, stating that the goal of life is to maximize hedonic pleasure and minimize pain. However, the pursuit of work–life balance is not a part of a more general hedonic

pursuit of pleasure, characteristic of modern times, which often may lead a person to experience a feeling of internal emptiness. Instead, Westman, Brough and Kalliath (2009) suggests that achieving a balance should lead to the experience of eudemonic wellbeing (or gratification and meaning) because work–life balance is likely to lead to the fulfilment of the three fundamental psychological needs of relatedness, competence, and autonomy which are necessary for people to thrive and grow psychologically (Ryan and Deci, 2000). This means, the fulfilment of basic psychological needs will mediate the effect of pursuit and achievement of work–life balance on wellbeing. The pursuit of work–life balance is a worthwhile endeavour, one that is conducive to human growth and development and produces eudemonia (Westman, Brough and Kalliath; 2009).The effect of conceptualising work-life balance from this exceptionist perspective is that it seems to infer that people who seek balance or utilize work-life balance initiatives are lazy people who want to work less and play more. This view is at variance with the letter and spirit of the concept of work-life balance. Therefore in this study, WLB is operationally defined as the effective accomplishment of role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between an individual and his or her role-related partners in the work and family domains which is compatible or consistent with the individual's life priorities and satisfying. This is seen as holistic and an appropriate operational definition of work-life balance for this study because it combines the psychological and sociological perspectives of work-life balance discussed above. This definition is also consistent with philosophical views of Westman, Brough and Kalliath (2009) who suggested that achieving a balance should lead to the experience of eudemonic wellbeing (or gratification and meaning).

Table 2.1 below shows a summarised version of the definitions discussed in this section.

Table 2.1 Summary of key WLB definitions

Definition	Authour(s)
Work–life balance is the absence of work–family conflict, or the extent to which work interferes with family or family interferes with work	(Frone, 2003)
WLB is "the extent to which individuals are equally engaged in and equally satisfied with work and family roles".	Greenhaus, Collins, and Shaw (2003; pg. 513),
Work–family balance is "a global assessment that work and family resources are sufficient to meet work and family demands, such that participation is effective in both domains".	Voydanoff (2005, p. 825),
The extent to which an individual's effectiveness and satisfaction in work and family domain roles are compatible or consistent with the individual's life priorities.	Greenhaus and Allen (2006)
WLB is the accomplishment of role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between an individual and his or her role-related partners in the work and family domains.	Grzywacz and Carlson (2007),
WLB is 'less work and more play'	(Burton, 2004 and Reiter, 2007)
Operational Definition	
WLB is the effective accomplishment of role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between an individual and his or her role-related partners in the work and family domains which is compatible or consistent with the individual's life priorities and satisfying	(Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007; Greenhaus and Allen, 2006).

Source: Authour's compilation, 2014

In WLB research, authors use different suffixes to depict the orientation or perspective of their research. These include but not limited to (work-life) conflict, enrichment, integration and balance. The extant literature is fraught with these terms and concepts that seem similar and yet different (Ozbilgin et al, 2011). The follow sub section attempts to introduce, define and differentiate these terms in the hope of clarifying these terms.

2.2.1 Work-life conflict, enrichment, integration and balance

Pleck's (1977) seminal article on the work-family role system contributed immensely to our understanding of the consequences of interdependencies between the work and non-work

domains regarding participation in multiple roles, gender differences in how males and females are affected by their engagement in multiple domains and their coping mechanism in asymmetrically permeable boundaries.

Work–life conflict can be defined as a type of "inter-role conflict in which work and family demands are mutually incompatible so that meeting demands in one domain makes it difficult to meet demands in the other" (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985, pg.77). This definition suggests that work-life conflict is a multi-directional construct which means that work can affect family and vice versa (Frone, 2002). When work and family are in conflict, obtaining rewards in one domain requires foregoing rewards in the other (Edwards and Rothbard, 2000). The work-life conflict perspective allows an examination of the possible interference and negative spillover that individuals engaged in dual roles are likely to experience (Greenhaus and Brummelhuis, 2013). According to Higgins, Duxbury and Lyons (2008), work–life conflict can be considered to have two major components: the practical component is associated with the limited resource of time and how it must be shared between two competing domains and the perceptual aspect which is characterised by an overwhelming feeling of inadequacy due to the pressures of multiple roles.

Extensive research on work-life conflict has not only revealed the three different mechanisms by which work and family roles may cause conflict (time-based, strain-based and behaviour-based conflicts) but has also drawn attention to the bi-directional influences between the work and non-work interface and its attendant consequences (Shockley and Singla, 2011).

Despite the major contributions of the work-life conflict research, its overemphasis on the negative or harmful effects of participating in the work and non-work domains led to several

calls by both researchers and practitioners for a more positive approach to the study of the work-life phenomena (Shaufeli and Bakker, 2004; Westman, Brough and Kalliath, 2009; Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008).

The work-life enrichment concept is a response to the dominance of the conflict approach to work-life balance research. This stream of research switches the focus from the harmful/negative effect of multiple role participation to the potential benefits of multiple role participation (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). The enrichment, also variously referred to as enhancement, facilitation, expansion or positive spillover, draws its theoretical underpinnings from the role accumulation theory and resource theory. The basic assumption of these two theories is that participating in multiple roles may lead to greater well-being and more effective role performance because individual have multiple sources to draw resources from and hence have a greater opportunity to experience success that can buffer them from the stressful effect of hardship in another role.

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) identified instrumental and affective paths by which enrichment could occur. First, through the instrumental pathway, skills, behaviours and social capital in one domain can be invested in another domain to facilitate goal achievement. Second, through the affective pathway, positive affective states in one domain can be transferred from one role to another, enhancing the quality of life in the receiving role.

While work-life conflict and work-life enrichment represent two distinct approaches to the study, synthesis and evaluation of the effects of participation in multiple roles and domains, work-life

integration focuses on the blurring, blending, overlapping, merging or combining of two or more domains. Wynne and Baltes (2013), define work-life integration as the 'state of experiencing both work (employed) and life-related (or family related) demands'. They add that it involves the simultaneous engagement in both work and life domains. This is due to the simultaneous engagement and importance placed on multiple roles and domains by individuals. Existing literature indicates that work-life integration has been broadly conceptualized in one of two ways. First, it has been conceptualized as an unintentional or unplanned blurring of the work and live domains, whereby emotions and behaviours are transferred from one domain to the other. This process is also often referred to as spillover. However, the focus when it comes to integration is not on the transfer of resources or emotions from one domain to the other but rather on the ease with which the transfer of emotions and resources take place between the boundaries of the multiple domains. Thus the level of permeability between work and life boundary can lead to role blurring (flexible boundaries) or role segmentation (inflexible boundaries) (Ashforth et al., 2000, Clarke, 2000). These are two extreme states which are not likely to be preferred. It's more likely that individuals will prefer some levels of boundary blurring and some level of segmentation. The extent of blurring and segmentation depends on individual preferences and neither permeable nor impermeable boundary is inherently inferior. This leads to the second conceptualization of integration which has been viewed as an active and intentional (strategic) management of the boundary between work and life domains (Wynne and Baltes, 2013). Thus, the concept of work-life integration takes its roots from the boundary management and border theories.

The last concept to be treated in this section is work-life balance which is not an approach to the study of the work-life interface but rather an outcome of the process involved in engaging in multiple roles and participation in multiple domains. Hence, this study adopts this suffix and defines work-life balance as the effective accomplishment of role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between an individual and his or her role-related partners in the work and non-work domains which is compatible or consistent with the individual's life priorities and satisfying (Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007; Greenhaus and Allen, 2006).

Aside the use of different suffixes by different researchers in the WLB field, two prominent terminologies that have been used by researchers are the 'work-life' and 'work-family' terminologies. The sub-section below evaluates the two terminologies and demonstrates that the 'work-life' term as a more inclusive and suitable term than the 'work-family' terminology.

2.2.2   The use of the term Work-Life Balance

Since the invention of the dichotomy between work and personal life in the mid-1800s, several terms have been coined and used to explain the manner in which men and women in paid employment try to combine their work and non-work demands and responsibilities. These terms include 'work–life integration' (Lewis and Cooper, 2005), 'work–family conflict' (Forma, 2009), 'work and family practices' (Morgan 1996), 'work/family balance' (Hochschild, 1997) and 'work–life interface' (Özbilgin et al. 2011). These terms may reflect subtle differences in interpretation (Lewis et al., 2007) as a result of different disciplinary perspectives. Hence the umbrella term 'work–life balance' is used throughout this study to represent the way in which employees balance responsibilities and commitments to paid work and non-work activities. The

term 'work–life balance' is useful, because it helps to avoid assumptions in relation to how far employees may regard the balancing of work and non-work demands and responsibilities as either conflictual or enriching (Gatrell, et al, 2008). Though Gregory and Milner (2009) have challenged the use of this term, 'work–life balance' is nonetheless a familiar term, which according to Lewis et al. (2007) embraces a range of approaches. Therefore the term 'work–life balance' offers a means of analysing complex debates around the theory and practice of general work–life balance issues (Gatrell, 2008).

Also, this study recognizes that WLB issues affect different groups of workers (such as; workers without dependent children, older workers and those with sick and/or elder-care responsibilities), as identified by Fleetwood (2007), Lewis et al. (2007) and Özbilgin et al. (2011). Therefore, the term *work-life* is used throughout this study, as it is more comprehensive than the term work-family and it also encapsulates the three dimensional life balance concept as postulated by Aycan, Eskin and Yavuz (2007). The use of this term reflects a broader and more inclusive way of framing the WLB discourse to engage married and unmarried men and women with and without children or other caring or familial commitments and is meant to address criticisms levelled against work-family policies by those without family obligations (Wynne and Baltes, 2013; and Wharton, 2012). However, when other studies are referred to, the terms *work-life* and *work-family* are used according to the term used in those studies.

2.3   The problem of WLB

The growth of industrial capitalism in the 19th century, when men dominated the paid labour force, served as a platform for the origins of the concept of WLB. This was facilitated by cultural beliefs, which drew linkages between masculinity and the paid work, and portrayed the ''ideal''

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woman as one whose life was dominated by home and family with nurturing and caring duties (Wharton, 2012). Until Kanter's (1977) seminal paper on "the myth of separate worlds", work and family was understood as highly segmented domains, required different skills to accomplish the different demands in each domain (Major et al., 2013). The basic assumption was that ''Ideal workers'' were those who were always available as often as was required by the demands of the job and did not have any significant non-work responsibilities, such as dependent care responsibilities. Non-work activities were seen as part of one's private life where they were the responsibility of mostly, women (Wharton, 2012).

Although these gendered views were informed mostly by the experiences of dual earner middle-class couples, people from different social classes and backgrounds have also contributed to and perpetuated these believes. Because both men and women from different backgrounds were socialised to accept and enact these gender roles, it became very difficult and unacceptable for any individual to go against these socially and culturally generated and accepted gender roles. Because men were supposed to be the main breadwinners of their family, men who were not able to support their families due to low income were stigmatized (Bernard, 1981). In the same vein, women who could not fulfil their traditionally assigned gender role of caring and nurturing their family full-time due to paid work responsibilities were deemed to be inadequate in their role as mother and wife. Therefore, for men to be good breadwinners and be able to provide for their families, they were not expected to have time to offer care to their family or engage in non-paid family responsibilities at home. Likewise, because women were expected to be caregivers, it was assumed that this care giving activity was fundamentally incompatible with the demands of paid work (Wharton, 2012). Today, the roles of men and women are considerably different than in

previous times, yet cultural beliefs and societal norms about what makes an ideal worker and a desirable caregiver or homemaker have yet to see any serious change (Bharat, 2001).

The latter half of the 20th century, saw a great number of women (with children), taking up paid work. This may be due to several social reasons such as increased number of women pursuing formal education, increased rate of divorce both in developing and developed countries leading to insecurity among women, and increased number of single parents (mostly women) who need to work to provide for their children and family financially. Aside social reasons, economic pressures has also contributed to women's participation in the labour force. This has been caused by the declining salaries and the rising cost and standard of living which pushed women into the labour force. According to Wharton (2012), women were pulled into the labour force by increasing opportunities for employment propelled by the expanding service sector helped to create new job opportunities that suited women's feminine attributes and abilities. The increased involvement of women in formal paid employment represents a significant change in the labour markets of both developed and developing countries.

Women's dramatic movement into paid employment affected family life in both developing and developed. Women now spend more time in paid work than ever before and this modern phenomena has pushed men (especially in more developed countries) to devote more time to household unpaid work. In 2004, Gauthier et al., investigated the changing trends in the number of hours men and women spent in paid work and unpaid family work. Their study revealed that the number of hours married men spent performing household work has been steadily increasing since 1960 while the number of hours women engaged in formal employment has been

increasing in the same period. Their study also revealed that the number of hours both men and women spend on their children has been increasing over the years. This according to Bharat (2001) can be attributed to men's increasing desire to participate more in the nurturing of their children. Nevertheless, a comparative study of Australia, Denmark, France, Italy, and the United States showed that mothers in all five countries spent more time caring for children than fathers (Craig and Killian, 2010). The combination of paid work with family responsibilities such as spending more time with children has been made possible by parents cutting down on hours spent on other activities such as leisure and personal activities.

Many have argued that despite the dramatic socio-economic changes in the 20th century, this has not reflected in similar levels of cultural changes. As a result many employees' work and family lives are out-of-sync and many are experiencing imbalance in work and life domains. This has been attributed to incremental evolution of cultural norms that have not kept pace with the socio-economic changes. These norms, values and belief systems have influenced policies and practices at both work-place and in the wider society. These basic assumptions inform and influence people's expectations about the roles they are supposed to play as workers and family members (Wharton, 2012). Previous studies have reported that the ideal worker syndrome continues to be embedded at workplaces despite the fact that it is not feasible considering the non-work responsibilities carried by employees (Beauregard and Henry 2009; Kelly et al. 2010). As a result, family life has suffered because employees do not have enough time to spend on the family as they have to get to work earlier and close later than the mandated times in order to keep the 'appearance' of an ideal worker. The insufficient time left for parents to be with their family seems to be hurried and pressured as employees adopt coping mechanisms to help them

deal with the multiple role domains with its attendant demands and limited resources. This situation leads to a lot of stress especially among women because they bear more household responsibilities due to their traditionally dictated gender role. This ''disconnect'' between new realities and outmoded norms about the role of women and men reflects incessant debates and studies about employees ability to effectively manage the demands of the work and non-work domains to avoid the negative consequences associated with the inability of employees to combine the multiple role domains. These factors facilitated our understanding of the interferences between work and life domains and have contributed to why work-life balance issues have become a popular topic in both public discourse and a preoccupation of many academics in recent times.

2.4   De-classification of Work-life balance: going beyond the orthodoxy

In spite of several years dedicated to work-life balance research, existing work-life balance literature has received a lot of criticism for the lack of consensus on its definition. (Özbilgin et. al., 2011). The manner in which key concepts of WLB such as gender and class are presented and defined have contributed to this situation. More often than not gender and class related issues are presented as disturbing themes that contribute to work-life conflict. In addition, work-life balance literature has also been criticised for depicting the concept as a one-dimensional concept that assumes that work-life balance issues has to do with people with a certain gender and from a particular class in society (Özbilgin *et al*., 2011).

In other words more researchers have investigated the concept of work-life balance as a problem that affects middle-class dual-earner parents. This simplistic conceptualisation of work-life

balance has often led to impractical recommendations that do not only help solve the problem but also excludes most employees from the analysis of work-life related issues. Hence, Özbilgin *et al.* (2011) describe work–life balance research as unbalanced, because they narrowly define work–life balance as a problem affecting rich and middle income heterosexual parents or couples leading to an exclusion of other groups. For example, low class single fathers and/or mothers with low social capital are excluded from most WLB research. Özbilgin et al. (2011) have criticised the work-life balance literature for perpetuating traditional gender roles which presents the man as the main breadwinner and therefore limits men's paternal role. For example, in most countries especially in developing countries there is a statutory maternity leave but men are not given the same privilege with the birth of a baby.

The one dimensional analysis of WLB have contributed to the consistent assumption that WLB is a classed and gendered concept and this has gone a long way to exclude marginalized groups such as those who work in the informal sector, especially underprivileged mothers and fathers with low income (Özbilgin et al., 2011). Defining WLB as a problem among dual-career couples with children has helped to entrench the erroneous view and focus on the negative effects of participating in multiple role domains which led the emphasis on work–life conflict rather than the positive effects of participating in work and life domains (which is referred to as work-life enrichment). This has created the perception that one cannot engage effectively in multiple role domains and feel satisfied and fulfilled in those domains. Hence, the emphasis on the negative effects of engaging in work-life domains led to a neglect of the positive effects of engaging in multiple role domains which is evidenced by the resource accumulation theory which suggests that individuals' participation in multiple role domains opens up a wider pool of resources from

which they can draw from, thus, improving their chances of success which can then protect them from the negative effects of the strain in another domain (Marks, 1977).

Another falsehood that has perpetuated the WLB literature is the 'ideal worker' syndrome which assumes that employees do not have any other responsibilities outside of work which will demand their time and effort. Hence the 'ideal worker' syndrome conforms to a masculine work culture, whereby full-time paid employment is offered to employees who are assumed to be without any family demands or other non-work commitments that may limit their full participation and focus at work. WLB research has also perpetuated this one-dimensional view of individuals by focusing their samples on mostly white female middle-class employees engaged in mostly white-collar jobs and who are married with young children. Most WLB studies portray this group of employees as 'ideal work–life balancers' who have to struggle to juggle the overwhelming demands from multiple role domains (Özbilgin, 2011).

The 'ideal worker' syndrome from the organisational setting and the 'ideal work-life balancers' from the research context have together influenced work-life balance policies all over the work and the conceptualisation of WLB-related issues respectively (Kossek et al., 2010). This raises concerns on the overemphasis of WLB literature on the 'ideal worker' and/or the 'ideal work-life balancer' and how this can reduce the essence of the WLB discourse into something shallow and artificial which can negatively influence policy formulation and practice. An example of this is seen in a study conducted by Mescher *et al*. in 2010, which revealed that websites of multinational organisations which encouraged and supported WLB among their employees also inadvertently promoted the 'ideal worker' culture by insinuating that flexible work arrangements

are offered by their organisations mainly to help support women with young children, thus, excluding single women, women without children and man from benefiting from the WLB policies especially with regards to flexible work arrangements.

In order to develop all-inclusive policies, Özbilgin et al., (2011) recommend that the myths surrounding the 'ideal worker' in practice or the 'ideal work-life balancer' be done away with in order to create organisational policies that help not only mothers, but diverse employees with diverse WLB needs to access and benefit from the WLB polices. To develop workplace policies that is all inclusive and addresses the needs of diverse workers, the myth of the 'ideal worker' must be broken (Özbilgin et al, 2011). This can be done by widening the samples of research to include single women and men from low income and impoverished background who may not necessarily professionals employed in the formal sector but who are employed in the informal sector and are still engaged in multiple role domains. By reflecting the complex realities of our society in WLB research, the new body of literature can provided the much needed evidence that may lead to the questioning of assumptions traditional gender roles and workplace culture which may help improve work-life balance policies and practices in organisations.

2.5   A theoretical background of WLB

This section reviews the various theories used to investigate and understand the concept of WLB and its linkages to work-related outcomes. First, this section reviews literature on traditional role-related theories such as role theory and its associated perspectives such as role stress, role conflict, role balance and spillover models. The second part of this section looks at emerging theories such as boundary management theories which include boundary theory and border

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theory. Also, literature on social exchange theory and the related organisational support theory are also reviewed. This section concludes with a summary table showing the selected theory for the current study and the sources of some empirical studies using these theories to explain the WLB phenomena.

2.5.1 Role-related theories

Since the mid-1800s when the dichotomy between work and leisure was invented, several scholars have tried to explain the concept in many different ways. However, there has been a deliberate attempt over the years to identify a set of interrelated concepts, definitions, and propositions that explain or predict WLB situations by specifying relations among variables in a systematic way. Hence various theories have been used to explain and analyse WLB. Guest (2001) and Naithani (2010) summarized the discourse with a compilation of five individual theories to illustrate the association between work and life outside the workplace. They include the segmentation, spillover, compensation, instrumental, and conflict theories. The segmentation model states that work and life outside of work are mutually exclusive such that one sphere does not have any impact on the other. The spillover model on the other hand, is the reverse of the segmentation theory and indicates that work and life are interdependent, and therefore they influence each other. The next three models (that is; conflict, compensation and instrumental) are more detailed versions of the spillover model. The conflict model illustrates that the work and life spheres have numerous demands; hence, individuals have to prioritize and make choices that may lead to conflict. This led to the use of the term *work-life conflict*. The compensation model shows that one sphere makes up for the lack in the other sphere. The instrumental model states that one sphere accentuates the other sphere. Many studies (Voydanoff, 2005; Grawitch et al,

2010; Blanch and Aluja, 2012, Culbertson et al, 2012) have used these theories to try and understand direct and indirect issues related to WLB.

However, a more enduring and broader perspective theory in WLB research has long been the role stress theory, where the negative side of the work-family interaction has been emphasized. Recently, the emphasis has shifted towards the investigation of the more positive interaction between work and family roles as well as roles outside work and family lives, and scholars have started to deliberate on the essence of work-life balance (Jones et al., 2006 and Grawitch and Barber, 2010). Though there is a general agreement that work-life balance is important for an individual's psychological well-being, researchers do not seem to agree on how work-life balance should be defined, measured, and studied, and as a result, the theorizing of what constitutes work-life balance, how it develops, and what factors enable or hinder it, is still in the process of development (Voydanoff, 2005; Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007). Greenhaus et al. (2003) suggest that the basic assumption that work-family balance always results in positive individual and organisational consequences is doubtful since according to them this is an empirical question, which has not yet been firmly answered due to various and differing definitions of work-life balance.

The roots of research on work-life balance can be traced back to studies of women and/or work-rich dual earner professional couples with children having multiple roles (Rantanen, 2008 and Gatrel, 2012). An investigation conducted by Barnett and Baruch (1985) revealed the psychological strain and conflict related to the balance of rewards and the concerns produced by women's multiple roles as paid worker, wife and mother. Their study revealed that a positive

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role quality (which is characterised by more resources than demands experienced in a given role domain) was associated with low levels of work-life conflict, stress and burnout leading to low levels of anxiety. Based on the findings of their study, Barnett and Baruch (1985) defined role balance as a situation where the rewards experienced by an individual are more than the concerns or demands in that particular domain. Tiedje et al., (1990) also approached the issue of work-life balance from the perspective of role perception by the individual. They suggested that women are more likely to perceive their work and family roles in multiple, qualitatively different ways, and thus they based their typology on both the role conflict and enhancement propositions. According to the conflict proposition, multiple roles with endless demands are likely to lead to role strain and conflict for individuals because the resources they have or require to meet these demands are finite and scarce (Goode, 1960). The core statement of the enhancement proposition, in turn, is that engaging in more than one role domain provides benefits in the form of status security; privileges associated with role played by the individual, psychological energy and personal growth which expands an individual's resources pool and facilitate role performance (Marks, 1977).

More precisely, role conflict and role enhancement are regarded as separate dimensions. It is therefore possible to experience concurrently high conflict and low enhancement; high enhancement and low conflict; low conflict and low enhancement, or high conflict and high enhancement. Studies have revealed that irrespective of the level of enhancement, women experiencing high role conflict were more depressed and less satisfied as parents than women experiencing low conflict-high enhancement (Rantanen, 2008). Based on these studies, it can be deduced that high resources or rewards and enhancement in combination with low concerns or

demands and conflict that one experiences across work and non-work role domains is more beneficial for an individual's well-being, and hence these experiences demonstrate role balance.

Marks and MacDermid (1996) on the other hand, proposed a different perspective of the concept of balance. To them, role balance is not an outcome but rather a process characterised by "a behavioural pattern of acting across roles in a certain way and a corresponding cognitive-affective pattern of organizing one's inner life of multiple selves" (Marks and MacDermid, 1996, p. 421). This means that an individual can engage in multiple role domains by having one of two possible experiences. The individual may experience a positive role balance or a negative role balance. Positive role balance, in Marks and McDermid's theory (Rantanen, 2008), refers to the situation where employees engage in each role with high levels of devotion, attention, effort, and affection, whereas negative role is characterised by a tendency for employees to engage in roles with high level of apathy, low effort, high cynicism, and low attentiveness. Because of the psychological and behavioural tendencies highlighted above it has been argued that positive role balance will lead to role ease and that negative role balance will lead to role strain and overload (Marks and MacDermid, 1996). Positive role balance adopts a preventive approach to role conflict even before acute problems of role management become protracted. This is achieved by addressing the demands of each role on time, with effort, attention and vigour. According to Kaiser et al (2011), avoiding unnecessary breaks, calls and e-mails while working, prioritizing job responsibilities and updating one's professional skills, may significantly help an individual to manage job responsibilities more efficiently and effectively such that, the employee's work time does not overlap with the allocated time for family responsibilities. On the other hand if roles associated with a particular domain is unattended to, it is likely to lead to negative role balance.

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Occasional incidents of role conflict are likely to accumulate due to the lack of concern towards role-related tasks and duties, creating an on-going state of unsatisfied demands leading to more strain (Kaiser et al, 2011). For example, ignoring a child's care responsibilities and/or avoiding other family or non-work responsibilities, such as taking care of a spouse's needs may, over time, spiral into constant and daily disagreements, which can spillover or bleed into the work domain and negatively affect work-related outcomes due to the worsening of mood and concentration.

Some researchers have suggested that the WLB model can be influenced or affected at various levels. These levels include the macro level, concerning public policy; meso-level, which concerns the HR practices; work-life culture; work group dynamics; and, finally, the micro level, which shows that the individuals' attitudes and behaviours can have serious consequence on WLB initiatives (Lero and Bardoel, 2009; Naithani, 2010; and Skinner and Pocock, 2008). From the above, it can be deduced that while spill-over theory (with more specific theories like the compensation, instrumental and conflict theories) examines WLB at a macro and meso-levels where demands and resources of one domain may spill-over to affect the demands and resources in another domain, the role theory takes a closer and a more micro look at the individuals engaged in multiple roles and how individual characteristics affect the achievement or non-achievement (outcomes) of those roles. The current study uses both role theory and the related spillover model to investigate the relationship between WLB and employee engagement and some intervening variables at multiple levels of the organisations covered in the research. This is in line with the recommendation made by Kelly et al, 2008 that researchers should pursue more multi-level research that view work-life policies as organisational interventions. By doing so,

research would stand a better chance at connecting organizational policies and practices to employees' experiences of managing their work and non-work responsibilities (a macro-to-micro move) and also connect employees' attitudes and behaviours on the job to organizational outcomes (a micro-to-macro move).

2.5.2 *Boundary management and social exchange theories*

Aside the use of role and spillover theories in the study of work-life issues, another set of theories that are being used to provide understanding into how individuals actively manage the boundaries between their work and family domains and the associated roles are Clark's (2000) border theory and Ashforth et al.'s (2000) boundary theory. Together, they are referred to as the boundary management theories in this study. As an offshoot from the role theory with its emphasis on conflicting or mutually exclusive demands from work and non-work domains, boundary theory is based on the assumption that individuals create borders or boundaries around their roles in an attempt to organisation or manage their environment and to focus on the domain that is most salient at a particular time or moment (Greenhaus and ten Brummelhuis, 2013). Boundary theory is therefore a general theory which is focused on crossing role boundaries, role transitions and the management of boundary in various life domains (Ashforth et al, 2000). The border theory on the other hand is limited in scope and focuses specifically on work and family domains.

However, both theories attempt to address the causes and effects of boundary blurring and explicate how individuals (and organisations) consciously and strategically 'construct, maintain, negotiate and cross boundaries or borders … between work and family domains' (Wynne and

Baltes, 2013; pg 191). Two strategies that can be adopted to help manage the work and non-work boundaries are segmentation and integration. This concept of segmentation is different from the theory referred to by Nathani's (2010) summarisation of the WLB discourse. In the boundary management context, segmentation suggests inflexible and impermeable boundaries between work and non-work domains leading to a high distinction between different role identities assumed by individuals. On the other hand, integration suggests flexible and permeable boundaries between work and non-work domains resulting in low contrast (less difference) between work and non-work domains (Kriener, 2006). These strategies are chosen by individuals to help reduce the difficulties and pressures of attending to work and non-work roles. The strength of the boundary between work and non-work domains is determined by the degree of difference or similarity between the multiple roles and domains (Desrochers et al., 2005).

According to Ashforth et al (2000), neither segmentation or integration is a superior strategy as different employees may prefer either one depending on the individual characteristics and the characteristics (or requirements and limitations) of the environment within which the individual is enacting multiple roles. In line with this argument, Kossek et al. (2005) suggested that an individual's boundary management strategy "is partly shaped as a result of the structure of the job they are in and partly by individual differences" (p. 254).

Additionally each role has advantages and disadvantages. For example, some of the benefits of an integration strategy include greater accommodation of multiple roles resulting in the reduction of tension between roles. This helps to promote flexibility allowing the individual to more easily and quickly transition from one's role in a domain to another role in another domain (Ashforth et

al., 2000). The disadvantages of integration as a strategy for managing multiple roles in multiple domains may include role blurring, transition costs and process losses (Ashforth et al., 2000). On the other hand, segmentation may reduce behaviour-based conflict, reduce the spillover of negative emotions and experiences from one domain to another domain, reduce role blurring and facilitate focus on the salient role thereby overcoming transition costs and process losses associated with the integration strategy. However, due to the impermeable and inflexible nature of boundaries associated with the segmentation strategy, transition from one's role in a domain to another role in another domain become difficult and challenging (Wynne and Baltes, 2013). Several empirical studies have used the border and boundary theories to investigate the effect of boundary management on WLB and the intervening mechanisms in the relationship (Deshrochers et al., 2005; Bulger et al., 2007, Kossek and Lautsch, 2012).

This study uses the boundary management theories (border and boundary theories) to assess the effect of organisational level WLB initiatives on work-related outcomes such as perceived organisational support, and cognitive and behavioural engagement.

Other theories that have been variously used to study and explain the linkages between WLB and individual and work-related outcomes are the social exchange theory and organisational support theory. Social exchange theory is based on the premise that human behaviour is an exchange of rewards between actors (Blau, 1994) and in this study; the actors are the employee and the employer or organisation. Social exchange is characterized by indefinite personal obligations and trust as well as intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, thus "occupying the middle ground between pure calculation of advantage and pure expression of love and commitment" (Blau, 1994, pg.91).

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This means that employees would repay their employer with increased organizational outcomes (Blair-loy and Wharton, 2004) such as employee engagement and commitment if they perceive the availability of and access to WLB policies as rewarding (especially when utilization of WLB initiatives improves the general quality of life), then they are likely to reciprocate with positive organizational behaviours such as cognitive engagement and perceived organizational support. Although organisation's ability to create conditions that enable employees to integrate work and non-work domains has been shown to be a critical source of WLB in the literature (Kossek et al., 2011, Beauregard and Henry, 2009), its influence in explicating why these forms of organisational family support relate to their established outcomes has been studied by a few researchers (Scholarios and Marks, 2004; Lambert, 2000; Lobel, 1991). From a reinforcement perspective, the social exchange theory helps explain how the availability and access to organizational WLB initiatives acts as a catalyst and a precursor to employees' positive organizational behavior and consequently leads to work-related outcomes.

A related theory is the organisational support theory which explains relationships between employers and employees based on social exchange (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). Being the basic assumption of the theory, several studies have investigated the degree to which employees perceive that their work organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being. According to Baran et al., (2012), this cognitive-affective appraisal of organizational support has been referred perceived organizational support (POS).

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According to the theory, POS is result of employees' response to socio-emotional needs and the willingness of the organisation to reward increased efforts of the employees (Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002; Eisenberger et al. 1986). POS is therefore an application of social-exchange theory to the employer–employee relationship. As such, organizational support theory suggests that, based on norms of reciprocity, workers trade effort and dedication to their organization for concrete incentives such as pay and fringe benefits (such as WLB initiatives) and socio-emotional benefits such as approval, esteem and caring (Baran et al., 2012). Studies that have investigated the relationship between organizational support and WLB have reported positive and significant relationships (Butts et al., 2007; Allen, 2001, Aryee et al., 2013). Based on the various theories reviewed, the table below presents a selection of the main theories for the current study with definitions and/or descriptions of the theories and a selection of the sources of some empirical studies that have investigated the linkages between theories and WLB-related issues.

Table 2.2   Empirical studies for theories

Theory	Definition/Description	Selected sources of related studies
Role theory (role stress, role conflict, role enhancement, role balance, role accumulation)	Role theory is a perspective in sociology and in social psychology that considers most of everyday activity to be the acting out of socially defined categories (e.g., mother, manager, teacher). Each social role is a set of rights, duties, expectations, norms and behaviours that a person has to face and fulfil. The theory also examines how individuals interpret social expectations about their life roles.	✓ Kahn et al, 1964 ✓ Barnett et al., 1995 Barnett and Baruch (1985) ✓ Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974 ✓ Marks and MacDermid, 1996 ✓ Hanson et al., 2006 ✓ Carlson et al., 2006 ✓ Greenhaus et al., 2006 ✓ Shockley and Singla, 2011
Boundary Theory	Boundary theory is a general theory focused on crossing role boundaries, role transitions and boundary management.	✓ Ashforth et al., 2000 ✓ Kossek and Lautsch, 2012 ✓ Kossek et al., 2012 ✓ Nippert-Eng, 1996

		✓ Bulger et al., 2007 ✓ Desrochers et al., 2005 ✓ Rothbard et al., 2005 ✓ Olson-Buchanan and Boswell, 2006
Border theory	Aims to explain how people manage and negotiate the work and family/non-work spheres and the borders between them in order to attain balance.	✓ Clark, 2000 ✓ Emslie and Hunt, 2009 ✓ Desrochers and Sargent, 2004 ✓ Cowan and Hoffman, 2007
Social exchange theory	Social exchange theory is based on the premise that human behaviour is an exchange of rewards between actors.	✓ Blau, 1964 ✓ Kossek et al., 2011, ✓ Beauregard and Henry, 2009 ✓ Scholarios and Marks, 2004 ✓ Lambert, 2000
Organisational support theory	Explains relationships between employers and employees based on social exchange	✓ Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002 ✓ Eisenberger et al. 1986 ✓ Baran et al., 2012 ✓ Butts et al., 2007 ✓ Allen, 2001 ✓ Aryee et al., 2013

Source: Authour's compilation, 2014

2.6 Measuring WLB

Different authors have presented different ways or approaches of measuring WLB. Below, is a review of some of the major approaches proposed over the years.

2.6.1 Overall Measurement Approach

According to Edwards (1996), appraisals or perceived evaluation of one's environment, are a basic component of contemporary stress theories. An individual's perceived WLB is a cognitive appraisal of the effects of the work and non-work domains on each other (Voydanoff, 2005). Lazarus and Folkman (1984), also postulate that cognitive appraisal is the process where the individual decides whether an experience is positive, stressful, or irrelevant with regard to their well-being. According to them, when individuals perceive that the demands of the environment exceed their resources it leads to a stressful appraisal, thereby endangering their well-being.

Thus, perceptions of WLB are derived from assessing the relative demands and resources associated with work and family or other non-work roles.

More recent views about work-life balance can be classified into the overall appraisal approach to work-life balance, and the components approach to work-life balance (Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007). *Overall appraisal* refers to an individual's general assessment concerning the entirety of his or her life situation. For example, work-family balance has been defined as "satisfaction and good functioning at work and home, with a minimum of role conflict" (Clark, 2000, p. 751), "equilibrium or maintaining overall sense of harmony in life" (Clarke et al., 2004, p. 121), and "global assessment that work and family resources are sufficient to meet work and family demands such that participation is effective in both domains" (Voydanoff, 2005, p. 825). When an overall appraisal approach is applied, work-life balance is typically assessed with general questions or a universal one-item question. An example is; "All in all, how successful do you feel in balancing your work and personal/family life?" (Clarke et al., 2004; Keene and Quadagno, 2004). Although this approach focuses on individuals' role-related activities across the two major life domains and is therefore useful for descriptive purposes, this approach to measuring work–family balance has several problems.

A major concern raised by Grzywacz and Carlson, (2007) is whether a single item is capable of accurately measuring and summarising individuals' overall performance in multiple role domains like work and family. The work and family domains have different and conflicting demands and responsibilities. Therefore, asking an individual to summarize his/her effectiveness across domains is likely to lead to over simplification of the core but complex issues associated

with the two domains. It is doubtful whether individuals can perform such complex perceptive or cognitive tasks of having a general assessment of how well one is doing across domains. According to Rantanen (2008), because this and other items focus on the emotional elements of work and family (example, how successful do you feel . . .), it raises questions about the degree to which work-related attitudes and behaviours in multiple life domains can be accurately appraised. Studies have suggested that individuals have different notions of balance and that what may be perceived as balance by an individual may be different from another. Hence the validity of universal, single-item approaches to measuring WLB is further weakened by the fact that salience of work-and-life-related role can vary considerably from person to person, and it is difficult to know whether individuals have the same understanding of the concepts of "success" and "balance" when they are responding to single-item questions of their WLB. These weaknesses in the universal approach to measuring WLB have led to the use of the components approach.

2.6.2   Components Approach to Measuring WLB

A plausible alternative to the overall or universal approach to measuring WLB is to measure different aspects of work–life balance. This approach to work-life balance means that work-life balance is made up of multiple components that lead to balance and give meaning to it (Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007) and therefore highlights balance as a direct formative latent construct (Edwards and Bagozzi, 2000). The advantage of the components approach over the overall appraisals approach to measuring WLB is that one can use conceptually based measures of balance that tap into the different aspects of WLB. These aspects form the overall assessment

of how well an individual is meeting role-related responsibilities in both work and life domains (Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007).

According to Marks and MacDermid (1996) and), Greenhaus et al. (2003), work-life balance consists of three dimensions: time balance, involvement balance, and satisfaction balance. *Time balance* refers to equal time devoted to work and non-work demands, *involvement balance* refers to equal psychological effort and presence invested, and *satisfaction balance* refers to equal satisfaction expressed across work and family roles. Greenhaus et al. (2003) percieve work-family balance as a scale where imbalance in favour of the work role lies at one end, and imbalance in favour of the family role lies at the other end, and *balance* lies in the middle favouring neither work nor family role.

It is worth noting that work-life balance and imbalance are not necessarily seen as advantageous or harmful, respectively, for psychological well-being and quality of life. Instead, Greenhaus et al. (2003) suggest that there is a need to test whether time, involvement, and satisfaction balance is better for an individual than imbalance in favour of either the work or family role. In other words, what may be seen as imbalance in favour of work may actually lead to satisfaction for an employee and the reverse is true. For example, in Greenhaus et al.'s (2003) study, it was revealed that among individual with high levels of participation in both work and life domains, those who reported the highest quality of life were those who had invested more in their family domains than the work role. This means that they showed an imbalance in favour of family. In regard to their level of engagement, individuals who allocated the same amount of time for both work and family or non-work domains scored lower in quality of life than those favouring family over

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work, but higher than those who favoured work over family. Thus, those who invested most in work had the lowest quality of life. These findings gives credence to the spillover concept of WLB earlier discussed. This is explained further by Frone's (2003) four-fold taxonomy of work-family balance.

In her four-fold taxonomy of work-family balance, Frone (2003) defined work-family balance as "low levels of inter-role conflict and high levels of inter-role facilitation" (p. 145). The four-fold taxonomy is based on the idea that work and non-work domains are bi-directional, meaning that participation in the work role may interfere with or enhance the performance and effectiveness in the family or non-work role, and likewise, participation in the family role may interfere or enhance performance in the work role (Frone et al., 1992; Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; Grzywacz and Marks, 2000). This is in-line with the spillover approach to WLB where feelings or emotions as well as resources in one domain can transition into the other domain to either enhance satisfaction and good function or weaken effectiveness in the other domain. Accordingly, work-life balance (low conflict, high facilitation/enhancement/enrichment) is hypothesized to occur in two directions: from work to non-work domains and vice versa. Thus, according to Frone (2003), there are four measurable components of work-life balance and they are; work-to-family/non-work conflict, family/non-work-to-work conflict, work-to-family/non-work enhancement, and family/non-work-to-work enhancement.

This notion that work-life balance consists of multiple constructs or dimensions, such as work-non-work conflict and enhancement in both directions, is critical to the components approach because it captures more fully the concept of WLB than the overall appraisal approach

(Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007) discussed earlier. However, the complexity of the components approach may lead to vagueness in understanding an individual's work-life balance experience (Rantanen, 2008). For example, it is easy to agree that high role enhancement combined with low conflict constitutes work-life balance and that the opposite (low enhancement, high conflict) constitutes work-life imbalance because research has shown enhancement to be linked with high and beneficial psychological well-being while conflict has been variously linked with low psychological well-being (Rantanen, 2008). However, this Frone's component model raises several unanswered questions. For instance, what happens if one experiences high enhancement and high conflict or alternatively low enhancement and low conflict simultaneously? Do these experiences reflect work-life balance? Does high work/non-work enhancement counterbalance the negative effect of high work/non-work conflict on well-being? Additionally, is high enhancement still needed to produce a positive effect on wellbeing when work/non-work conflict is not experienced? To find answers to these questions, a new four-dimensional typology of work-life balance has been proposed by Rantanen (2008).

In Rantanen's (2008) proposed four-dimensional typology, individuals can belong to beneficial, harmful, active or passive work-life balance types. In line with role conflict model (Frone, 2003; Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; Kahn et al., 1964), role enhancement model (Marks, 1977; Wayne et al., 2007) and the demands-resources approach (Bakker and Geurts, 2004; Voydanoff, 2005), the term *beneficial* balance refers to the proposition that the simultaneous experience of work-/non-work enhancement and absence of work/non-work conflict facilitates employees' effective psychological functioning and well-being. According to Rantanen (2008), this occurs because the resources provided and gains attained from participating in multiple roles exceed the

demands of both roles. Harmful balance, in turn, refers to the suggestion that the simultaneous experience of work/non-work conflict and the absence of work-non-work enhancement can lead to poor psychological functioning and well-being, because the combined demands of multiple roles exceed the benefits that may accrue to the individual participating in both role. Thus, the main differentiating factor between beneficial and harmful work-life balance is psychological functioning, due to inequality and imbalance in role-related resources and demands (Rantanen, 2008).

Furthermore, active and passive work-life balances are considered to represent the opposite ends of the continuum of role engagement. Based on the theory of role balance by Marks and MacDermid (1996), role balance reflects a behavioural and cognitive-affective pattern of acting and feeling across different roles with either high or low dedication. Thus, according to Rantanen (2008), active balance suggests that individuals may be highly engaged in their life roles both by choice (will to succeed and achieve happiness in different spheres of life) and/or by necessity (due to tough demands from different life spheres). Passive balance, on the other hand, suggests that the simultaneous absence of work/non-work conflict and enhancement experiences may be the result of low engagement or participation across life roles (conflicting role demands are perhaps avoided but also rewards or resources are not gained) or a composition of life roles that are less demanding or challenging.

2.6.3   Outcomes of the two measurement approaches

In order to assess the effectiveness of the two approaches discussed above, Grzywacz and Carlson in 2007, studied the difference in work and family outcomes, such as satisfaction and

stress by two methods: using a single item of work-family balance (overall appraisal) and by using the four-fold taxonomy of work-family balance (that is, the components approach presented by Frone, 2003).

Their results showed that the components approach produced systematically higher explanation rates than did the overall appraisal. For example, in the case of job stress, the respective explanation rates were 45% for the components approach as against 18% for the overall appraisal approach. Therefore Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) recommended the use of measures of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment for investigating and assessing the experience of work-family balance.

Studies measuring the bi-directional work-life conflict and enhancement have most often relied on the variable-oriented approach to work-life balance with the goal of finding out which of the four work-life balance components is correlated with what outcomes. For example, studies have that work-to-life conflict is related to various forms of psychological ill-being (distress, fatigue, job exhaustion, and dissatisfaction at work and home), whereas life-to-work conflict has most often been found to be related only to low family satisfaction and fatigue (Geurts et al., 2005; Kinnunen et al., 2006; Wayne et al., 2004). Work-to-life enhancement, in turn, is associated with high job satisfaction, low job exhaustion and low psychological distress, while life-to-work enhancement has shown a positive association with family satisfaction (Aryee et al., 2005; Kinnunen et al., 2006; Wayne et al., 2004).

The different views of work-life balance in the literature reviewed so far suggest that WLB has at least three important features. First of all, work-life balance is not a one-dimensional construct but rather a collection of multiple measurable constructs. Different academics have different views about WLB. Many scholars suggest that work-life balance consists of high beneficial rewards, resources and enhancement combined with low concerns, demands and conflict experienced by individuals across their work and life roles (Barnett and Baruch, 1985; Frone, 2003; Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007; Tiedje et al., 1990; Voydanoff, 2005; Rantanen (2008). Second, in addition to role-related resources and demands over which individuals may or may not have control, work-life balance seems to stem also from individuals' own personality, actions, attitudes and their perception of socio-cultural roles. It is normally assumed that acting with equal devotion and being equally satisfied with one's life roles reflects a work-life balance that produces the ability to manage multiple roles successfully (Greenhaus et al., 2003; Marks and MacDermid, 1996). Third, the achieved balance between work and non-work roles (whether in favour of work or non-work roles) is expected to be beneficial and should lead to satisfaction and well-being in life (Bakker, 2007).

2.6.4   Work and family demands and resources

Majority of the research and academic conversations around WLB revolve around how employees can manage competing demands for resources. From Frone's (2003) conception of WLB, achieving WLB depends on the time and effort one allocates to work and/or non-work domains and the enhancement and/or conflicts that results from one's engagement in the two main spheres of life (work/non-work). However, the effective allocation of time and effort and the resulting level of engagement in the different spheres of life depend largely on the demands

emanating from work and non-work domains, the available resources and efficient management of those resources in order to meet one's work and non-work roles/demands. This section of the literature review extends the analysis of the components approach to WLB to a cross-domain approach in which work demands are compared with family resources and family demands are compared with work resources. This approach embraces the spill over theory and according to Voydanoff (2005), results in two types of work-life balance or fit: work demands-family resources fit and family demands–work resources fit. Fit occurs when work resources meet, offset, or satisfy family demands and vice versa. This suggests two types of demands and resources that are associated with work-family fit: within-domain work and family demands and resources and boundary-spanning demands and resources. These two types are expected to differ in their relationships to work-family fit (Voydanoff, 2005).

2.6.4.1 Within-Domain Demands and Resources

The work and family domains both consist of demands or responsibilities as well as resources. In other words, the social organization of work incorporates the demands and content of jobs, whereas family social organization consists of the division of labour among family members. Norms and expectations associated with work include job descriptions, employment policies, and work culture. Families operate within the context of role expectations and gender ideology rooted in values, norms and culture. Aside the demands, the work and family domains include various forms of support from domain members such as supervisors and co-workers at work and from family members (such as spouse and children) at home (Voydanoff, 2001). According to Voydanoff (2001), participation in a domain may limit the ability of the individual to meet the demands in the other domain. This is in line with the scarcity theory which suggests that

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resources such as time and energy are limited and can be stretched and depleted due to individual's participation in multiple domains (Greenhaus and ten Brummelhuis, 2013). This is because the total amount of time available to an individual is fixed, and participation in multiple roles reduces the total amount of time available to meet all demands, thereby creating conflict and strain on the individual (Marks, 1977 and Goode, 1960).

The inability of individuals participating in multiple domains to effectively meet obligations in one domain due to the depletion of resources in another domain can lead to time-based and strain-based demands (Casper et al., 2013). Time-based demands limit participation in one domain because of the drain of resource in which one domain limits the time or involvement available for participation in another domain (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). The resource depletion through time-based demands can happened in two ways. First, the amount of time spent in one role reduces the amount of time available for the other role, and secondly, obsession or salience with one role impairs the ability to function in the other role, despite the individual's physical presence (Bartolome and Evans, 1979). Paid work hours, non-standard work schedules, time caring for young children and ill relatives, and time spent in household work are examples of time-based work and family demands.

Though several studies (Bohen and Viveros-Long, 1981) have shown that married women with children are more likely to experience time-based conflict, this will not be the case across board since individuals are different (Holahan and Gilbert, 1979; Pleck, 1977) and will adopt coping strategies to accommodate time demands in one domain by decreasing the amount of time allocated to another domain.

Strain-based demands occurs through a process of psychological spill-over in which the strain resulting from participating in one domain bleeds into another domain such that it creates strain in the second domain, thereby negatively affecting effective role performance in that domain (Culbertson, Mills and Fullagar 2012). Role overload, role conflict and time pressure are examples of strain-based work and family demands. Some time-based demands can lead to strain-based demands. An example of this may be the time spent caring for young children may create strain-based demands such as role overload and this can bleed into the work domain such that the individual becomes distracted or mentally disengaged while fulfilling the work demands.

On the other hand, resources found within work and family domains leads to processes that improve performance when they spill across domains. They include enabling resources and psychological rewards. For example, enabling resources from the work domain may generate resources in the family domain that provide the means for enhancing participation in the family domain. Enabling resources generally are associated with the structure or content of domain activities, for example, skills and abilities developed through domain activity, behaviours associated with role activities, and the availability of social support from others involved in the domain. For example, enabling resources such as autonomy at work and support from supervisor and co-workers in the work domain may increase the competence and capacities of individuals to perform more effectively in other domains through the process of spillover or what Greenhaus and Allen (2006) call 'enrichment'.

Similarly, Sieber (1974) proposed that rewards from either work or non-work domain can help employees effectively participate in another domain through the process of positive spillover.

Personal development of skills and growth, status security and privileges, are a few examples of rewards that can spill over from one domain to enhance participation and satisfaction in another domain. Psychological resources can serve as a form of reward that can make employees feel esteemed and valued by their organisations and intrinsic rewards are characterised by meaningful activities and autonomy. Examples of psychological resources include pride in one's work, meaningful work and the respect gained from the performance of work and family activities. From the above discussion, it can be deduced that the level of fit between multiple role demands is determined by the extent to which enabling resources and psychological rewards in either the work or non-work domain meet and off-set the time-based and strain-based demands in the other domain (Voydanoff, 2005).

2.7   Job Resources and Positive Organisational Behaviour

The field of POB is a response to the criticism that research in industrial psychology is primarily dedicated to addressing mental illness rather than mental ''wellness''. Studies on negative employee emotions are more than those that report on positive emotions (Myers, 2000). Such research are normally focused on the negative effects of job demands which refer to those aspects of a job that "require sustained physical and/or psychological effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs" (Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008, pg. 150).

The emerging area of positive psychology suggests a shift from this old-fashioned focus on weaknesses as a result of work and moves toward human strengths and high levels of effectiveness (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). A similar move from an emphasis on burnout towards employee engagement has been put proposed by Maslach et al., (2001). Consequently,

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this study is premised on the positive organizational scholarship which is defined as ''the study of that which is positive, flourishing, and life-giving in organizations and is concerned with the positive aspects of the organizational context that influence employee's to thrive (Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008, pg. 152). One such factor that organisations can provide to help individuals thrive is job resources.

Employees often need job-related resources (such as job decision latitude and occupational rewards) to cope with the demands of their job. Job resources can be generally described as those aspects of the job which can lead to buffering job demands and related efforts (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). Also, job resources can refer to the physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of a job that (1) may reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, (2) are functional in achieving work goals, and (3) stimulate personal growth, learning, and development. Hence, job resources may play the role of hygiene factors at work because they are necessary to deal with job demands and to achieve work goals. In addition, job resources are also intrinsically motivating for employees because they satisfy the basic psychological needs of autonomy, belongingness and competence, (Van den Broeck et al, 2008). In their job demand-resources model, Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) posit that job resources can act as triggers of the motivational process, to increase work engagement which, in turn, is associated with positive outcomes such as, for example, organizational commitment.

The motivational process associated with job resources may play either an intrinsic motivational role because they foster employees' growth, learning and development, or they may play an extrinsic motivational role because they are instrumental in achieving work goals. In the former

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case, job resources fulfil basic human needs, such as the needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). This is in line with the self-determination theory (Deci and Ryan, 1985) which posits that work contexts that support psychological autonomy, competence, and relatedness enhance well-being (i.e., vigour) and increase intrinsic motivation (Ryan and Frederick, 1997). For instance, proper feedback fosters learning, thereby increasing job competence, whereas decision latitude and social support satisfy the need for autonomy and the need to belong, respectively (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). According to Hackman and Oldham, (1980) intrinsic motivational potential of job resources is also recognized by job characteristics theory (JCT).

The theory hypothesizes that job characteristics such skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback are linked with positive outcomes such as high-quality work performance, job satisfaction, and low absenteeism and turnover (Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). Job resources may also play an extrinsic motivational role, because, according to the Effort-Recovery model, work environments that offer many resources foster the willingness to dedicate one's efforts and abilities to the work task (Meijman and Mulder, 1998) thereby engendering cognitive engagement among employees. In that case it is likely that the task will be completed successfully and that the work goal will be achieved.

Hence, whether the motivational process is intrinsic or extrinsic, the outcome is positive and engagement—a fulfilling, positive work-related state of mind—is likely to occur. In its turn, it is plausible to assume that engaged workers have a high tendency to have a positive perception of their organisation due to the provision of valued job resources that enhance learning, growth, and

development (Houkes, et al., 2001). The current study focuses on the positive effect of job resources and its effect on WLB and employee engagement.

2.8   Gender ideologies/roles, adaptive strategies, personal characteristics

Gender roles in work and non-work domains are constantly changing. The traditional approach of viewing females as homemakers and nurturers and the male as the sole wage earner or breadwinner has changed over time (Lease, 2003). Shifts in explicit and implicit social norms have led to men and women placing a premium on both work and non-work roles (Gordon and Whelan-Berry, 2005). Due to these changes, it is now common for both men and women to participate in both work and non-work domains in most developed and even developing countries. Extant research has demonstrated the positive and significant effects of a satisfying and effective participation in work and non-work roles on the mental health and overall satisfaction for both women and men (Barnett et al., 1995). This is in line with the role accumulation theory by Marks (1997) and the resource theory by Hobfoll, (2002) both of which suggest that participation in both work and non-work domains inure to the benefit of individuals in the form of effective role performance and general wellbeing. These benefits according to them, is because when an individual participates in both domains, the sources to draw resources from increases or expands. These work and family or non-work roles are generally gender-based in most societies. This means that the roles played by men and women in society are based on the gender of the participant engaged in the role being enacted.

Scholars have suggested that gender is different from sex (Ahl, 2006). To them, sex refers to the biological characteristic of individuals based on physiological properties, whereas gender refers to beliefs about what is characteristic of or appropriate for members of one sex more than the

other (Archer and Lloyd, 2002; Lippa, 2005). From a very tender age, children are introduced to commonly held beliefs about what psychological traits are characteristic of each sex (gender stereotypes) and what role behaviours are seen as suitable for males and females (herein referred to as gender roles) (Kite et al., 2008). This gender ideology which takes its roots from the socialization process and which is encouraged by society ensures that both males and females adhere to the set gender roles (Lippa, 2005). Thus, the internalization of gender stereotypes and gender roles during childhood and adolescence influences adult frame of reference, attitudes and behaviours by making individuals more receptive to information that matches their deeply held expectations and views of themselves (Markus et al., 1982). Thus, gendered socialization and internalization molds individuals' assumptions concerning how males and females should behave and the appropriate roles to engage in, including work and non-work roles.

Traditional gender roles suggest that women naturally belong to the home where they keep the home and nurture the family while men's proper place is at the workplace, earning income for the up-keep of the family (Wood and Eagly, 2010). In recent decades, strict adherence to gender roles has declined, and this is evidenced by the increased participation of women in the labour force in both developed and developing countries. However, households with the male as the breadwinner remain more predominant than female-breadwinner households (U.S. Department of Labour, Bureau of Labour Statistics, 2011), and society still expect working women to put more emphasis on their family (nurturing) role (Wood and Eagly, 2010; Lippa, 2005). Scholars such as Orser et al. (2006) and Hundley, (2001) have argued that this expectation of women by society decreases the chances of success in women's career pursuits. For example, women's working experiences may be hampered by family responsibilities and gender-related roles such

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as child-bearing, resulting in slow career progress and may lead to work–family conflict (Stoner et al., 1990). Ahl (2006), writing on the effect of family responsibilities on the success of female entrepreneurs suggested that the time females spend on family related roles puts them at a disadvantage in competing with their male counterparts in the corporate world.

The perception that one has successfully balanced work and family demands and resources is based on an intricate psychological process in which individuals assess the fit between work demands and family resources and between family demands and work resources (Voydanoff, 2005). When this assessment leads to a perception of misfit, strategies are adopted by the individual and the other domain members such as family members to cope with and resolve the imbalance (Voydanoff, 2005). These adaptive strategies are often guided by both internal and external motives (and personal values), such as the salience or importance of the role to the individual or whether the individual can have support for those activities (Powell and Greenhaus, 2006). Individuals adopt different strategies to manage their daily lives in order to cope with the ever increasing demands both at home and at work (Haddock et al., 2001). These coping strategies can be categorised into two types of adaptive strategies. The two types of adaptive strategies that could be adopted to increase work-life balance include increasing resources (for example, hire house help) and decreasing demands (for example, reduce paid work hours) (Voydanoff, 2005). Empirical studies that have tested the effect of adaptive strategies on work-life balance (Milkie and Peltola, 1999; Keene and Quadagno, 2004), have led to contradicting outcomes. The generally negative associations between adaptive strategies (at home) and work-life balance reported by these studies are weakened further by the different results based on gender differences. For example, adaptive strategies made at home by women, severely affected

their balance, whereas adaptive strategies at work was more strongly associated with men's balance. These inconsistent outcomes have increased the interest of researchers to investigate the effect of different adaptive strategies on the work-life balance of men and women in relation to the increasing resources and/or the decreasing work-life demands among different groups of workers (Wierda-Boer et al., 2008).

Among dual earner couple, working and taking care of the family involves both partners and therefore, it is likely that adaptive strategies will affect partners' work-life balance. According to Westman (2002), social support may be the underlying mechanism because one partner reducing his or her paid work hours may result in that partner having more time available to take on more family responsibilities, thereby providing greater support to the other partner. Alternatively, adaptations at home, in the form of reducing household duties, may negatively affect the other partner's work-life balance because the other partner will have to assume more household duties. This suggests that the relationship between adaptive strategies and work-life balance may vary due to personal characteristics (Voydanoff, 2005). Personal characteristics may contribute directly to a successful reconciliation of work and family demands and resources by offsetting the demands of multiple roles (Clarke, Koch, and Hill, 2004). For example, single or unmarried individuals may have different non-work demands from married individuals and hence, the resources available to the different sets of employees will vary and may have a potential influence on their work-life balance. The same can be said of male and female employees due to their identification with either masculinity or femininity. However, research as proved that individuals who possess both masculine and feminine characteristics can help individuals cope better with work-life demands.

While masculinity refers to an individual's identification with stereotypical masculine roles, femininity, on the other hand, refers to an individual's identification with stereotypical feminine roles (Wierda-Boer et al., 2008). Additionally, while masculine roles are agentic and instrumental, feminine traits according to Bem (1974) are communal and expressive. Masculinity and femininity are rooted within social contexts and are therefore reinforced socially (Spence and Helmreich, 1978). However, masculinity and femininity are not at the opposite ends of a scale; rather, an individual can simultaneously possess both masculine and feminine traits. The integration of feminine and masculine characteristics or traits is referred to as androgyny (Bem, 1974).

Several studies have reported that androgynous individuals are able to adaptive to the work-life demands better than individuals who possess only one gender characteristic or trait (Wierda-Boer et al, 2008). This is because individuals with androgynous characteristics can perform both instrumental and nurturing roles effectively and are likely to be engaged in de-gendered (feminine and masculine) role responsibilities (King and King, 2006). Haddock et al., (2001) have identified de-gendered role responsibilities as one of the key success factors in employees' efforts to balance multiple role demands. This means that androgynous individuals, who identify with masculine as well as feminine traits, are more likely to be successful in balancing work and non-work roles compared to individuals with primarily masculine or feminine traits. Hence, gender ideology is an important link to consider as one of the intervening mechanisms that may affect the relationships between work-life balance policies and the actual attainment of work-life balance among employees. This is because effects usually attributed to gender may in fact be

related to gender role assumed by men and women, their adaptive strategies and the masculine or feminine traits or characteristics of individuals.

Apart from the role of gender, adaptive strategies and individual characteristics in shaping individuals' work-life balance, organisations also play a critical role in helping employees to effectively manage the boundaries between work and family or non-work domains. The next section of this chapter reviews literature on the organisational dimension of work-life balance.

2.9   Organisational Work-life Balance Policies

Employees' work-life experiences is shaped in part by the organisations and the arrangements made at the workplace is critical in improving the quality of working life and facilitating work-life balance among employees. Conditions at work and workplace policies can ease or aggravate an individual's efforts to handle their work and home responsibilities. Social relationships informal norms and practices at work, and work culture, are also influential in determining people's work-life experiences (Blair-Loy and Wharton 2002). Though individuals may develop their personal coping strategies for managing their work and family or non-work roles, the effectiveness and success of these strategies depend largely upon characteristics of the work-place. An understanding of how organizations respond to issues regarding work-life domains is also significant because of the well documented effect of these responses on employees' work-related attitudes and behaviours and how these in-turn affect work outcomes and employee wellbeing. Additionally, it impacts on the organisation's reputation and the bottom-line (Kelly et al. 2008).

Although work-life policies and practices are enacted by national governments in most parts of the industrialised world, WLB policies and practices continue to be employer-driven even in developed countries like the United States (Kossek et al. 2010) and more so in developing countries like Ghana. Consequently, most of the research on organizational interventions such as policies and practices of WLB focus on the United States (Lyness and Kropf, 2005; Kelly et al, 2008). Different organisational benefits and programs geared towards enabling employees to balance the demands in their work and life domains are included under the ''family-friendly'' label which has been generally defined as ''any benefit, working condition, or personnel policy that has been shown empirically to decrease job-family conflicts among working parents'' (Glass and Fujimoto 1995, pg.382). Policies can be further categorised into those having to do with flexibility in scheduling, location or place of work; paid or unpaid leave to care for sick child or significant others; and dependent care policies, such as referral services, on-site child care, care subsidies (Davis and Kalleberg 2006). The term ''work-family initiatives'' has been used by Kelly et al. (2008, pg.310) as a comprehensive way to refer to organizational efforts or interventions to ''reduce work-family conflict and/or support employees' lives outside of work.'' Based in part on the above, and also on the all-inclusive nature of this study, organisational WLB policies or initiatives is operationalized in this study as a process which involves organisations partnering with employees to manage their work and non-work boundaries in such a way as to reduce inter-role conflict and achieve satisfaction and good functioning (effectiveness) in work and non-work domains within the context of their personal values and the socially negotiated and shared expectations of work and non-work domain members.

Organisational WLB policies or initiatives can be categorized into flexible work arrangements and dependent care supports (Hammer et al., 2013). Flexible work arrangements was borne out

of the workplace flexibility concept which is 'the ability of workers to make choices influencing when, where, and for how long they engage in work-related tasks' (Hill et al., 2008, pg. 152). From the definition, the ability of employees to make 'choices' on when, where and how long they work, has proved to promote optimal individual and organisational outcomes (Voydanoff, 2002). Workplace flexibility can be further categorised into schedule flexibility, location flexibility and reduced work load. According to Hill and Morrison (2013), while schedule flexibility allows workers to change their work schedules to suit their personal, family or business needs, location flexibility can be defined as working outside the traditional workplace using telecommunication and computer-based technology as communication tools. A third category under workplace flexibility is reduced workload which involves fewer hours of work and fewer job responsibilities than what is normally expected of workers in fulltime employment. The following table shows the various options under the three categories of workplace flexibility.
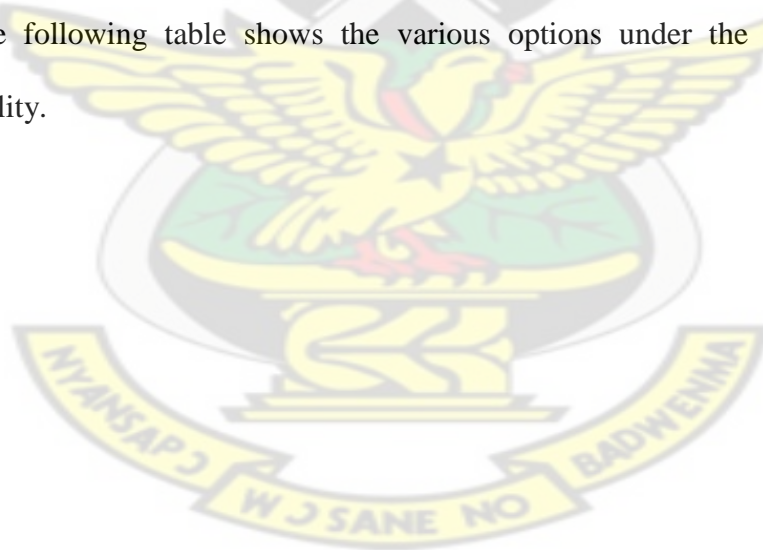
Table 2.3 Workplace flexibility options

Type of workplace flexibility	Description	Source(s)
Schedule flexibility		
Flexitime	Permits employees to arrange their daily work hours within a range of acceptable options.	Baltes et al., 1999
Compressed work week	Allows employees to work their weekly hours in fewer days than the standard five-day work week.	Grzywacz et al., 2008
Location Flexibility		
Telecommuting	Allows workers to work remotely from their traditional places of work on a part time or full time basis.	Hill et al., 2001
Virtual office and mobility	Employees are given the portable means to do their jobs and the freedom to choose what work venue would best meet personal and business needs.	Hill et al., 1998
Reduced workload		
Part time	Permits employees to work fewer hours per work than the traditional 40 hours of work per week.	Barnett and Gareis, 2000
Job sharing	Allows two employees to share one job.	Turner, 1996
Transition from leave	Permits employees transitioning from full time leave to work reduced (20-30) hours per week until they gradually return to full time work.	Hill et al., 2008
Phased retirement	Allows employees to temporarily reduce their work schedule just before they go on full retirement.	de Vaus et al., 2007

Source: Author's compilation, 2014 Turner, L. (1996). Time out with half-time: Job sharing in the nineties. *Canadian Journal of Counselling*, 30:2, p. 104-114.

Several research has found various forms of workplace flexibility to reduce stress and burnout (Gryzwacz et al., 2008), buffer employees from workplace conflict (Hill et al., 2001), higher perception of autonomy, increased job performance and reduced turnover among employees (Gajendran and Harrison, 2007). Flexible work arrangements do not always lead to positive outcomes. It can also have some negative effects in the form of heightened role strain as revealed by Yuile et al.,'s (2012) study. This is in line with one of the propositions of Ashforth's (2000) boundary theory which cautions against the dark side of integrating the work and non-work domains by reducing the demarcations between the boundaries and blurring boundaries.

Dependent care supports include eldercare supports, on-site childcare and organisation-sponsored referral services. Although investigations into the effect of dependent care supports is rare, the results of the few studies that have been conducted have had mixed results. For example, though a few research have linked arrangments that support dependent care to reduced turnover (Blair-Loy and Wharton, 2002) and reduced absenteeism (Thomas and Ganster, 1995), Yuile et al.,'s (2012) study did not reveal any significant relationship between dependent care supports and employees' self-reported experience of WLB.

In the past two decades, employers have pursued a wide range of work-family initiatives to enable employee better manage the demands of their work and non-work domains. The adoption of family-friendly policies and practices is a typical example. However, the responsiveness of organizations to work-family issues vary from country to country and from industry to industry, depending upon internal factors such as top management philosophy regarding gender issues and the labour market structure or the percentage of female employees and external factors such as

the firm's vulnerability to pressure groups, such as the media and government (Goodstein, 1994).

Particularly, the pressure from government is more pronounced especially in countries that have

signed up to the International Labour Organisation (ILO) convention on workers with family

responsibilities (ILO, Convention, 156, 1981). Generally, larger organizations due to their

greater visibility and resources are more likely to offer work-life policies than smaller

organisations with less visibility and fewer employees. It also more likely for larger

organisations to experience a lot more public pressure and scrutiny as more is demanded from

them. By offering family-friendly policies, organisations send a signal to both potential

employees and customers that they are concerned about their employees and their families, and

these signals are good not only for recruiting top employees and but also retaining them.

It is also important to note that even in the same organisation, some groups of employees are

more likely than other employees to have access to and are more likely to use work-life balance

policies than others. For example, Deitch and Huffman (2001, p. 122) found that:

> ''All else being equal, organizations with higher-salaried core employees, more
> opportunity for advancement within the organization, and greater employer investment in
> employee training were more generous in providing family-responsive as well as
> conventional fringe benefits. Increased sex segregation, either in the exclusion of women
> or a strong preference for hiring women, was associated with decreased provision of
> family benefits.''

Extant research has revealed that employees occupying managerial and professional positions are

more likely than blue collar workers to have access to work–life balance policies and to take

advantage of them (Wharton, 2012). These workers are often in high demand and hence

organisations often use family-friendly policies as a recruitment strategy. Additionally, while

organisations whose workforce consists of a greater percentage of women are more likely to

offer flexible working arrangements than comparable organisations, women in low-wage jobs do

not normally have access to these same policies. Aside low-wage jobs other factors that may

negatively affect women's access to work-life balance policies include part-time jobs, occupying non-professional jobs, having low organisational tenure or working in a relatively small firm (Haley et al. 2001). Access to work-life balance policies, however, is dependent on employees' awareness and willingness to use the available policies.

2.9.1   WLB policy awareness and usage

Kodz et al.'s (2002) research on organisational policies in the United Kingdom (UK) suggested that employees are often not aware of organisational work-life balance interventions even after these policies are implemented in their organisation. For example, Yeandle et al., (2002) in their study of 945 employees from six organisations, found that 50% of employees were unaware of the WLB practices offered by their organizations. Interestingly, the study revealed that even when employees were completely informed of the WLB practices available to them; many were still unwilling to use them. This indicates that even when WLB policies are in place and employees are aware of their existence, the WLB policies may still be underutilized due to other extenuating reasons (Lewis, Kagan and Heaton, 2000). One of the major reasons why employees may not want to use WLB policies though they may be interested in it can be attributed to the type of work-life culture existing in the organisation which may be characterised by the ideal worker syndrome. This refers to a work culture that encourages and rewards employees who are 'perpetually' available for work no matter the time of day. This idea stems from a masculine construction of employee who puts work first and never seems to have any personal or non-work responsibilities. According to Estes (2003), constructing the organizational environment as possessing masculine features such as fast paced, competitive, and frequently all-encompassing work environment, produces an "ideal worker" syndrome which appears to have neither responsibility for nor obligation to anybody outside the organization.

Generally, professionals and managers who have the ambition to progress in their careers are likely to avoid the use of work-life balance policies for fear that the use of such policies may send wrong signals about their level of commitment to their work and career (Ryan and Kossek, 2008, Aryee et al., 2013 and Blair-Loy and Wharton 2002). These fears have been proved empirically by Almer and Kaplan (2002) who through their study of employees in a public accounting firm found that employees who used flexibility policies were seen by their co-workers as less committed and less likely to succeed in their careers than those who were not using the flexibility policies. Moreover, this effect was much stronger among men who used the flexibility policies than women.

Aside the gender differences in the use of WLB policies and in line with the 'ideal worker' syndrome, employees with career aspirations are less likely to use leave provisions due to the perception among employees that making use of the leave policy may be seen as lack of commitment to the organization and thus, may affect their career progression. This proposition is also supported empirically. Brandth and Kvande's (2002), study of 1,360 working fathers in Norway, revealed that men tended to reduce their use of paternity leave as they climbed and progressed up the corporate ladder despite the fact that they were entitled to it. To buttress this view, Eaton (2003) also found in his study of 463 professional and technical employees in biopharmaceutical firms, that employees were more likely to use work-life balance provisions only to the extent that they felt it will not be used against them or that it will not have negative effects on their career progression. Such employees who used these provisions were seen to be more committed to their organisation than those who did not use the policies. Similarly, an American Bar Association report indicates that despite the fact that 95% of American law firms

have a part-time employment policy available, only 3% of lawyers have used it due to the fear that its use might have a negative impact on their career (Cunningham, 2001). From the above discussion, it can be seen that the perception that using work-life balance provisions will negatively affect the career prospects of users appears to be demotivate employees' from using these practices (Kodz et al., 2002).

Another factor that may contribute to the less use or non-use of WLB policies is the manner in which these policies are implemented. The critical role of supervisors in the successful implementation of work-life balance policies has been empirically proven by several studies (Aryee et al., 2012, Hammer et al., 2013). There are also several studies that support the view that supervisors who are supportive of employees who use WLB initiatives play a critical role in the implementation of such policies (Allen, 2001 and Behson, 2005). However, Greenhaus et al (2012) suggest that the positive and significant relationship between supportive supervisors and the successful implementation of WLB policies is moderated or influenced by the level of employees' perception of organisational support.

2.9.2   Outcomes of WLB policies

The successful implementation of work-life balance policies relates to the positive effects of using work-life policy. Although some studies have shown that the use of work-family policies helps employees reduce and manage the conflict associated with the mutually exclusive role demands of the work/non-work domains, these effects are not always as direct as may be expected (Kelly et al. 2008). For example, Kelliher and Anderson's (2010) study of professional workers in the U.K found that employees who had access to and used work-life balance policies

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experienced more job satisfaction and organizational commitment than their colleagues who did not use the policies. However, those using work-life balance policies tended to expend greater effort on the job and worked more intensively than their colleagues who did not make use the work-life balance policies. This could be as a result of the indebtedness employees feel towards their employer due to the benefits they derive from their use of the work-life balance policies. In line with this view, Kelliher and Anderson (2010), drawing on the social exchange perspective, proposed that workers viewed their ability to use work-life balance policies as something given to them by their employer beyond the legal requirements and therefore reciprocated this act of care and kindness by expending greater effort on the job. This has resulted in employees exhibiting positive organizational behaviours such as dedication to and absorption in their work (Bakker et al, 2008).

However, as indicated earlier, the effects of work-life balance is not always direct. As Kelly et al. (2008) found out in their evaluation of the effects of work-family initiatives, efforts to understand this question have been hampered by methodological issues and measurement inaccuracies. Despite these challenges, many studies have shown WLB policies and practices to relate to numerous work-related outcomes such as organizational citizenship behaviours, task performance, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, absenteeism, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, work– family conflict, and physical well-being (Allen, 2001; Bagger and Li, 2011; Grandey et al., 2007; Kelly et al., 2008; Kossek et al., 2011; Thomas and Ganster, 1995; Thompson and Pottras, 2005). Although these findings highlight the usefulness of WLB policies, more delicate studies that provide detailed and nuanced information regarding who uses which policies and under what conditions, are needed. Additionally, there has been several calls for longitudinal studies of work-life policies that can be designed to experimentally measure cause

and effect (Major and Burke, 2013 and Wharton, 2012). Researchers such as Kelly et al.'s (2011) longitudinal study of a schedule flexibility initiative at Best Buy Co. Inc. represents such an effort. More importantly, their finding that professionals who participated in and used the organisational work-life balance initiative reported lower levels of work-family conflict and higher levels of work-family fit than employees who did not use the initiatives lends credence to the belief that changes in working conditions (including those made possible by an employee's use of a work-life balance policies) can be effective in improving employees' wellbeing by helping the employee to manage the often incompatible demands emanating from the work and non-work domains (Kelly et al., 2011).

It should however be noted that the outcomes of organisational WLB initiatives is not only restricted to employee wellbeing but employers also stand to benefit from work-life balance initiatives (Glass and Finley, 2002). Results from several studies have revealed that workers who use work-life policies and/or view their employer as supportive of their efforts to manage and balance the responsibilities from work and family or non-work domain report higher levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviour (Allen 2001; Behson 2005; Hill et al. 2004; Lambert 2000). Some research has also shown that organizational-level outcomes such as financial performance and productivity are also influenced by employers' support for work-family initiatives and/or employees' levels of work-life conflict (Arthur and Cook 2004; Perry-Smith and Blum 2000).

2.9.3   *Challenges associated with the implementation of WLB initiatives*

Regardless of employers' support for work-life initiatives and the positive effects of these initiatives on both employees and employers, organisations still have to grapple with how to create a more supportive workplace for working parents in a gender sensitive manner.

Additionally, another challenge that remains deeply rooted in workplace culture is the ''ideal worker norm,'' which assumes that paid work is the only and most important priority of employees. As indicated earlier, this norm is severely gendered, as it tends to reinforce behaviours more often expressed by men (Kelly et al. 2010). For example, the need for achievement at work over and above the need to take care of the home and nurture children is a predominantly a masculine perspective. Also, organisations contribute to this gendered perspective of work-life balance by the conflicting messages they send. For example, Mescher et al.'s (2010) content analysis of twenty-four company websites in four countries (United Kingdom, The Netherlands, Australia, and the United States) found a disconnection between companies' stated support for work-life balance and the implied messages conveyed on their websites. The implicit messages on their website suggested that work-life balance policies were primarily for women to use to help them meet their family demands such as providing care for a child, while also reinforcing the idea that valued employees are those who ''go the extra mile'' (Mescher et al. 2010, 35) and do not seem to have to spend time and effort on any other facet of their lives except for work. Similarly, Tienari et al., (2002), in their cross–national study on organizational-level processes, found evidence of the "ideal worker" norm in German and Finnish financial services firms. Based on their findings, they proposed that this "ideal worker" norm is also shaped by societal-level or context-driven processes. In sum, there are more work-family policies in place and more organisational efforts to support those with family responsibilities than in previous decades, yet both national and organisational cultural change has been slower. There is evidence that the national culture of a society influences organisational culture (Hofstede, 1990). Therefore, an organisational culture must be built that sends stronger and more focussed signals to employees that the usage of WLB policies will not result in

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punitive consequences to their career or to their continued stay in the organisation and that the organisation does care for the wellbeing. This will help employees develop a favourable perception of WLB policies and consequently of their organisation.

2.10   WLB and Employee Engagement

Employee engagement has been recognised as critical to an organisation's competitive advantage in a labour market where it has become increasingly difficult to find and retain skilled, committed people (Christian et al., 2011; Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008). Several factors including WLB has been identified as a concept that impact on employee engagement (Wasay, 2013). Companies need healthy and happy employees in order to meet the growing challenges of the modern workplace.

Drawing on the "positive psychology" movement (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), organizational scholars have applied the concept of positive organizational behaviour to examine the construct of employee engagement. An emerging body of research is beginning to converge around a common definition of work engagement as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 74; Demerouti et al., 2001; Hallberg and Schaufeli, 2006; Luthans and Peterson, 2002). Vigour (also referred to as the behavioural dimension of engagement) is characterized by "high levels of energy and mental resilience during work, the employees' willingness to invest effort in his work, and persist in the face of difficulties". Dedication (also referred to as the cognitive dimension of engagement) refers to being extremely involved in one's work and it is characterized by "a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge" (Hakanen, 2008; pg 225). The third defining characteristic of engagement is absorption (or

emotional dimension of engagement), which is characterized by "being fully concentrated and happily engrossed in one's work, a sense that time passes quickly, and difficulty in detaching oneself from work" (Hakanen, 2008; pg 225). Recent research suggests, however, that vigour and dedication constitute the core dimensions of engagement (e.g., Gonzalez-Roma, Schaufeli, Bakker, and Lloret, 2006). It must be noted that engagement is a pervasive state of positive emotional attachment and motivation toward one's work (Hallberg and Schaufeli, 2006). For this reason, the construct of engagement has generated the interest of both academics and practitioners (Macey and Schneider, 2008).

Other researchers have conceptualized work engagement as meaning high levels of personal effort and investment in the work tasks performed on a job (Macey and Schneider, 2008; Rich et al., 2010; Schaufeli et al., 2002). Employee engagement is however, not a new concept. The origins of employee engagement dates back to the work of Kahn (1990) who suggested that personal engagement as a state in which employees immerse themselves (physically, cognitively and emotionally) when performing work roles, investing their energies and experiencing an emotional connection with their work. In other words, work roles gives individuals the opportunity for them to apply themselves energetically, behaviourally, and expressively, in a manner that is holistic and spontaneous (Kahn, 1992; Rich et al., 2010). When conceptualised in this fashion, then work engagement becomes a motivational concept that denotes active allocation of employees' personal resources to accomplish the tasks associated with a work role (Rich et al., 2010).

Firstly, from Kahn's (1990) conceptualization of engagement it can be inferred that work engagement refers to a psychological connection between the employee and the performance of work tasks itself rather than an attitude toward some characteristics of the organization or the job (Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter, 2001). This psychological conceptualisation of work engagement is at variance with measures proposed by Gallup Workplace Audit which sought to measure employee engagement by focusing on items relating to job conditions or features and characteristics (GWA; Harter, Schmidt and Hayes, 2002) rather than the task itself. Secondly, Kahn's (1990) conceptualization of work engagement implies self-investment of personal resources (effort) in work. That is, engagement embodies the physical, emotional, and cognitive energies that individuals bring to their work role (Rich et al., 2010). This means that work engagement is not just the investment of a single facet of the one's self but the investment of multiple aspects of one's self (physical, emotional, and cognitive) such that the experience is simultaneous, complete and holistic (Rich et al., 2010; Kahn, 1992). This means that, employees who are engaged with their work tasks, experience a connection with their work on multiple levels due to their engagement at multiple dimensions of their personal self. From the foregoing it can be concluded that employee engagement is better explained as a psychological construct rather than a sociological construct (Christian et al., 2011).

For several years, researchers in the field have argued about the conceptualization of engagement as a "state" or a "trait." Although some researchers see engagement as a trait that is relatively stable over time and differentiates one individual from the other (e.g., Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli and Salanova, 2007), emerging research in the area has revealed that the level of an individual's engagement can experience moderate changes in the course of a day (Sonnentag,

2003). This is in line with Kahn (1990), who suggested that work engagement increases and decreases over the course of time. Again, the level of change can vary both between and within individuals. Thus, the variations in the level of engagement can change even within the same person over a period of time. Dalal et al. (2008) in trying to answer the question as to whether engagement should be theorised as a relatively stable trait, a temporally dynamic state, or both, suggested that just like many organisational behaviour constructs, engagement varies both between and within persons. Therefore, engagement is likely to contain both trait-like and state-like dimensions. In 2002, Schaufeli et al., referred to engagement as a state of mind that is relatively enduring but may fluctuate over time. This position is also held by Christian et al., 2011 who defined engagement as, a relatively stable state of mind referring to the instantaneous investment of physical, cognitive and emotional energies in the experience or performance of work. Also, conceptualising engagement as a state rather that a trait reveals the sociological aspect of the concept of engagement and gives credence to the Gallup Workplace Audit which focused on work engagement as a construct relating to job conditions or features and characteristics of the organisation (GWA; Harter, Schmidt and Hayes, 2002) rather than the task itself.

Another area of disagreement in the engagement literature is whether the concept of work engagement is simply a new wine in old wineskin and a re-branding of similar constructs (Macey and Schneider, 2008) such as organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Christian et al.'s (2011) research however, revealed that whereas job satisfaction is an evaluative judgement of one's job situation, engagement focuses on and describes one's experiences resulting from the accomplishment of work tasks. Also, though the

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concepts of job involvement and affective organizational commitment represent a cognitive and an emotional state of attachment to the organisation respectively, engagement is an all-encompassing construct that involves not only the emotional and cognitive attachment to the work itself but also involves physical (behavioural) investment or effort of the self. Therefore, as a construct, engagement is a higher order construct that embodies multiple dimensions of self.

In an attempt to establish the theoretical relevance of engagement as a unique construct that is identical to but not the same as other organisational behaviour constructs, several studies have focused on the nomological network of antecedents and consequences of engagement (Christian et al., 2011). Studies of engagement have mainly focused on identifying its antecedents. The category of research on the antecedents of engagement indicates that the concept is often a consequence of positive traits (e.g., positive affectivity) that is enduring, interesting working conditions, and inspiring leadership or social support (for example; work-life balance initiatives) (Macey and Schneider, 2008; Wasay, 2013). The second categories of studies that have examined the outcomes of engagement have found that it has positive and significant relationship with higher (task and contextual) performance (Harter, Schmidt, and Hayes, 2002; Christian et al., 2011; Anitha, 2014) and lower turnover intentions (Halbesleben and Wheeler, 2008; Schaufeli and Bakker, 2004). For this reason, the engagement literature seems to suggest that engagement is good from the perspective of both employers and employees alike, and there are existing empirical studies that support this view (Halbesleben et al., 2009).

2.11   Perceived Organisational Support (POS)

In traditional societies, men were seen as the main breadwinner and women were the care givers and nurturers at home. However, in modern societies, both men and women are in formal employment and are both required to contribute to the financial, emotional and psychological upkeep of the home. This, coupled with the increasing number of single parent families as well as employees with elder care responsibilities has brought with it overwhelming family demands (Kossek, 2005). Aside increasing family demands, changes in the work environment such globalization, the increased use of technology and hyper competition with its attendant delayering and downsizing has also increased the demands of work. These increased demands from both the family and work domains can lead to stress and burnout at the individual level and absenteeism, employee turnover and low productivity at the organisational level (Anderson, Coffey, and Byerly, 2002). Furthermore, these increased demands, according to Bragger et al., (2005), can have negative effect on several positive organisational behaviour concepts such as organizational citizenship behaviours, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. To reduce the negative effects of the increased demands of family and work, the value of social support at work cannot be overlooked. These effects on family (non-work) and work demands which are often conflicting can be reduced by the support of co-workers and supervisors. For example, co-workers can temporarily cover for employees so they can attend to pressing personal needs or family demands. For example, a co-worker can show support by offering to cover for a colleague who comes into work late due to eldercare responsibilities. The employee who received such support will experience less stress and increased well-being and be more engaged in work tasks upon his return because he can focus on the task at hand without worrying over the other non-work demands because it has been taken care of. Apart from co-worker

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support, supervisors play a critical role in offering social support to employees to help them cope better with the work and non-work demands. The control supervisors have over job resources and their control over the ability of employees to have access to these resources in the form of work-life balance initiatives is sine-qua-non to the employees' wellbeing when it comes to managing life's many demands (Straub, 2012). Existing research has shown that employees' perception of supervisor support for work-life balance have a greater impact on the use of WLB policies than just the mere availability of the policies and can reduce stress more than co-worker support (Rousseau and Aubé, 2010; Allen, 2001; Kelly et al., 2008)

The organisation itself also plays a role in helping employees better manage the demands from the work and non-work domains. According to organisational support theory, employees have a tendency to assign human-like features to their organisation (Eisenberger et al, 1986). Therefore, decisions and actions taken by supervisors (who are agents of the organisation) are likely to be perceived as the organisation's intentions rather than the personal intentions and motives of the supervisors. Because supervisors act as organisational agents, favourable treatment from supervisors should contribute to POS. Research on POS revealed that just as managers expect employees to be committed to the organisation, employees also expect the organisation to be committed to them. As such, the POS construct has been referred to as the commitment of the organisation to the employee. Organizational support theorists (Rhoades et al., 2001; Eisenberger et al. 1997) have argued that the strength of POS lies in employees' favourable experiences of the work environment. It is also based on employees' believe that these favourable and enabling experiences have been made possible by the discretionary decisions made by their organisation both purposefully and voluntarily without the need to comply with legal regulations. This implies

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that, the relationship between favourable work experiences and POS is strengthened when employees perceive and attribute favourable work experiences to discretionary acts by their organisation (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002).

Perceived organizational support is a one-dimensional construct of the general belief held by employees that the organization is committed to their wellbeing and that the organisation values his or her continued membership and contribution (Celik and Findik, 2012). Several factors have been found to contribute to POS and POS has been found to have several consequences on employee well-being and performance (Krishnan and Sheela, 2012).

A key factor that may influence employees' perceptions of organisational support may include organisational policies that aim at helping employees reduce work related stress or work-life conflict. However, if these policies are not supported by supervisors and the general work culture of the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 1986), employees will not utilize the policies.

This is supported by Liff and Cameron (1997); Brandth and Kvande (2002); Eaton (2003) and Cunningham (2001) whose studies in different countries and workers with different demographics have shown that a work culture that propagates the 'ideal worker' syndrome where workers are made to feel that spending more hours on the job and putting the job first to the detriment of personal non-work related responsibilities is a sign of commitment to the organisation and productivity which must be rewarded especially when it comes to making decisions on promotion. Conversely, such work environments punish employees who make use of work-life balance initiatives as they are less likely to be promoted due to their use of these initiatives (Lewis and Smithson, 2001). Hence employees with career aspirations are less likely

to access work-life initiative for fear of being perceived by co-workers and more importantly, managers as less committed to the cause of the organisation (Kodz et al., 2002). This position is supported by Ryan and Kossek (2008) who suggest that the successful implementation of work-life balance practices is based on supervisor support for use of the practices and the universality of work-life balance practice availability. These features of implementation will affect the extent to which work-life practices are perceived by employees as fulfilling their work-life needs and signalling support from the organization.

Additionally, managers or supervisors may be unsupportive of flexible work arrangements because they are either not aware of WLB policies or they lack training on WLB policies and their implications. Several studies have revealed a lack of managerial awareness and limited or no training on WLB policies among managers as key factors that hindered the ability of managers to refer employees to these policies when necessary. For example, one study revealed that factors completed unrelated to employees' requests to use work-life practices can have a strong effect on whether or not employees' request for the use of WLB practices will be granted by their managers. The study showed that female managers are more likely than male managers to grant requests for alternative work arrangements (Parker and Allen, 2002). This may be due to the ability of female managers to identify with employees with demanding responsibilities from the family domain because of the social belief that women are care givers at the home domain. Hence, supervisors with greater parental responsibility have been found to be more likely to help employees balance their work and home responsibilities, while supervisors with a greater need for career achievement have been found to be less accommodative when it comes to enabling

employees to manage and combine successfully their work and family demands (Parker and Allen, 2002).

From the foregoing, it can be concluded that managerial support (and demographic characteristics of managers), co-worker support and the work-life culture of an are likely to influence the relationship between work-life balance initiatives and employee use of practices as well as employee perceptions of organizational support. Lack of managerial support for employees' work-life balance efforts and the perception that the use of available work-life balance practices may harm their career aspirations may lead to non-use and subsequently, a low perception of organisational support among employees which in turn may lead to withdrawal behaviours such as absenteeism and turnover. More importantly, the intended benefits of making work-life balance policies available such as employee wellbeing as well as employee engagement and job satisfaction at the organisational level will not be realized (Beauregard and Henry, 2009).

2.12 Conclusion

This chapter started by introducing WLB and setting agenda for the need to evaluate the existing body of literature on the correlates and consequences of work-life balance. The chapter discussed the theoretical and conceptual underpinnings of WLB by several management scholars and problematized the concept of WLB. This led to a review of literature on the measurement of WLB, and the demands and resources approach to WLB. Borrowing from the role theory, the chapter further evaluated the body of literature on gender ideologies and how they shape personal values as employees strive to participate fully and satisfactorily in both work and non-work activities.

A critical review of empirical literature on the key concepts of the study including awareness and usage of WLB led to the conclusion that the mere provision of WLB initiatives is not enough to lead to the anticipated outcomes of employee engagement. Rather, employee awareness and usage of the organisational WLB initiatives (which depends on supervisor support, co-worker support and organisational work-culture) will ensure that the expected outcomes are realised. The resultant perception of organisational support by employees sends a signal that their organisation cares about their wellbeing and this signal, according to empirical studies can obligate employees to reciprocate by being more engaged cognitively and behaviourally at work. To further understand the relationship between WLB and the resulting individual and organisational outcomes, the chapter drew on relevant empirical literature on employee engagement to explain the effect of WLB.

The review of literature on the key concepts of the study has revealed four gaps in the WLB literature. First, review of the literature on the provision of WLB policies and the expected outcomes revealed a missing link in the relationship Hammer et al., (2013). This study therefore investigates the missing link by assessing the effect of employee awareness and usage of WLB on employees' experienced WLB. Second, by focusing on the positive effects of participating in multiple roles in multiple domains this study moves aware from the much research area of the negative effects of participating in multiple domains. This helps extend our understanding of how organisational WLB initiatives contribute to greater employee wellbeing and effective role performance (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). Third, the review of literature has revealed the need to not only study the antecedents and consequences of WLB but also the intervening mechanisms

that moderate and mediate the process. This study helps to bridge this gap by not only investigating the direct effects of WLB initiatives but also the intervening linkages in the form of mediators such as traditional gender role and a moderator in the form of employees' experienced WLB. This will facilitate a fuller understanding of WLB and its consequences. Forth, a review of the empirical studies highlights the need for assessing the effect of organisational WLB initiatives at multiple levels of analysis since a most studies in the WLB field are largely conceptualised and analysed at the individual level. Therefore, by examining the key concepts of the study from a multiple level perspective, this study offers a more complete understanding of the WLB concept at both individual and organisational levels.
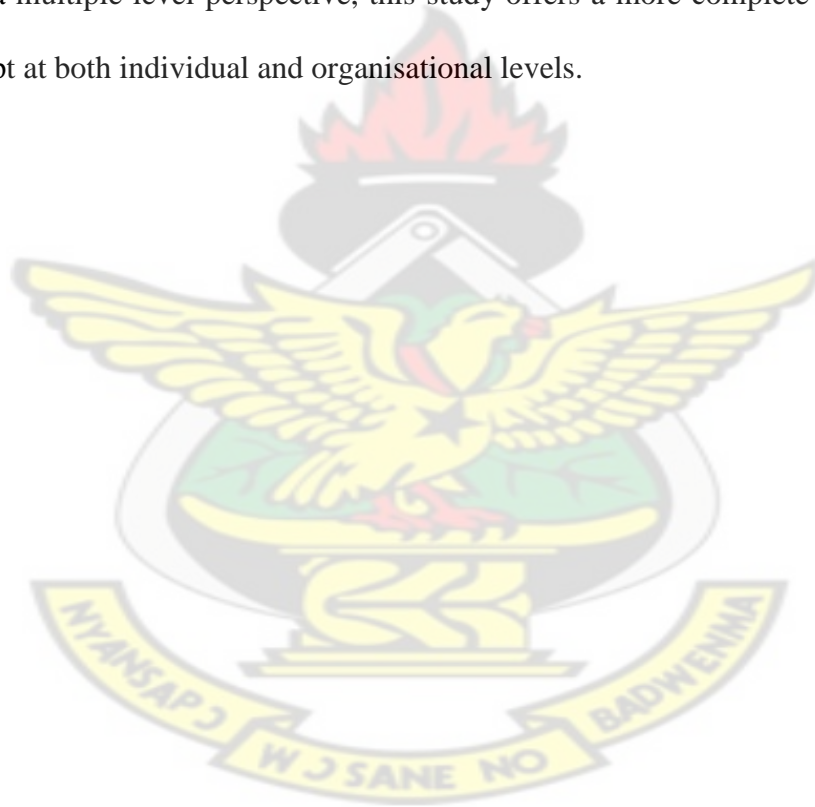
CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

3.1   Introduction

Early researchers on the interface between work and home (or non-work) domains posited that work and family domains operated independently (Parsons and Bales, 1955). This is because work and family domains are most often physically and temporally separate and because men traditionally assumed the role of breadwinner and women the role of homemaker/caregiver. This led to the popularisation of the segmentation perspective of WLB. However, the insightful writing of Kanter in 1977, put to rest the myth that work and family lives can be kept separate with no overlapping. It is now a general given and accepted fact that individuals are constantly engaged in multiple domains and multiple roles.

Since its early days, studies on the work-life interface have been based on key tenets of role theory (Kahn et al., 1964). Studies using the role theory based their explanation of the work-life interface on the belief that time and energy are scarce resources that are stretched and depleted by the competing demands from the work-life domains thereby producing conflict (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). The consistent focus of the work-life literature on the incompatibilities between work and life domains was somewhat shifted by Edwards and Rothbard's (2000) seminal review of alternative work which led to an appreciation of positive work-life interdependencies. This concept has been depicted in literature in the form of work-life enhancement (Sieber, 1974), facilitation (Grzywacz and Butler, 2005), enrichment (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006), and positive spillover (Hanson et al., 2006). Focusing on the beneficial effects of engaging in multiple roles has generated a more balanced understanding of and

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approach to analysing the interface between work-life domains. Also, both frameworks (work-life conflict and work-life enrichment) draw on elements from the role theory (Khan et al., 1964) and resource theory (Hobfoll, 2002; Ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012) to explain the mechanisms by which participation and experiences in one role domain hamper (conflict) or promote (facilitation) outcomes in the other role. Though it is reasonable to suggest that most of the studies on work-life interface have revolved around the concepts of work-life conflict and work-life enrichment, more recent frameworks such as the decision-making perspective and the more integrative work-home resources model has been gaining increasing attention (Greenhaus and Ten Brummelhuis). The present study draws heavily on border theory (Clark, 2000) and boundary theory (Ashforth et al., 2000) and related theories such as the role and social exchange theories to hypothesise on the conceptual framework of the study (see figure 3.1).

The use of the border theory and the boundary theory to conceptualise the work-life interface and the linkages depicted in the framework below is because the body of literature on the management of work-life domains generally explain the linkage between work and life domains in one of two perspectives. The first perspective deals with the unplanned and unintentional blurring of the work and life domains due to a carryover or transportation of emotions and behaviours from one domain to the other. This has been variously referred to as spillover (Wynne and Baltes, 2013). The second perspective which has been referred to as integration is viewed as a more intentional and strategic management of the boundary between work and life domains. The dominant theory used to explain this perspective is the boundary management theory which is made up of the border theory and boundary theory. These two theories describe individual level and/or organisational level practices used to organise and manage role demands

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and expectations in the work and life domains (Voydanoff, 2005). It was deemed prudent and more appropriate to use the boundary management theories because the present study focuses on organisational interventions that aim to help and encourage employees to manage the boundary between work and non-work domains such that role conflict will be reduced leading to healthier and more productive employees. Other supporting theories used to explain some of the linkages in the conceptual framework, include organisational social support theory, and social exchange theory.
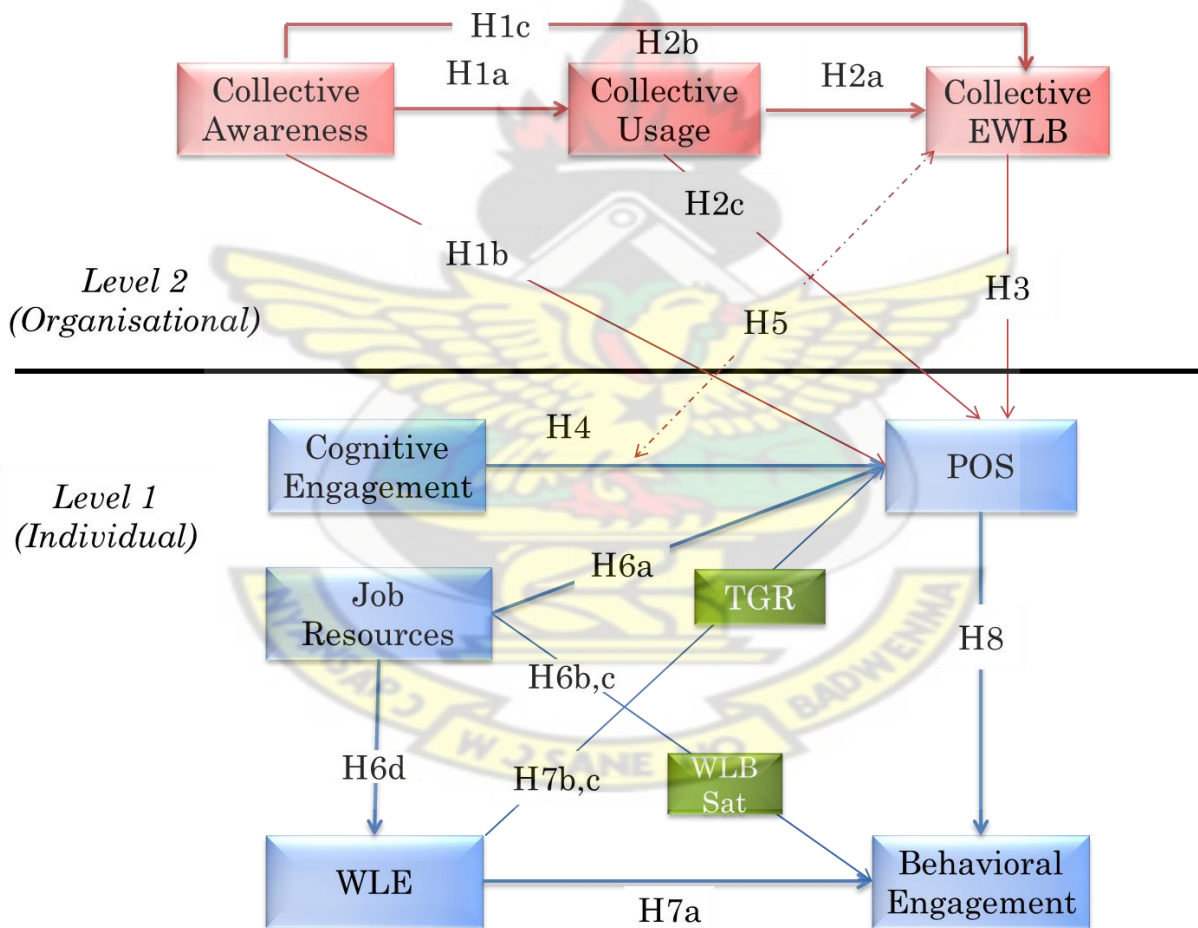
Figure 3.1 A Multi-level Theoretical Model of Antecedents and Outcomes of Work-Life Balance

Source: Author's own construct, 2014.

In what follows, each of the separate linkages as shown in Figure 3.1 is developed.

3.2 Organisational level predictions

Predictions at the organisational level of the model were made based on related and relevant theory and empirical studies. It is worthy to note that multilevel researchers suggest that data gathered from lower-level units (for example; individuals) can be used to analyse higher-level constructs through the process of aggregation (Rousseau, 1985). Since the use of multilevel models such as Hierarchical Linear Modelling makes it possible for relationships between phenomena at higher and at lower levels to be analysed, this study adopted the approach of collecting data at the individual level and then aggregating it as organisational-level constructs for analysis. Thus hypotheses 1 and 2 refer to dynamics that take place at the aggregate employee level.

3.2.1 Awareness and Usage of WLB Policies and POS

The theory of WLB is deeply rooted in the fact that individuals are involved in two distinct and yet connected domains; work and family (non-work) domains. These two domains are separated by boundaries that need to be managed and negotiated in order to achieve WLB. WLB has been defined as a process which involves organisations partnering with employees to manage their work and non-work boundaries in such a way as to reduce inter-role conflict and achieve satisfaction and good functioning (effectiveness) in both domains, within the context of their personal values and the socially negotiated and shared expectations of domain members. In order to facilitate the achievement of WLB, organisations adopt WLB policies and practices.

Extant research shows that corporate policies and benefits that support WLB may reduce stress and burnout for employees (Thomas and Ganster, 1995; Allen, 2001 and Yuile et al, 2012) and improve organisational outcomes such as employee commitment, intention to stay and performance (Kelly et al., 2008 and Kossek et al., 2006). Despite this prevalent belief, there are a number of studies that have failed to find a significant relationship between work–life balance and organisational outcomes, or have reported mixed and even negative effects (Bruck, Allen and Spector 2002; Kossek and Ozeki 1998; Forsyth and Polzer-Debruyne, 2007). Other studies have also shown that the link between WLB policies and practices and organizational outcomes may be dependent on employees' awareness of the policies and their actual usage of the policies (Bond and Wise, 2003; Hammer, Van Dyck and Ellis, 2013). Important findings from these studies are worthy of mention. First, organizationally-mandated WLB policies by themselves may not necessarily lead to the desired individual and organizational outcomes if employees (and in some cases managers) are not aware of the policies and benefits and consequently do not utilize those policies (Clark, 2000, Rieter, 2007; Beauregard and Henry 2009; Parkes and Langford, 2008). Second, the aggregate awareness of employees of WLB policies creates the opportunity for utilization of WL policies (Judiesch and Lyness 1999). Therefore, I hypothesise the following:

Hypothesis 1a: Awareness of WLB policies positively relates to the usage of WLB policies.

Furthermore, Scandura and Lankau (1997) reported that a positive employee attitude was associated with organisations that simply made WLB policies available, regardless of its' use. These include organisational attachment attitudes such as increased job satisfaction, organisational commitment and perceived organisational support (POS). This is because the

aggregate awareness and availability of WLB policies irrespective of whether employees use them or not, satisfies the socio-emotional needs of support for employees. Therefore I hypothesise the following:

Hypothesis 1b: Awareness of WLB policies positively relates to POS.

According to boundary management theories, strategies that help to manage or negotiate the boundary between work and family domains leads to good satisfaction and good functioning in both domains.

Although research on work-life domains has predominantly focused on macro-level WLB policies and practices, theory and empirical findings suggest that macro-level organizational practices such as WLB are not applied uniformly across employee groups (Lepak et al., 2007; Wright and Boswell, 2002). This implies a potential disconnection between the introduction of WLB policies and practices and employees' actual experience of WLB. Consequently, employees' experienced WLB may constitute a pathway through which the use of WLB policies and practices influences employees' attitudinal and behavioural reactions. Though there are no known studies that have predicted or tested the relationship between the use of WLB policies and experienced WLB, both border and boundary theories (Ashforth et al., 2000 and Clark, 2000) provide a theoretical justification to expect the two constructs to relate. Organisational level WLB policies and practices provide a contextual signal for employees that enables them to psychologically interpret their work environment and better manage the borders between work and non-work domains of their lives. Border theory suggests that organisations can alter domains and borders to increase work life balance (Clark, 2000) among employees. Consequently, it is

expected that WLB policies and practices will relate positively to the aggregate experience of employees' in terms of WLB. I therefore hypothesise that:

Hypothesis 2a: Employee usage of WLB policies positively relates to employees' experienced WLB.

3.2.1.1 The mediating role of WLB Policy Usage

The availability and awareness of WLB policies is not always enough to achieve WLB among employees. Several researchers including Judiesch and Lyness (1999) have been able to identify the mismatch between the adoption, availability, awareness and actual utilisation of such policies. This may be due to a number of reasons. The fear of being perceived as less committed by managers and co-workers, an 'ideal worker' work culture, a poor work-life culture and an unsupportive manager are a few of the factors that generate employee resistance to the use of WLB policies (Hammer, Van Dyck and Ellis, 2013). Usage of these policies ensures that employees can better manage the work-family domain and experience WLB. Consequently, employees' aggregate usage of WLB policies may constitute a pathway through which the aggregate awareness of WLB policies leads to WLB among employees. I therefore hypothesise the following:

Hypothesis 2b: Employee usage of WLB policies mediates the relationship between Awareness and EWLB.

3.2.1.2 WLB Policy Usage, EWLB, POS and Cognitive Engagement

According to Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), POS refers to perceived favourable treatment received from the organisation. WLB policies engender supervisor and co-worker support as well as a work-life culture which encourages employees to manage their work-life boundaries in

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ways that creates satisfaction and effectiveness in both domains. Though extant research has revealed that the adoption of WLB policies is likely to lead to positive effects on the wellbeing of employees (Kossek et al, 2006), it is expected that individual outcomes in the form of employee engagement will only be achieved if employees actually utilises the policies.

As indicated earlier, one of the reasons why employees fail to utilise WLB policies is due to an unsupportive manager. Because supervisors act as organisational agents, employees' receipt of favourable treatment from a supervisor contributes to POS.   Clark's (2000) border theory propose that, border-crossers whose domain members or border keepers (including supervisors) show high commitment to them will have high work-family balance than border-crossers whose other domain members have shown low commitment to them. Hence, a supervisor's commitment to ensuring effective utilization of WLB policies is indicative of the level of organisational support that is perceived by the employee. Once employees receive favourable treatment in the form of WLB policies that enable to manage their work-life domains, they are likely to perceive their organisation as supportive. Therefore I hypothesise the following:

Hypothesis 2c: Employee usage of WLB policies positively relates to POS.

Hypothesis 3: Experienced WLB positively relates to POS.

The presence, availability and usage of WLB policies by employees is likely to encourage the incorporation of organizational membership and role status into the employee's self-identity and thereby increase cognitive availability and amount of time an employee spends thinking about his or her work role (Rothbard, 2001). Perceived organizational support would also enhance cognitive involvement by creating trust that the organization will take care to fulfil its exchange

obligations of noticing and rewarding efforts made on its behalf (Organ and Konovsky, 1989). Employees may use perceived organizational support to judge the potential gain of material and symbolic benefits that would result from activities favoured by the organization. The possibility that the relationship between perceived support and effort–reward expectancies (cognitive engagement) may be bidirectional has been suggested by Eisenberger, Fasolo and Davis-LaMastro, (1990). The expectation of reward for high effort could strengthen and, in turn, be influenced by employees' perception that their contributions are valued by the organization. This is in line with Robinson et al.'s (2004) description of the concept of engagement as a two-way relationship between the employer and employee.

This is premised on the social exchange theory which argues that obligations are generated through a series of interactions between parties who are in a state of reciprocal interdependence. The basis of social exchange theory is that a relationship evolves over time into trusting, loyal and mutual commitment as long as the parties abide by the set rules of exchange or expectations of each party (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). In sum, social exchange theory provides a theoretical basis to explicate why employees choose to become cognitively engaged in their work and with organisations they work for, through the perception of support (and evidenced by the availability of and their experience of WLB policies) and the building of mutual reciprocity. Although there are different views of work engagement, most scholars agree that engaged employees have high levels of energy and identify strongly with their work. This identification can lead to cognitive engagement which is epitomised by a feeling that the employee is valued and cared for by the organisation. The employee therefore reciprocates by perceiving the organisation as supportive. There is empirical evidence that POS leads to work engagement

(Mathumbu and Dodd, 2013). Therefore, based on the bidirectional relationship between cognitive engagement and POS suggested by Eisenberger, Fasolo and Davis-LaMastro, (1990), I hypothesise the following:

Hypothesis 4: Cognitive employee engagement positively relates to POS

3.2.1.3 The moderating role of EWLB

Employee engagement is "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 74; Demerouti, et al., 2001; Hallberg and Schaufeli, 2006; Luthans and Peterson, 2002). Thus, engagement is a pervasive state of positive emotional attachment and motivation toward one's work (Hallberg and Schaufeli, 2006). As employees enjoy WLB policies and experience WLB, they are also likely to experience a sense obligation towards the organisation (Hammer, Van Dyck and Ellis, 2013). This sense of obligation is the foundation of social exchange theory which involves a series of interactions that generate obligations (Emerson, 1976).

Early conceptualisation of the interface between work and non-work domains focussed on the scarcity perspective (Goode, 1960; Marks, 1977) which asserts that work-life conflict is as a result of scarce resources to meet the demands of the work and non-work domains. According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), this form of inter-role conflict in which work and non-work domains are mutually incompatible can lead to three different types of conflict including strain-based conflict. Strain-based conflict occurs when a person is distracted or mentally disengaged while acting in one domain (e.g., work) because of worries or thoughts about another role-related demands in another domain (e.g., family). Ashforth et al.(2000) in listing the advantages of

segmentation posits that by circumscribing domains, boundaries enable one to have the 'peace of mind' to concentrate more on whatever domain is currently salient and less on other domains. Clark (2000) also posits that by organisations helping employees integrate or segment to an acceptable degree, their work and non-work domains, employees can have more satisfying and effective experiences both at home and at work (Clark, 2000; Greenhaus and Allen, 2006; Voydanoff, 2005; Greenhaus, Collins, and Shaw, 2003; Marks and MacDermid 1996). Hence they are able to focus on the job and experience a ''persistent, positive affective-motivational state of fulfilment that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption'' (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 417).

Extant research has shown WLB initiatives to relate to myriad organizational level and individual level outcomes such as work engagement, POS and work–family enrichment, and physical health (Schaufeli, 2006; Aryee et al, 2013; Allen, 2001; Bagger and Li, 2011; Kelly et al., 2008; Kossek et al., 2011).

Therefore, for highly engaged employees, EWLB will lead to POS because they are likely to feel fulfilled and satisfied in their work-role. In contrast, for less engaged employees, EWLB will be less strongly related to POS. This is because the lack of effectiveness and achievement in one's work role is likely to negate any perception of organisational support. In other words, the employee may deem any organisational support policies to be either inadequate or irrelevant to his personal needs. Therefore, I hypothesise the following:

Hypothesis 5: EWLB moderates the relationship between employee engagement and POS in such a way that the relationship is more positive when EWLB is high than when it is low.

3.3   Individual Level Predications

Predictions at the individual level of the model were made based on related and relevant theory and empirical studies.

3.3.1   *Job resources, POS and Behavioural Work Engagement*

WLB frameworks that emphasize the positive interdependencies between work and family roles assign a central role to resources which once acquired in a domain can be invested in the other domain contributing to higher well-being and role performance across domains. As companies develop and implement WLB, these social support policies serve as forms of job resources which when acquired by employees can be transferred or spilled over into the family domain to enhance quality of life across domains. Social support is a critical job resource that makes the role demands for which support is given such as the integration of the work–family interface experienced more positively. Job resources refer to the physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of a job (Hakanen, Schaufeli and Ahola, 2008) that may reduce the adverse effects of job and family demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs. Hence job resources serves as a buffer against the psychological and emotional stress that accompanies overwhelming work and family demands.

Aside the functional characteristics of job resources in enabling employees achier their work goals, it also inures to the personal benefit. For example, job resources such as development provided by the organisation can stimulate personal growth through learning which can spillover into the family domain as a transferable resource. As a result, job resources may promote

extrinsic motivation which is motivation that comes from external factors. Since the availability of job resources are necessary in dealing with the demands of the job, employees are likely to experience extrinsic motivation. Additionally, the availability of job resources creates an enabling environment which helps employees to experience basic psychological needs such as autonomy and competence. This feature of job resources gives it the ability to intrinsically motivate employees (Van den Broeck et al., 2008).

Research has shown that job resources help to reduce stress in the form of supervisor and co-worker support, autonomy to determine how work is carried out; including scheduling help to create a perception of organizational support (Van den Broeck, et al., 2008). The motivational characteristics of job resources can thus build in employees an affective commitment to their organisation, as employees perceive organizational support (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). Based on organisational support theory and its' positive effect on perceived organisational support, I hypothesise the following:

Hypothesis 6a: Job Resources positively relates to POS.

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), suggests that job resources can increase work engagement by triggering the motivational process. Work engagement is defined as "a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption" (Schaufeli et al., 2002; pg 74). There is empirical evidence that supports the view that job resources results in motivational processes such as work engagement. Thus more job resources have been found to relate positively and significantly to the level of work engagement (Bakker et al, 2007; Demerouti, 2008). Furthermore, Hakanen et al. (2006) provided evidence which suggests that

work engagement plays a mediating role in the relationship between job resources and positive motivational outcomes, (Hakanen et al., 2006). Therefore, I hypothesise the following:

Hypothesis 6b: Job resources positively relates to employee behavioural work engagement.

Studies in the WLB literature suggest that organizational support in the form of job resources relate to behavioural responses such as employee engagement through other mechanisms (Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008; Aryee et al, 2013). According to boundary management theories, any support given by organisations to enable employees to manage and participate effectively in both work and life domains will lead to positive individual and organizational outcomes. For example, studies have found significant and positive associations between WLB policies and employee engagement (Kelly et al., 2008, Ratnasingam et al., 2012). However, the attractiveness or valence of the support given to employees depends on whether it helps them to effectively manage and participate in both work and family domains (Rieter, 2007; Waumsley, Houston and Marks, 2010). While evidence suggest that perceptions of work-life balance culture can be shared among organizational members, consideration of individual non-work or personal needs is necessary in the effective implementation of WLB policies (Lautsch et al., 2009). A meta-analysis of 115 samples from 85 studies confirmed the importance of family-specific organisational support (Kessek et al., 2011). This result underscores the importance of tailoring support to fit employees' needs regarding work-life balance. Employee satisfaction with WLB policies will thus depend on how useful the policy or support is in helping them to cope with the conflicting demands of work and life domains. Hence social organisational resource (in the form of Job resources) is directly related to employee engagement and indirectly through WLB satisfaction. I therefore hypothesise the following:

Hypothesis 6c: WLB Satisfaction partially mediates the relationship between JR and employee behavioural engagement.

3.3.2   *Job Resources and Work-Life Enrichment*

Early studies on WLB focused extensively on conflicting demands between work and family domains that resulted in an imbalance, dissatisfaction and ineffectiveness in both work and family domains (Pleck, 1977). Greenhaus and Beutell (1985, pg. 77) defined work-family conflict as 'a form of inter-role conflict which led to role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible is some respect'. Though this perspective of WLB inspired research on the harmful effects of excessive role conflict on several indicators of well-being, there has also been calls for research that focus on the benefits that may be accrued due to multiple roles resulting in participation in multiple domains. This is referred to as the work-family enrichment approach. According to Kossek et al. (2011), WLE refers to the degree to which work–family roles are positively experienced as complimentary. This approach to the study of WLB takes its root from role accumulation theory and resource theory (Greenhaus and Ten Brummmelhuis, 2013). Both theories are based on the assumption that participating in multiple roles exposes individuals to multiple sources of resources to draw from. Their ability to draw from multiple sources of resources (work domain and family domain) reduces the harmful effects of difficulties in another role. This is because resources acquired in one role can be directly applied in another role enhancing the quality of life or positive affect and effectiveness in that role (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006).The concept of transferring resources (such as social support and enriched jobs) from one domain to the other is called positive spillover. Hanson et al. (2006), suggested that positive spillover occurs when positively viewed skills, behaviours, values and affect derived from one role is transferred to another role with beneficial

consequences on the second role. Additionaly, because work-to-family conflict occurs when there is a depletion of resources such as time, energy and emotions due to the demands of work, employees who have access to social support at work from their supervisors, co-workers and from the interventions put in place by the organisation, are more likely to acquire psychological, emotional and behavioural resources that helps them to manage the strain the emanates from the responsibilities of the work and non-work domains (Lappiere et al., 2008; Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). The feeling of being socially supported makes employees feel cared for by their supervisors and co-workers and elicits an emotional and psychological ability to cope with the daily struggles and demands from the work and non-work domains (Cohen and Wills, 1985; Hobfoll, 2002). It also helps employees to perceive work-life demands as less stressful (Jex, 1998). These positive organisational and personal outcomes that are resulting from the availability and access to social support at work can spillover into the non-work domain which helps reduce work-family conflict (Frone et al., 1992) and engendering WLE. I therefore hypothesise the following:

Hypothesis 6d: Job Resources positively relates to WLE.

3.3.3 WLE and Behavioural Engagement

Evidence from empirical studies has revealed that there is a positive and significant relationship between work-family interaction and work engagement (Halbesleben et al., 2009; Rothbard, 2001). Also, social exchange theory asserts that employees would repay their employer with increased organizational outcomes (Blair-loy and Wharton, 2004) such as employee engagement and commitment if they perceive themselves as having access and the opportunity to utilize these WLB policies which improves their quality of life across domains. Although organisation's ability to create conditions that enable employees to integrate work and non-work domains has

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been shown to be a critical source of WLB in the literature (Kossek et al., 2011), its influence in explaining the effect of organisationally mandated family support on individual and organisational outcomes has received relatively little attention (Thomas and Ganster, 1995; Thompson and Prottas, 2005). WLB, as a psychological and social resource helps employees to experience role salience by enhancing the ability of individuals to focus on the demands of their work thereby exhibiting a high level of work engagement (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000).

Drawing from the boundary theory, Ashforth et al., (2000) suggested that managing the boundaries between work and non-work domains enables one to have the 'peace of mind' to concentrate more on whatever domain is currently salient and less on other domains. It is the submission of this study that this ability to focus attention on the work role consequent upon the experience of WLE enables employees to emotionally, cognitively and physically invest themselves in the performance of their work. This level of commitment and loyalty has also been explained as a form of reciprocation for the initial commitment of the organisation and its agents (border keepers and domain members) to the border-crosser (employee). According to the border theory, this commitment is manifested when domain members (supervisors and co-workers) show concern and support for the border-crosser in their non-work domain responsibilities (Clark, 2000). On the basis of previous research that linked WLE to individual and organizational outcomes, such as employee engagement (Halbesleben et al., 2009; Culbertson, Mills and Fullager, 2012), I expect WLE to relate to employee engagement. I therefore hypothesise the following:

Hypothesis 7a: WLE positively relates to employee behavioural engagement.

The foundations of organizational support theory lies in the fact that individual employees assign human characteristics to the organisations they work for due to the perceptions they develop of the organisation based on their own experiences and how well they think the organisation cares for their wellbeing and how the organisation also values their contribution (Eisenberger et al., 2002). Therefore, POS refers to employees' overall evaluation and beliefs about how caring the organisation is to their social and emotional needs and wellbeing and the extent of to which the organisation values their contribution. This appraisal of organisational care and support is based on the readiness and willingness of employers to provide resources to employees better manage their work-life demands and responsibilities (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The ability to carefully manage these often conflicting demands can lead to a situation where the experiences and resources from one role domain improve the quality of life in the other role domain. Greenhaus and Powell (2006) have referred to this phenomenon as Work-Life Enrichment (WLE). Employees who experience WLE are most likely to hold perceptions that their organisation cares about their ability to effectively perform work and family roles consistent with social expectations and the individual's life priorities. Such an organisation shows such support and care by directly providing work–family resources in the form of flexible work arrangement. This kind of support can also be indirect support where a work climate is created that empowers employees to successfully respond to both work and family demands without their commitment to the organisation being called into question (Kossek, Colquitt and Noe, 2001). Hence an experience of work-life enrichment through a positive spillover of workplace (job) resources will lead to perceptions of organizational support.

I therefore hypothesise the following:

Hypothesis 7b: Work-life enrichment positively relates to POS.

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3.3.4   The mediating influence of traditional Gender Role

Kahn et al.'s (1964) role theory hypothesises that the basis for potential stressors are as a result of incongruent role demands faced by employees as they manage to effectively participate in both work and non-work domains, creating conflict and stress (Kahn, et al., 1964). Hence the role theory serves as at the root of role stress concept which according to Beehr and Glazer (2005) arise from the different and often mutually exclusive roles people are expected to play. Thus role stress is associated with the roles and behaviours employees are expected to play both at work and in non-work environments. One's own perception of what is expected of him as well as what others expect from him may lead to role stress (Beehr and Glazer, 2005). In the workplace, expectations of others (usually a supervisor or employer) guide employee behaviour (Jackson and Schuler, 1985). An individual's perception or expectation of what his or role entails is influenced by ideas of traditional gender roles.

Additionally, existing literature suggests an unbalanced permeability of work-life boundaries for men and women. This means that there are gender differences in how role demands in family and work domains affect each other. For example, women are more likely to experience family-to-work spillover than men. Conversely, men are more likely to experience work-to-family spillover than women as they exert more effort in their work domain to the detriment of family demands (Pleck, 1977). This has resulted in differences in experience of WLB among men and women and this has been observed and suggested by several researchers including Duxbury and Higgins, (1991); Kossek and Ozeki, (1998); Rothbard, (2001). This section presents hypothesis on the mediating influence of gender on the relationship between WLE and POS using the role theory.

The dominant view that men are generally breadwinners means that men are more likely to

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assume more work-related and are therefore likely to experience overwhelming work overload than women. Men's need to achieve in the work domain and their assumption of additional roles puts generally puts them in a situation where they are left with little or no time for non-work or family roles resulting in work-to-family conflict. The masculine value system (especially in the African context) also has a negative effect on women's career progression as women are more likely to put restriction on their career or personal due to family reasons. This is because they prefer to keep a low profile at the work place so that they can have more time to respond to traditional gender roles which requires women to spend a lot more hours on house chores than men. Thus, they do not aspire to high offices which comes with a lot more responsibilities and job demands for fear that it might hinder them from undertaking their traditional gender roles. Specifically, she contended that keeping a low profile at work, helps women to participate in both work and family domains with some amount of success. This is because by using their personal resources such as their education and training to work, they receive monetary compensation which helps them to contribute financially to the needs of the family.

This stance by women, is resulting from the traditional and social expectations of society which encourages women to focus more on family responsibilities and demands which means that women are more likely to devote more time and effort to unpaid work (family demands) than men.

For example, The International Labour Organisation (2011) have observed that women particularly in Africa experience considerable pressure in the morning as they try to do all that is necessary to care for the family before going out to work and after also work. This may include preparing breakfast for the whole family, lunch packs for the children, bathing the children and getting them ready for school. This situation is aggravated by the limited access to basic

necessities and infrastructure such as a reliable supply of electricity and water, which prolongs the time and effort needed to perform these domestic chores, particularly for women in dual-earner families. This often leads to ineffective and poor functioning in both work and non-work domains.

These differences in the life options, desires and expectation between men and women are rooted and prescribed by gender role ideology. The gender role ideology prescribes and requires men to put premium on work more than family whereas women are expected to prioritize family over work. The assumptions of gender role ideology have been tested and found to be true in different contexts. For example, Rajadhyaksha and Bhatnagar's (2000) study in India confirmed that men are more committed to their work and therefore are more likely to spend more time and effort in their work roles than women. Although this should logically lead to work to family conflict as earlier suggested, studies in more developed countries have revealed that men and not women experience work to life enrichment. This is because as men put in more effort and time at work, they are likely to benefit from promotion and increased financial gains which they can invest in the family domain to help them to achieve at least some of their family roles Rothbard (2001). Additionally, Ruderman et al., (2002) suggest that though women's focus and participation in their family domain may lead to family-to-work conflict, success and achievement in the family domain may serve as a resource in the form of self-esteem that may spillover into the work domain to enhance the performance of women, leading to WLB.

Though individuals try to cope with the often conflicting demands from the work and family domains, Etzion (1984) suggested that social support in the form of WLB practices initiated by the organisation may buffer the negative effects of the stress associated with participating in multiple domains. Also, because most of the gender role expectations are socially and culturally

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determined, social support from the family domain such as spousal support may help reduce the stress especially among women especially in societies with less gender egalitarianism.

Although in developing countries such as Ghana, husbands are supportive of their wives' participation in the workforce; they are yet to assume responsibility for sharing domestic chores (Ramu, 1989). Additionally, instrumental support for most employed women in Ghana, come in the form of hired domestic helpers (also known as house helps) or female members of the extended family. Although the cost of hired domestic helpers in urban areas have been noted to be expensive and unreliable, it is still a major source of support for the dual-career couple families who live far from relatives. On the basis of the importance and prominence of the family domain for women, family support will be more critical to their experience of work–family balance than men (Aryee et al., 2005). Together, theory and empirical studies point to gender differences in the experience of WLB. I therefore expect that traditional gender roles will mediate the relationship between WLE and POS. I therefore hypothesise the following:

Hypothesis 7c: Traditional gender role mediates the relationship between WLE and POS.

3.3.5   *POS and Behavioural Engagement*

The organizational support theory helps to explain the psychological processes underlying consequences of POS. First, POS elicits the reciprocity norm, which produces a felt obligation among employees to care about the organization's well-being just as the organisation cares about their wellbeing and to contribute to the achievement of organisational objectives (Hammer, Van Dyck and Ellis, 2013; Kelly et al., 2008). Second, because POS connotes organisational care, approval, and respect, it helps fulfil socio-emotional needs, employees with high levels of POS

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are more likely to exhibit organisational citizenship behaviours and membership as well as role status into how they see themselves and how they want others to see them (Ashforth et al., 2000). Third, because POS leads employees to believe that the organisation recognises, values and rewards good performance, it is likely to result in favourable outcomes for both the employer (such as affective commitment which will in-turn lead to employee work engagement and job performance) and to the employees such as positive mood which will engender job satisfaction (Kelly et al., 2008; Hakanen, Schaufeli and Ahola, 2008; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). These assumptions are based on social exchange theory which postulates the employment relationship as the strategic exchange of effort and loyalty for benefits and rewards on between employers and employees (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005; Poelmans and Beham, 2008). Hence, when POS is based on a belief of favourable treatment by the employer (through WLB policies) it may lead to positive organisational outcomes such as employee engagement. Though there is paucity of research investigating the empirical relationship between POS and employee engagement, a few studies done in this area suggest that employee engagement is related to WLB issues such as positive work affect. Based on the theory and empirical results discussed, I hypothesise the following:

Hypothesis 8: POS positively relates to employee behavioural engagement.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND STUDY CONTEXT

4.1 Introduction

The broad aim of this research was to examine the mechanisms, through which WLB impact individual and organizational level performance/outcomes. This chapter describes the methodology used to test the hypotheses derived from the model (see Figure 3.1). This chapter starts with a description of the philosophy underpinning this research and the justification for the chosen research design is also discussed. Additionally, the context of the study in terms of the economic and political context of Ghana as an emerging African economy is discussed. The chapter ends with a description of the sample and data collection procedures, measures of the study variables, and data analysis techniques used to test the hypotheses of the study.

4.2 Research Philosophy

All scientific research must be underpinned by a philosophy of knowledge which informs how the research is designed. The philosophical underpinning of any research provides direction for the research and this is critical because it helps in clarifying questions about how the research should be designed, which design or designs are more suitable for the study based on the objectives of the study and sometimes may help the researcher to build on existing designs or create a new one altogether. (Easterby-Smith *et al*, 2002).

According to Bryman and Bell (1997, pg. 16), "positivism is an epistemological position that advocates the application of the methods of the natural sciences to the study of social reality".

Positivism is characterised by the measurement of observable social realities. These realities are gleaned from existing theories that form the basis for testing hypothesis. Also, according to Easterby-Smith et al (2002: pg. 28), positivism is a research philosophy that postulates that the "…social world exists externally, and that its properties should be measured through objective methods, rather than being inferred subjectively through sensations, reflection or intuition" (pg. 28).

Thus the positivist approach has been referred to as deductive or theory testing (Bryman, and Bell, 2007). The positivist view is based on the assumption that the social world is external and objective. Hence knowledge can be considered to be valid only if that knowledge has been generated from observations of the external reality. It also presumes that universal laws and theoretical models can be developed and generalised and can be used to explain the cause and effect of any phenomena while also predicting outcomes (Easterby-Smith *et al*, 2002). For this reason, the positivist epistemology restricts valid or warranted knowledge to what is to be taken as unproblematically observable sense data. That is, if theory corresponds with a researchers' "observations of these facts, its truthfulness is taken to be established. If it fails to correspond, it is discarded as fallacious" Gill and Johnson (1997: pg. 139). Based on the above, it has been suggested by various researchers that the positivism philosophy is based on values of reason, truth and validity and that it focuses purely on facts, that are gathered through direct observation and experience and measured empirically using quantitative methods through surveys and experiments and the data is statistically analysed (Blaikie, 1993; Saunders et al., 2007; Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008; Easterby-Smith et al., 2008; Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006). Relating the positivism view to the organisational context, Hatch and Cunliffe (2006) posit that those who believe in the philosophy assume that the true happenings and dynamics in organisations can

only be studied and discovered through categorisation and scientific measurement of the behaviour of individuals and systems.

One question that has featured prominently in the conduct of management research is whether organisations should be studied as objective entities whose reality is external to social actors (stakeholders) or these organisations or social entities should be seen as objective entities whose reality is based on or are constructed by the perceptions and actions of the social actors (stakeholders). These positions are referred to as objectivism and constructionism respectively (Bryman, and Bell, 2007).

Hence, according to Bryman, and Bell (2007), the ontological position of the positivist is objectivism – that asserts that social phenomena and their meanings have an existence that is independent of social actors. It implies that social phenomena and the categories that we use in every day discourse have an existence that is independent or separate from the actors. Positivists are often criticized for ignoring the difference between the natural and social world by failing to understand the 'meaning' that are brought to social life as they are merely refining and possibly extending what is already known (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, and Lowe, 2002). However, quantitative researchers claim that they do not aim to produce a science of laws but aim simply to produce a set of cumulative generalizations to service the development of universal knowledge based on critical sifting of data. Hughes (1980) also criticizes positivist approaches for generally relying on the need to abstract data that can misconstrue the nature of social actions. Finally, he criticizes the positivism assumption that social reality can be discovered in each society independently.

Despite these criticisms, positivism has proved to be the most important and popular approach used by researchers in management to discover and generate knowledge about the social world (Smith, 1998). This is because the positivism approach enables management theorists and researchers to add to the body of knowledge in a structured manner (Remenyi and Williams, 1995).

Although the positivist perspective appears to be the dominant view and approach in research into the linkages between WLB and individual and organisational outcomes (Cresswell, 2003, Beauregard and Henry, 2009), it will be erroneous to see it as the only approach to generating reliable and interesting knowledge. Interpretivism and realism are also useful philosophical approaches that have been used.

Some authors have described interpretivism as anti-positivist and also as post-positivist since it is argued that there is a fundamental difference between the tenets of natural and social sciences (Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006 and Blaikie, 1993). The interpretivists argue that in the social world individuals' and groups' understanding of situations is based upon their individual experience, memories and expectations. This indicates that the meaning individuals construct continue to be reconstructed over time in the face of new situations. Therefore the meaning individuals have of the social world is based not just on the external social environment as postulated by the positivism school of thought but on their multiple experiences leading to multiple opposing interpretations of the same phenomena. It is these multiple interpretations that create a social reality in which people act (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). Therefore, under the interpretivism model, it is critical to discover and understand these multiple meanings and the contextual

factors that influence, determine and affect the interpretations reached by different individuals in different environments.

From the foregoing, it can be suggested that intepretivists assume that there are multiple realities (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003). Since 'all knowledge is relative to the knower', it is important for interpretivists to work with others as their bid to make sense of the social world, draw meaning from the social world and create their realities in order to understand their views, and to interpret these experiences bearing in mind the context of the researchers academic experience (Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006). Thus the interpretivists approach is regarded as inductive or theory building rather than theory testing. Since the focus of the interpretivist researcher is on understanding the meanings and interpretations of 'social actors' and to understand their world from their viewpoint, it is highly context-specific and hence cannot be widely generalized (Saunders et al., 2007) like the meanings derived from the positivist approach. The interpretivism approach requires researchers to seek to understand what people are thinking and feeling, as well as how they communicate, verbally and non-verbally (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). Also, given the subjective nature of this approach and the emphasis on language, qualitative approaches to data gathering is seen to be more appropriate when conducting research using the interpretivist approach (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008). The close nature of the researcher and the researched in this paradigm (especially because some studies require the researcher to be embedded in the same environment with those he is researching), and the risk that interpretations are framed within the mind of the researcher without recourse for objectivism indicates that steps must be taken to avoid bias. A handful of research has also used *interpretivism* in research into linkages between WLB and individual/organizational outcomes. For instance, Potgieter and Barnard

(2010) used in-depth interviews of employees in a call centre to uncover the sense-making of employees with regards to their experience of work-life balance.

The weaknesses in both the positivism and interpretivism epistemology gave birth to realism. The frustration that positivism was over-deterministic (in that it leaves little room for choice due to the causal nature of universal laws) and that constructionism or interpretivism was so totally relativist (and hence highly contextual), resulted in the new approach of realism taking on some features from both positivist and interpretivist positions and hence takes a middle-of-the- road approach. Realism postulates that real structures exist independent of human consciousness (a positivism feature), and also that knowledge is socially created (an interpretivism feature). Saunders et al., (2007) share similar opinion as they argue that our knowledge of reality is a result of social conditioning or experiences. Blaikie (1993), suggests that whilst realism is concerned with what kinds of things there are, and how these social actors behave, it accepts that reality may also exist in spite of science or observation. Thus, there is validity in recognising realities that are simply claimed to exist or act, whether they proven or not. In line with intepretivist positions, realism recognizes that natural and social sciences are different, and that social reality is pre-interpreted and can have different interpretations over the course of time, however realists, in line with the positivist position also agree that science must be empirically-based, rational and objective and so it argues that social objects may be studied 'scientifically' as social objects, not simply through language and discourse as pertains in the interpretivism philosophy.

Realism has been used in research into the linkages between WLB and firm performance in the works of Young, (2008) and Radcliff, (2013). Young (2008) for example, used a case-study methodology to undertake a research in small business enterprises to analyse the WLB policies and practices and the way these policies were enacted. He adopted an exploratory approach towards data collection and a generic approach (i.e., variety of methods) to analysing the WLB practices themselves. Data were collected on a wide range of WLB areas from the perspectives of owner managers. Four principal research methods were used in the study: in depth interviews, questionnaires, observation and the collection of documentary evidence. He noted that data were collected from owner managers, in order to capture the 'reality' of WLB policies in small enterprises.

It can clearly be seen from the discussion that the philosophical perspectives have different views about research and about the way to generate knowledge and this has an impact on the way research is conducted. In other words, questions of social ontology cannot be divorced from issues concerning the conduct of management research. Ontological assumptions and commitments will shape the ways in which research questions are formulated and research is carried out. If a research question is formulated in such a way as to suggest that organizations are objective social entities that act on individuals, the researcher is likely to emphasize the formal properties of organizations. Alternatively, if the researcher formulates a research problem so that the fragility of organizations as objective category is stressed, it is likely that an emphasis will be placed on the active involvement of people in reality construction (Bryman, and Bell, 2007).

In this research, the main goal was to examine the intermediate linkages (mechanisms) through which WLB impact individual and organizational outcomes such as employee engagement. Given this goal, the positivist perspective is appropriate because it tends towards the use of survey questionnaires for data collection and statistical analysis for hypothesis testing so that relationships can be explained and a valid and generalizable conclusion reached (Malhotra and Birks, 1999). Furthermore, as it requires a formal and structured research process it can provide recommendations for future strategies (Malhotra and Birks, 1999) which are statistically reliable due to its objective criteria and procedures (Wright, and Crimp, 2000). This reliability is achieved through the use of a large sample size that is representative of the population in question.

4.3 Context of Study

The following section describes the context of the study from historical, political and economic perspectives.

4.3.1 Introduction

Ghana is the first Sub Saharan African nation to gain independence from British colonial rule in 1957. It is a unitary state with a presidential system of government. After approving a new constitution and restoring multiparty politics in 1992, the country has gone through six successful transitions from one democratically elected government to another. The Rule of Law, Independence of the three Arms of Government (Executive, Judiciary and the Legislature), Freedom of the Media, Freedom of Association, are all guaranteed under the 1992 Constitution (1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana).

Ghana has received considerable attention in the popular press and academic literature with its commitment to and success in implementing economic liberalization policies (Leechor, 1994; Porter and Carlsson, 2006). Economic liberalization in Ghana has led to among other measures, privatization of state-owned enterprises, removal of barriers to foreign trade, and monetary and banking reforms (Debrah, 2002). The success of these measures has led to the recognition of Ghana as one of only seven emerging economies in sub-Saharan Africa (Hoskisson, Eden, Lau, and Wright, 2000).

Recent developments on the economic front also showed steady growth in various sectors of the economy 2008 until 2013 when Economic activity in the Ghanaian economy slowed down as a result of energy crisis experienced during the first half of the year and declining commodity prices that adversely affected the country's export earnings. Inflationary pressures picked up in the year due largely to pass through effects of a series of upward adjustments in prices of petroleum products and utility tariffs as well as depreciation of the Cedi against the major trading currencies. Inflation increased from 8.8 per cent in December 2012 to 13.5 per cent in December 2013 compared with an end-year target of 9.5 per cent. As of August, 2014, inflation rate had increased to 16.9 per cent (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014).This may be a result of the fiscal operations challenges faced by government in 2013 as declining government receipts coupled with growing expenditures led to a budget deficit of 10.1 per cent of GDP (Bank of Ghana Annual Report, 2013).

Ghana's external debt stock at the end of 2013 stood at US$11,341.9 million indicating a year-on-year increase of 21.4 per cent (Bank of Ghana Annual Report, 2013). A number of other key economic indicators also recorded gradual decline. Commodity prices for gold declined while cocoa and crude oil made marginal increment (Bank of Ghana Annual Report, 2013). Other key areas of the economy which recorded significant growths were the Capital Market. The Ghana Stock Exchange Composite Index (GSE-CI) posted a strong cumulative growth of 78.8 per cent compared with a growth of 23.8 per cent in 2012. Market capitalisation also increased by 6.8 per cent mainly as a result of appreciation in some equities on the exchange during the year (Bank of Ghana Annual Report, 2013).

Recent slowdown in economic decline indicates that both public and private sectors of Ghana must devise strategies to increase the performance of workers to help in the recovery of the economy. It is against this backdrop that the study seeks to investigate and understand the distal and proximal factors of organizational WLB initiatives and how it impacts on organizational outcomes such as employees' perception of organisational support and engagement in 30 organisations drawn from the three sectors of the economy in Ghana namely, agriculture, industry and services. The percentage contribution of *the three sectors* to total GDP as recorded in the CIA World Factbook (2014) are 21.5% for agriculture, 28.7% for industry, 49.8% for services (2013 estimates).

In order to provide a structure that is logical and aids in the understanding of the business environment of Ghana, the study provides an overview of Ghana in the context of socio-cultural political and economic environment. Also, this section discusses the three major sectors of the economy and the overall factors driving or influencing organisations in Ghana.

4.3.2 The socio-cultural context of Ghana

Every country or society is characterized by distinct ways of doing things and this is normally based on norms and practices that are grounded in the historical, traditional, spiritual, educational, economic and political institutions of the society. These features refer to the socio-cultural context of a social group. Socio-cultural features are so powerful and endemic to the extent that they permeate every aspect of society and prescribe what is deemed to be right or wrong. In other words these characteristics form the basis of the value system and what is considered appropriate behaviour in a society. Because employees are part of the wider society and their behaviour can in part be attributed to the socio-cultural features of the society they are embedded in, it is crucial to outline the key socio-cultural characteristics that dictate to an extent the behaviour of employees especially when introducing foreign management concepts.

Since WLB is not an African or Ghanaian concept, it is important to understand the socio-cultural context within which it is to be introduced. People will always find ways of avoiding and sometimes flouting rules and regulations that run contrary to their value and belief systems. The following discusses some key socio-cultural features of Ghana.

First, in spite of the fast rate of modernisation which has attracted more people to live and work in the urban areas, Ghanaians by and large still maintain the norms of its socio-cultural and old traditional values (Akuoku, 2008). This is confirmed by Hofstede's (1980) study in which Ghana scored incredibly low on the long term orientation dimension indicating that Ghana is a strictly normative society where people show a great deal of respect for time-honoured traditions. Some of the traditions and beliefs (especially about the level of commitment one needs to have for

his/her organisation) may be inconsistent with the values espoused in modern organisations and this creates a dilemma for both employees and managers as they work out modalities and interventions to help subordinates and co-workers better manage their work and family demands. Thus, any WLB policy or intervention which runs contrary to any of the deeply held beliefs and traditions will have deleterious consequences both at the individual and organisational levels. Conversely, WLB policies that focus on helping employees to stay true to their beliefs and traditions such as bereavement leave is likely to elicit high levels perceptions of organisational support among employees.

Second, the family grouping in Ghana is broader than the nuclear family and members are related by descent, marriage or adoption (Akuoku, 2008). This suggests that the Ghanaian society is a collective society where the individual is seen as a product of collective effort" (Akuoku, 2008; 59). This is supported by Hofstede's (1980) study in which Ghana scored very low on the individualism dimension, indicating the collective nature of the Ghanaian society. This feature of the society has implications on individuals in terms of the huge responsibilities imposed on them by the extended family system. In an extended family system each individual is brought up by the 'whole' family, it is therefore required that the individual once of age and capable, will help take care of other family members (Akuoku, 2008).

As a result, members of an extended family who are not married and do not have children can still have financial and care responsibilities towards their cousins, aunts, uncles, parents and grandparents. This creates a dependency system that puts a lot of demands on the time and financial resources of the employee. This, coupled with the generally increasing demands at

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work and demands outside of work and family, creates a situation where employees are always looking for excuses to stay out of work in order to attend to non-work responsibilities. The implication of this socio-cultural factor is that both employees and managers are likely to abuse WLB interventions if such interventions do not come with strict rules and regulations.

Third, gender roles are different for men and women in Ghana. Traditionally, men are supposed to be breadwinners while women are expected to procreate, nurture and take care of home chores. Several decades ago, these traditional gender roles did not pose any challenges since most women in Ghana were not in formal employment. However, the massive entry of women into formal employment in recent times have changed the dynamics and put a lot of stress on women. These values affect not only the education of women but also the kind of jobs they do and their rate and level of progress (Bharat, 2003). Thus, a lot of women do not make it to the top of the corporate ladder. The few who are able to make it are confronted with a lot of challenges and frustrations in the often male dominated environment that is unfriendly, unsupportive, hostile and intolerant of the multiple roles women have to play in the Ghanaian society.

The implication of this socio-cultural factor in the implantation of WLB policy at the workplace is that the same set of interventions cannot be suitable for both men and women. The different societal expectations and their attendant responsibilities or demands must be factored into the design and implementation of WLB policies in Ghanaian organisations if they are to be effective. Fourth, Ghana has been characterised as a highly indulgent culture where people are generally willing to realise their impulses and desires. Thus they put a high premium on enjoying life and

having fun. While people in a highly indulgent culture generally have positive attitude to life and have a tendency towards optimism, they also tend to place a higher degree of importance on leisure time. This, coupled with the plethora of responsibilities from the family, can lead to low commitment to work and increased absenteeism and lateness (Akuoku, 2008).

This can also have implications on maintaining discipline at work as employees spend working hours visiting sick family members or attending social events. Closely related to this is the leadership style adopted by managers and how they may perpetuate indiscipline at the workplace. Since Ghana is a generally paternalistic society, managers are likely to act as father figures for their employees and in the process cover their acts of indiscipline and be more permissive of the whims and caprices of their subordinates. This is supported and worsened by the low score achieved by Ghana on Hofstede's (1980) masculinity dimension. In feminine countries managers endeavour to build consensus, and manage conflicts by compromise and negotiation. Also in such societies, incentives such as free time and flexibility are favoured over task and hard work. This may be contributing to poor work ethics among Ghanaian employees.

In spite of the above, the high power distance recorded by Ghana in Hofstede's (1980) study indicates that mangers can play an important role in the implementation of WLB interventions as people generally accept a hierarchical order in which everybody has a place. This means that the hierarchy in an organization is seen as reflecting inherent inequalities. In such organisations, subordinates expect to be told what to do and the ideal boss is a benevolent autocrat or paternalistic leader. From the foregoing, it is plausible to suggest that in such a socio-cultural context, managers can wield a lot of power and loyalty and use it to ensure that WLB policies are

accessed and used in a manner that fulfils the organisational objectives for introducing the policies.

4.3.3 The Political Profile of Ghana

Ghana is widely portrayed and hence perceived as the gateway to West Africa. According to the *CIA World* FactBook, Ghana was formed from the merger of the British colony of the Gold Coast and the Togoland trust territory. And in 1957, Ghana became the first sub-Saharan country in colonial Africa to gain its independence. The population of Ghana is around 25,199,609 (July 2013 est. CIA World FactBook) and has over 100 different linguistic and cultural troupes since 1960. Although there are commonly spoken languages such as Asante, Ewe, Fante Boron (Brong), Dagomba, Dangme, Dagarte (Dagaba), Akyem, Ga, Akuapem, the official language spoken in Ghana is English, (CIA World FactBook). English thus serves as a medium of instruction in Ghana. According to a UNDP Report, there are 16% of muslims, 21% of traditional believers and an overwhelming 63% of Christians.

Since its' independence, Ghana has been organising presidential elections since 1960 and parliamentary elections since 1996. Ghana conducted its fourth 'Free and Fair' election in the fourth republic in 2012. Ghana continues to stand as a beam of hope for sub-saharan Africa because its' had six successful presidential elections compared to its' neighbours who frequently experience political turmoil even after elections. This shows the dedication of Ghanaians to the process of democracy. This was exemplified by the actions of the opposition party who resorted to court to seek redress for their election petition instead of resorting to the normal violence that has characterised general elections in some African countries. The successful resolution of the election petition shows the commitment from the political actors, the electoral commission and

the judiciary for orderly, free and fair elections in the country and has won a lot of world-wide respect for Ghana. The extent of progress of the democracy in the country can therefore be attributed specifically to the political stakeholders as well as the general Ghanaian public.

The predicted 8% economic growth by 'The Economist' has been widely linked to democratic dispensation in the country. With its stable political environment, robust economic growth and rich endowment of natural resources, Ghana is attracting a significant foreign direct investment. According to an IMF report in 2013, the existing elected government has adopted an ambitious transformation agenda centred on economic diversification, social inclusion and job creation, and macroeconomic stability. However, factors such as a large current account deficit, increasing public debt, and a low official reserve, are likely to expose the economy to significant stability risks. An increasing public sector wage bill and costly energy subsidies led to a near tripling of the cash deficit to 12 % of GDP in 2012.

Ghana has proved to the world that an African country can successfully adopt and adapt democracy; establish and implement a sustainable democracy. The economic reforms by successive governments have led to a relatively strong economic reform making Ghana the easiest place to carry out business in West Africa as depicted in The World Bank's *Doing Business, 2012 which* ranked Ghana 63rd on ease of doing business well ahead of Turkey, China, Vietnam, Indonesia, and India, second to none in West Africa.

4.3.4 Brief Economic Profile of Ghana

Ghana has enjoyed a relatively healthy management of the economy over the last twenty-five years. This, coupled with the competitive business environment, and sustained reductions in

poverty levels has helped improve Ghana's economy. Ghana also enjoys an abundance of natural resources. The agricultural sector accounts for roughly one-quarter of GDP and employs more than fifty percent of the workforce. The services sector accounts for 50% of GDP. Ghana's gross national income (GNI) is constantly increasing through the years with a sharp rise in 2005 revealing a strong and stable economy. With the economic growth averaging more than six percent each year, Ghana is among the few in Africa expected to meet the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) of halving the poverty rate by 2015 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014). Over the years, gold and cocoa exports as well as individual remittances from relatives staying abroad have been the major sources of foreign exchange. Revenues from gold especially as well as the large informal sector, helped the country withstand the effects of the financial crisis (credit crunch) that bedevilled the world in 2008.

However, IMF has reported slow growth in the economy for the past three years and has predicted the slow growth to continue in 2015. This has been variously attributed to the falling prices of gold and oil on the world market, deepening energy crisis, a huge public sector wage bill leading to high deficits (International Monetary Fund, 2015). The expectation of many Ghanaians that the oil industry which began operation in the Jubilee fields in 2010 has left many disappointed and dissatisfied with the government's management of the earnings from the oil industry. This, coupled with increasing cost of living and the current energy crises have led to a belief among many Ghanaians that the earnings from oil and other sectors of the economy is going into the pockets of corrupt politicians. A new IMF assistance program, which started this year, is supposed to guide the government's economic policies and help reduce the fiscal deficit by cutting subsidies, reducing the ballooning public sector wage bill, and strengthening revenue

administration through tax collection, but these austerity measures are generally not welcomed by the public (International Monetary Fund, 2015).

The total unemployment rate in Ghana is 5.2 percent; the rate is higher among females (5.5%) than males (4.8%). This indicates the bias in the traditional gender roles in Ghana where it is generally believed and expected that men work and take care of the family while women take care of the home and play nurturing role. Thus, overall, females are more likely to be unemployed than their male counterparts (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014).

The Ghanaian economy is categorized into three main sectors including agriculture, industry and services (Ghana Statistical Service, 2013). The percentage contribution of agriculture, industry, and services to total GDP as recorded in the CIA World Factbook (2014) are 21.5%, 28.7%, 49.8%.

4.3.5 Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs)

The private sector has been the engine of most developing and developed countries. Thus, in both developed and developing countries, SMEs which account for 90% of the private sector play a critical role in the development of a nation (Abor and Quartey, 2010). One advantage of SMEs have over large formal organisations that SMEs have the flexibility and adaptability needed to survive economic downturns and this has proved to be advantageous to the changing market conditions. The geographic distribution of SMEs across the ten regions of the nation facilitates employment and the even distribution of income as the sector adds value to raw materials in the agriculture, mining, pharmaceutical and food and beverage industries. According

to the Registrar General's Department of Ghana, 92% of companies registered are micro, small, and medium enterprises. Additionally, SME's provide about 80 per cent to employment, contribute about 70 per cent to Ghana's GDP, and therefore have a major impact on economic growth, income and employment (Abor and Quartey, 2010).

The above figures give the impression that SMEs in Ghana have several strengths and great potential for growth in an era where the developed global markets may be dwindling. Ghana's market size has been growing and opportunities within Africa are also beginning to look attractive for SME's in manufacturing, food processing, pharmaceutical, mining, IT and agro and service sectors of the economy.

Despite of the enormous appeal of SME's on Ghana's economy, there are several challenges faced by them. The number one challenge for SME's the world over is the scarce funding to expand operations and to compete with relatively larger businesses and SMEs in Ghana are no exception. Most SME entrepreneurs in Ghana due to their low level of managerial skills, give low importance to accounting and financial planning and rather place higher priority on the marketing aspect of their businesses, which in effect leads to excessive expenditures. Though the current economic environment calls for innovation as a tool for SMEs to gain competitive advantage, most of the SME's in Ghana engage in very little or no research at all. This is because majority of SMEs in Ghana are family businesses with very limited access to funding.

These factors coupled with financial illiteracy among many business owners especially in the informal sector makes it difficult for the people to form partnerships (Ghana Statistical Service, 2013). Aside managerial know-how and access to funding, other challenges faced by SMEs in

Ghana include but not limited to factors such as the lack of support services for SMEs from the government and the high cost of such services from private consulting firms. Also, regulatory constraints also contribute immensely to the challenges faced by owners of SMEs. For example, the 2006 report on Doing Business in Ghana by the World Bank indicated that it takes 127 days and 16 procedures to deal with licensing issues in Ghana. These factors coupled with fierce competition from foreign firms and challenges with technology transfer have been threatening the existence and success of SMEs in Ghana (Abor and Quartey, 2010).

4.3.6 Agriculture

Before independence, the agricultural sector of Ghana used to be the key driver of the Ghanaian economy accounting for about 40 percent of the country's gross domestic product (GDP), employing 60-70 percent of the labour force and generating more than 55 percent of the foreign exchange earnings. In fact the first president of the Ghana had planned on using the wealth from the agricultural sector as a springboard for economic growth until contributions from the sector to GDP started declining from the 1960s (Clark, 1994). Cocoa also used to hold the highest potential growth and used to be the mainstay of Ghanaian economy. At the macroeconomic level, cocoa is Ghana's second leading foreign exchange earner, after gold, worth about 30 percent of all revenue from export and responsible for about 57 percent of overall agricultural export. At the microeconomic level, cocoa alone contributes to poverty reduction as it provides livelihood for more than 700,000 farmers. The cocoa produced by Ghana is of the highest quality and trades at a higher price than cocoa from other origins. The fine quality of cocoa coupled with the relative ease in doing business in Ghana has made the cocoa sector attractive to foreign investors. As a result, American food company Cargill, which has been sourcing cocoa from

Ghana for over 40 years in 2007 constructed a state of the art cocoa processing facility. Additionally, Cadbury, a British confectionery company, imports 70% of its cocoa beans from Ghana and 2008 launched the Cadbury Cocoa Partnership. This partnership invested £45 million over a ten-year period in projects to help cocoa farmers to help improve their livelihoods.

However, the steady decline in the agricultural sector was seen in 2012 when agriculture contributes only 22.7% to the GDP. In 2012, the agriculture sector recorded the lowest growth of 1.3%, compared to 0.8% in 2011 but well below the growth of 5.3% in 2010. This was also below the target growth rate of 4.8% predicted for the year. The poor performance has been attributed to the decline in the cocoa and forestry and logging sub-sectors, which contracted by 6.9% and 1.4% respectively. Some have also attributed the decline to the lack of investment in the sector and the competition from cheaper imported agricultural products like rice and chicken. On a positive note, livestock and fishing sub-sectors grew by 5% in 2012, partly due to significant investments in aquaculture (Ghana Statistical Service, 2013).

4.3.7 Industry

Ghana's industrial base is relatively advanced compared with other countries in the sub-saharan region. For example, there are import-substitution industries companies in Ghana like RLG Communications which is the first indigenous African company to assemble laptops, desktops, mobile phones, that focuses on electronics manufacturing. Also, in terms of automobiles and electric cars manufacturing; the artisans of Suame Industrial Development Organization (SMIDO) located in the second largest city in Ghana began automotive industry car manufacturing with the construction of its first self-assembled prototype robust sport utility vehicle (SUV) named the SMATI Turtle 1. The SMATI Turtle 1 was intended for use in the rough African terrain. Despite this feat of success, the cars are yet to be commercialised. The

textile industry have also seen successful players like Akosombo Textiles Limited (ATL), Tex Style Ghana Limited (GTP), Printex Ghana and Ghana Textile Manufacturing Company (GTMC). Crude oil and gas refining have also been pursued by the Ghana National Petroleum Corporation and Ghana Oil Company although they have experienced challenges in recent times.

In 2011, the institute of statistical, social and economic research reported that economic performance was strongly driven by industrial growth in the oil, construction and mining sub-sectors. However, in 2012, all the sub-sectors experienced much slower growth rates. The mining and quarrying sub-sector which registered a substantial growth of 206.5% in 2011, grew at 5%, 27 percentage points below the 31.9% target set for 2012 (ISSER, 2013). This was partly due to a contraction in oil and gas production occasioned by production difficulties at the Jubilee Field in the first half of the year. The electricity sub-sector also recorded the highest growth rate of 11.1%, after contracting in the previous year. The manufacturing sub-sector grew by 5%, 8 percentage points lower than in 2011. Some of the reasons for the poor performance of the manufacturing sector include: dampened competitiveness of local manufacturing companies, high utility prices, high costs of inputs and raw materials, among others.

Though solid minerals grew significantly as well as crude oil production, drastic reduction in investment in the development of oil wells in 2012 compared to 2011, contributed to the low growth of the mining and quarrying subsector.

Mining, which is a prominent sub-sector under industry, accounts for 5% of the country's GDP and minerals make up 37% of total exports, of which gold contributes over 90% of the total mineral exports. Ghana is Africa's second largest gold producer, producing 70 tons in 2003 reaching 2,143 Moz in 2005 (Ghana Investment Promotion Council, 2014). Ghana is also a

major producer of other minerals such as bauxite, manganese, and diamonds. In terms of major investments, as well as output, AngloGold Ashanti and Newmont Ghana Limited are the only firms with stability agreements with government. With the recent drop in gold and oil prices on the world market, the mining industry might be unstable and this is supported by the huge redundancies that took place in 2014 and culminated in 2015. Gold Fields Ghana (GFG) is presently the number one gold mining company and largest gold producer in Ghana. The annual production is about 935,000 ounces from its two operating mines at Damang and Tarkwa and engages about 5,612 Ghanaians in direct employment (Ghana Statistical Service, 2013).

4.3.8 Services

The Ghanaian domestic economy in recent times especially in 2012 revolved around services, which accounts for 50% of GDP and employs 28% of the work force. Growing output towards economic industrialization has made Ghana remain one of the more economically sound countries in all of Africa. In 2012, the service sector alone recorded the highest growth of 10.2% Gross Domestic Product (GDP).

The fastest growing sub-sector was the Financial Intermediation sub-sector (22%). Three other sub-sectors which performed well were Hotels and Restaurants (9.2%), Transport and Storage (6.5%), and Information and Communication (6.4%). However, some of sub-sectors in the services sector experienced decreases or no growth in 2012. Noteworthy among them was the Trade; Repair of Vehicles, Household Goods sub-sector which declined 12 percentage points, as well as Other Community, Social and Personal Service sub-sector, which also declined by 9 percentage points (Ghana Statistical Service, 2013). Below is a table showing the growth rates of

the three main sectors and their corresponding sub-sectors. This is followed by a figure showing

the sectorial contributions to the national output or gross domestic product.

Table 4.1: Sectorial and Sub-Sectorial Growth Rates

	2011* Actual C1	2012 Target C2	2012** Actual C3	Diffe-rence (C3-C1)	Difference (C3-C2)
AGRICULTURE	0.8	4.8	1.3	0.5	-3.5
Crops and Livestock	3.7	5.0	1.0	-2.7	-4.0
o/w Cocoa	14.0	4.3	-6.9	-20.9	-11.2
Livestock	5.1	4.5	5.0	-0.1	0.5
Forestry and Logging	-14.0	5.0	-1.4	12.6	-6.4
Fishing	-8.7	3.0	4.7	13.4	1.7
INDUSTRY	41.1	15.8	7.0	-34.1	-8.8
Mining and Quarrying	206.5	31.9	5.0	-201.5	-26.9
Manufacturing	13.0	3.7	5.0	-8.0	1.3
Electricity	-0.8	10.0	11.1	11.9	1.1
Water & Sewerage	2.9	4.0	2.0	-0.9	-2.0
Construction	20.0	14.4	11.2	-8.8	-3.2
SERVICES	8.3	7.7	10.2	1.9	2.5
Trade; Repair of Vehicles, Household Goods	17.9	7.0	5.8	-12.1	-1.2
Hotels and Restaurants	3.6	10.0	13.0	9.4	3.0
Transport and Storage	3.3	5.5	9.8	6.5	4.3
Information and Communication	17.0	10.0	23.4	6.4	13.4
Financial Intermediation	1.0	12.0	23.0	22.0	11.0
Business, Real Estate, other service activities	14.0	10.4	13.1	-0.9	2.7
Public Administration and Defence; Social Sec.	7.4	8.0	4.2	-3.2	-3.8
Education	3.8	8.0	6.7	2.9	-1.3
Health and Social Work	5.0	9.0	7.9	2.9	-1.1
Other Community, Social and Personal Service	13.0	9.6	4.0	-9.0	-5.6

* Revised   ** Provisional

Source: Ghana Statistical Service, 2013

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
■ Agriculture	30.4	29.1	31	31.8	29.8	25.6	22.7
■ Industry	20.8	20.7	20.4	19	19.1	25.9	27.3
■ Services	48.8	50.2	48.6	49.2	51.1	48.5	50
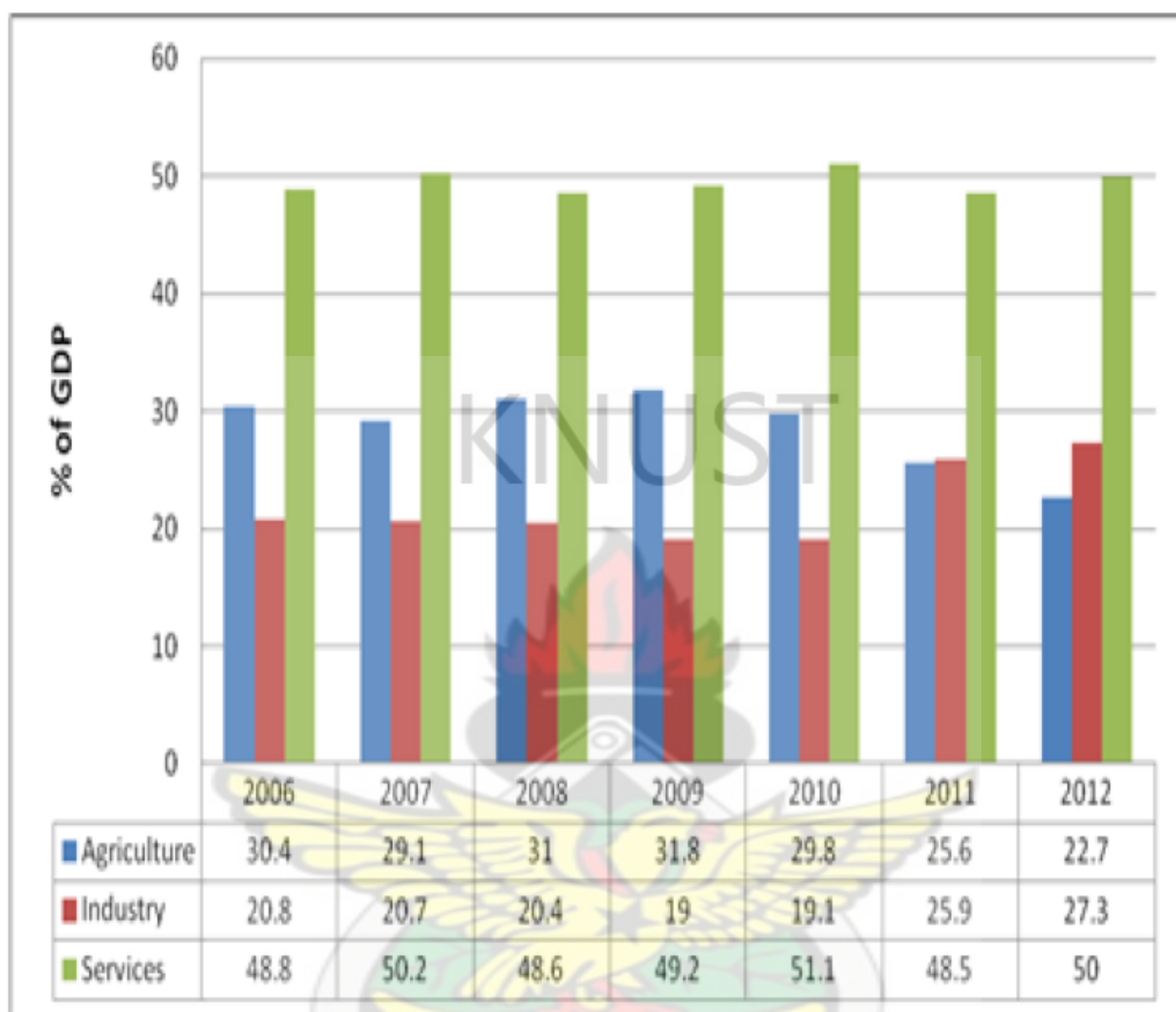
Figure 4.1: Sectorial Contributions to National Output
Source: Ghana Statistical Service, 2013

4.3.8 Conclusion on the context of the study

In late 2010, Ghana was re-categorised as a lower middle income country on the back of factors such as the relatively political stability, ease of doing business, rich natural reserves, and skilled labour and less expensive workforce. All these factors make Ghana an attractive place to do business as well as start small and medium ventures for both locals and foreigners. With revised regulations aimed at making Ghana more business friendly, the Government is trying to create

awareness among individuals, future entrepreneurs, and potential investors (international and local) that Ghana is an emerging market and represents the gateway to sub-saharan Africa. It is against this backdrop that organisations in Ghana have to create an enabling work environment through the use of WLB policies to ensure that employees are satisfied and able to function effectively and efficiently both their work and non-work domains.

4.4 Sample and Data Collection

Thirty (30) organisations comprising of seven hundred and twenty-four (724) employees from the three major sectors (agriculture, industry and services) of the economy (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010) and drawn from the two largest cities in Ghana participated in the study (see table 4.1). The individual level was considered the unit of analysis.

Table 4.2Participating organisations and sample size drawn

Participating Organisation	Questionnaires sent out	Questionnaires received	L2	L1	Sector	Sub-sector
LBA	50	30	15	15	Industry	Manufacturing (Beverage and Alcohol)
GAA	100	79	39	40	Industry	Mining
CA	30	18	9	9	Service	Religion
KB	15	8	4	4	Service	Banking
SFC	10	7	4	3	Service	Logistics
PFD	12	9	5	4	Agriculture	Agriculture/food processing
VTE	22	20	10	10	Service	Media
SEG	40	24	12	12	Service	Education
CPNG	22	16	8	8	Industry	Manufacturing/Oil Processing/Refinery
CBG	15	12	6	6	Service	Media
PG	30	25	12	13	Industry	Manufacturing/Energy/ Power Producer
SHG	13	9	5	4	Service	Health
AUG	15	10	5	5	Service	Insurance
MFH	30	24	12	12	Service	Media
FSAI	150	95	47	48	Service	Courier /logistics
GPI	30	26	13	13	Industry	Manufacturing
BRJ	20	14	7	7	Service	Banking
TUSNK	25	20	10	10	Service	Education
GFM	25	16	8	8	Industry	Manufacturing
LGM	60	58	29	29	Service	Insurance
CMN	12	12	6	6	Service	Media
PFO	10	7	4	3	Industry	Food processing
SVS	37	20	10	10	Service	Services
HOS	15	8	4	4	Service	Health
MS	20	15	7	8	Industry	Manufacturing
PPS	10	6	3	3	Industry	Manufacturing
ATC	7	6	3	3	Service	Services
CU	20	14	7	7	Service	Banking
SPU	120	102	51	51	Service	Security
GBWW	20	14	7	7	Service	Banking
Total:	**985**	**724**	**362**	**362**		

Because of Confidentiality the actual names of the participating organisations are not revealed.
Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Participation of the organizations was obtained through the personal and social contacts of the researcher. The organizations were drawn from various sectors of the economy (see table 4.1). Aside personal visits to the organisations and informal discussions held with Chief executive officers and HR managers, official letters explaining the main objective of the study were sent to each participating organisation. This was followed with several visits and meetings to the organisations to seek their intention to participate. Out of 50 organisations initially identified, 46 agreed to participate. Out of the 46, 39 organisations actually returned the questionnaires administered. After the data cleaning process, data from 30 organisations were fit to be used for analysis. To facilitate the willingness and participation of managers in the survey, the researcher was introduced to the management team during management meetings. The objectives of the survey and the role of the management team in facilitating the survey were explained at these meetings. In other organisations the HR Directors gave the researcher introductory letters to be given personally to the departmental managers or their deputies upon arrival to facilitate the process of data collection. Due to the wide geographic scope of the study, the study area was divided into three zones namely, Ashanti, Accra East and Accra West. It took an average of one month to administer and collect data from each zone. Hence it took a total of three months to collect the full set of data.

To initiate the investigation, a list of employees was compiled by the human resource managers in each of the selected organizations. Respondents were randomly selected from the list to take part in the survey. The lists comprised of both managerial and non-managerial staff. Three research assistants were employed and trained to assist in the administration of questionnaires and collection of completed questionnaires from the employees. Each questionnaire had a cover

letter that explained the main purpose of the survey, informed respondents that participation in the survey was optional, and assured them of the confidentiality of their responses. The objective of the survey was explained as being concerned with examining the employees' experience of WLB initiatives of the focal organisation. In order to avoid respondents attaching different meaning to the term 'Work-Life Balance', a working definition was given in the introductory part of the questionnaire.

Of the 985 questionnaires distributed, a total of 777 were completed and returned. However, after data cleaning, only 724 responses were used for data analysis representing a response rate of 72%. Of the 724 employees surveyed, 58% (420) were men; they reported a mean age of 34.5 years (SD = 8.1) and organizational tenure of 10.6 years (SD = 6.74). All respondents were married and worked an average of 47.83 hours (SD = 8.22) a week. The modal educational attainment was an undergraduate degree.

4.5 Measures

In Ghana, English is the official language. As the medium of instruction from basic school to tertiary level, most employees working in formal employment are proficient in the reading and writing of English. Therefore the questionnaires were administered in English. I ascertained the appropriateness of the WLB scale by discussing it with three senior human resource managers of the participating organisations and one Regional Manager of one of the organisations used in the pilot study. I also consulted my supervisor and other colleagues in the area of HRM. As a result of these consultations, a number of the items were rephrased but the consensus was that they reflect WLB practices in many of the medium to large organizations in Ghana. Additionally, I

pre-tested the subordinate survey using 40 employees drawn from four branches of 2 multinational banks (neither of these banks nor their branches participated in the study). Based on the feedback obtained from the pre-test, I reworded some items to ensure clarity.

4.5.1 Individual Level Measures

Individual level measures in the study included job resources, employee engagement, perceived organisational support, work-life enrichment, traditional gender roles and work-life balance satisfaction.

4.5.1.1 Job Resources

A 6-item scale adapted from Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) and Chen and Kao, (2012) was used to measure job resources. The responses ranged from [1] "strongly disagree" to [5] "strongly agree". Items like "I have autonomy and control over the execution of my job" and "I have the opportunity of learning new things through my work" measured work resources The alpha reliability for the scale in this study is .68.

4.5.1.2 Cognitive employee engagement

Congitive employee engagement was measured with a 4-item scale adopted from the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004). The responses ranged from [0] "Never" to [6] "Always". Example of the items are; "I am enthusiastic about my job" and "At my job, I feel strong and vigorous". The alpha reliability for the scale in this study is .82.

4.5.1.2 Behavioural employee engagement

Behavioural employee engagement was measured with a 5-item scale adopted from the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004). The responses ranged from [0] "Never" to [6] "Always". Example of the items are; ""I am immersed in my job" and "I get carried away when I am working" The alpha reliability for the scale in this study is .72.

4.5.1.3 Perceived Organisational Support

Perceived organisational support was measured with a 16-item scale. It included 3 items on supervisor supported and 3 items on work-life balance culture of an organisation, all adapted from (Avgar et al., 2011). The scale was designed to reflect Eisenberger's (2002) conceptualisation of POS as the general believe of employees that the organisation has a general positive or negative orientation toward them that goes beyond their contribution and wellbeing. The scale also has items that measure support from co-workers. The remaining items were developed from the review of literature on POS and WLB. The responses ranged from [1] "strongly disagree" to [5] "strongly agree". The alpha reliability of the scale in this study is .78.

4.5.1.4 Work-Life Enrichment

Work-Life Enrichment (WLE) was measured with a 6-item scale which was developed from the review of literature on the concept. The responses ranged from [1] "strongly disagree" to [5] "strongly agree". Items included; "My co-workers cover for me when I have to attend to family/non-work activities". The alpha reliability of the scale in this study is .62.

4.5.1.5 Traditional gender role attitudes

Employees' perception of traditional gender role was measured using a 7-item scaled adapted from Fortin's (2005) scale. The scale was designed to measure employee attitudes regarding women and men's labour participation. The responses ranged from [1] "strongly disagree" to [5] "strongly agree". Some of the items included "It is usually better for everyone involved if the man is the achiever outside the home and the woman takes care of the home and family" and "A working mother can establish just as warm and secure a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work." The alpha reliability of the scale in this study is .71.

4.5.1.6 WLB Satisfaction

WLB Satisfaction was measured with a 3-item scale which was developed from the review of literature on the concept. The responses ranged from [1] "strongly disagree" to [5] "strongly agree". Items included; "I am satisfied with time left for family/non-work roles". The alpha reliability of the scale in this study is .75.

4.5.2 Organisational level variables

Organisational level variables for the study included work-life balance policies, awareness, usage and experienced work-life balance.

4.5.2.1 WLB policies/initiatives

This was determined through discussions with the HR managers of the participating organisations in the study. Prior to the employee survey, discussions were held with HR mangers

to determine the WLB initiatives of their organisations. Some of the practices being implemented in the participating organisations included but not limited to compassionate (bereavement) leave, parental leave and on-site child care. However, these practices do not cut across the entire participating organisations. The responses from the HR managers informed the scale development for section A in particular and the full employee survey as a whole. Apart from work-life balance policies, all the other variables were tested based on the relevant hypothesis of the study.

4.5.2.2 Awareness

Employees' awareness of the availability of WLB initiatives was measured with a 4-item scale adopted from Avgar et al, 2011. Some of the items include "Does your organisation have written copies of work-life balance policies?" and "Is it easy to understand when and how these work-life balance policies can be used by employees?" The responses range from [1] 'Don't Know" to [3] "Yes". The alpha reliability is .78.

4.5.2.3 WLB Policy Usage

Workplace flexibility has been operationalized into three main categories; schedule flexibility (such as flexi time and compressed working hours), location flexibility (such as working from home) and reduced work load (Hill and Morrison, 2013; Aryee et al., 2013). This idea including inputs from the HR managers of the participating organisations largely informed the development of the scale to measure the usage of WLB initiatives by employees. The usage the policies by employees was measured with a 16-item scale. The responses ranged from [1] 'Never' to [5] "Very often". The alpha reliability of the scale in this study is .87.

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4.5.2.4Experienced WLB

Employees reported their individual experiences of WLB using a scale adapted from the MBA Alumni Perspective Survey (2012) and Sub-Scales measuring equilibrium by Joplin et al (2003). The scale was designed to measure components of the employees' felt WLB (Frone, 2003) as well as his/her overall appraisal of felt WLB (Edwards, 1996). It was a 7 item scale with response options from [1] "very true" to [5] "not at all true". Items included 'The work-life balance practices in my organization are adequate in helping me meet my family/non-work responsibilities" and "I am well able to meet family and work demands". The scale's alpha reliability in this study is .62.

4.5.3 Controls

Following previous research (Mathews, Bulger and Barnes-Farrell, 2010; Aryee et al., 2012; Ahmad et al., 2013), I controlled for respondent's *age* and *gender* since these variables have been found to be related to experienced WLB and its associated outcomes (Rusconi et al., 2013). Age and sex were measured using a single item that requested respondents to indicate age and to indicate their sex (Male = 1 and Female =2). I also controlled for marital status, number of children and available childcare options to isolate the impact of increased caring responsibilities associated with marriage and children (Mathews, Bulger and Barnes-Farrell, 2010). This may affect the use and effect of WLB policies. I also controlled for position in the organisation, level of qualification, tenure and type of employment because most studies show that managerial and professional full-time workers who have been with the organisation for a some years are more likely than other workers to know about and have access to work–family policies and are more likely to use them (Glass and Estes 1997; Lambert 1999; Jacobs and Gerson 2004).

4.7 Data Analysis

Various techniques were used to analyse the data. The first set of analyses focused on examining the psychometric properties of the instruments (i.e., reliability) and the multilevel characteristics of the conceptual model (i.e., aggregation, and non-independence). The second set focused on confirmatory factor analysis to ensure construct validity. Construct validity is the extent to which a set of measured variables actually represents the theoretical latent construct those variables are designed to measure (Hair et al., 2010). The third set of analyses focused on testing the hypotheses.

4.7.1 Reliability tests

I first conducted preliminary analyses to examine the psychometric properties of the variables. Reliability refers to the degree to which a measure of a concept is stable or the extent to which available or set of variables is consistent in what it is intended to measure. I assessed the reliabilities of measures by computing internal consistency estimates or Cronbach's alpha (α) (Cronbach et al., 1972). Item analyses were conducted to eliminate items that contribute to scale reliabilities falling below .60. Consistent with empirical convention, scales with alpha coefficients greater than 0.60 were retained (Hair et al., 2010; Aguinis et al., 2001). Reliability tests were performed on all nine variables. The reliability tests resulted in cronbach alphas that ranged from 0.6 to 0.9 showing that variables were reliable and could be repeated in a different set of respondents over time with consistent result.

4.7.2 Non-independence

According to multilevel theory, cognitive, affective and behavioural attributes of individual members of an organization manifest at the organizational level through emergent processes to form organizational-level WLB (Kozlowski and Klein, 2000). It was therefore necessary to

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consider "what, how, where, when, and why" of bottom-up processes when investigating organisational phenomena. This study focuses on effect of WLB policies in organisations. Effects of organizational WLB are a function of individual experiences of organisational members. To assess the effect of individual awareness, usage and experiences of WLB on organisational level or collective awareness, usage and experiences of WLB, the process by which individual experiences emerge at the organisational level was assessed (Aryee et al., 2013). In other words, the responses of individual organisational members may not be independent. So, I assessed the emergence process for non-independence using the intra-class correlation (ICC) suggested by Bliese (2000). ICC (1), also known as ICC (1,1), represents a form of proportional consistency, and is interpreted as the proportion of the total variance that is explained by organisational membership, and ICC (2), defined as reliability of unit means, indicates whether unit means can be used to reliably differentiate between units (in terms of organisation member ratings) were evaluated. I used the ANOVA approach which calculates ICC (1) and ICC (2) as a function of the between-group mean square and the within-group mean squares as shown below.

$$ICC(1) = \frac{MSB - MSW}{MSB + [(k-1)*MSW]}$$

Where *MSB* is the between-group mean square, *MSW* is the within-group means square, and *k* the group size. Bliese (1998) has shown that ICC (1) computed using the above formula may differ from ICC(2) computed using the random-effects ANOVA:

$$ICC(2) = \frac{MSB - MSW}{MSB}$$

Where *MSB* and *MSW* are the same as above. ICCs based on this approach range from -1 to +1 (Bliese, 2000).

4.7.3 Aggregation

Multilevel researchers suggest that data gathered from lower-level units (e.g. individuals) to assess higher-level constructs be evaluated for homogeneity before using the higher-level constructs for analysis (Rousseau, 1985). Multilevel models specify relationships between phenomena at higher and at lower levels of analysis. Thus, links between phenomena at different levels are either top-down or bottom-up. Top-down processes generally refer to contextual influences and bottom-up processes refer to emergence (Kozlowski and Klein, 2000). Emergence comprises compilation and composition models. Compilation models describe phenomena that comprise a common domain but differ distinctively in the emergence process. On the other hand, composition models describe constructs that are essentially the same as they emerge upward across levels (Kozlowki and Klein, 2000). Chan (1998) identified a typology of five types of composition models: additive, direct consensus, referent shift consensus, dispersion, and process. The model presented in this study relates to reference-shift consensus. In a reference-shift consensus model, lower-level attributes being assessed for consensus are conceptually distinct though derived from the original individual-level construct (Zoogah, 2006).

Procedures typically used for aggregation of referent-shift consensus model include r_{wg} (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984). I computed r_{wg} to evaluate the possibility of aggregating individual responses to the organisational level for collective awareness, usage and EWLB.

4.8   Data Cleaning and Preparation

Though multivariate techniques place tremendous analytical power in the hands of the researcher, it also places a greater burden on the researcher to ensure that the statistical and theoretical underpinnings on which they are based are supported. Therefore, the first step in data analysis involved an examination and cleaning of the data to prepare it for the rigorous analytical techniques used in the study. Below are some of the activities were performed.

4.8.1   Missing Data

The first state of data cleaning and preparation saw the examination of missing data. After examining the data cases with substantial missing data predominantly in either the independent and/or dependent variables were deleted. Also, running descriptive statistics in SPSS helped to ascertain the extent and pattern of missing data. The descriptive statistics from the data showed that the missing data was completely random. In other words, the missing data were indistinguishable from cases with complete data. To verify that the missing data were completely missing at random, Little's Missing Completely at Random test was performed on all the cases in the data set. The result of the test was not statistically significant which suggest that the missing values were completely missing at random. Based on the results, replacement values were imputed through an Estimation Maximisation Algorithm process using SPSS.

4.8.2   Normality and Homoscedasticity

The most fundamental assumption in multivariate analysis is normality. This refers to the shape of the data distribution for individual metric variable and its correspondence to the normal distribution which is the benchmark for statistical methods. According to Hair et al (2010), if the

variation is sufficiently large, all resulting statistical tests are invalid, because normality is required to use the F and *t* statistics.

Using SPSS, the Shapiro-Wilks test was performed to test for normality. The results indicated that normality was statistically significant which meant that some portions of the data was not normally distributed. In order to avoid violating the normality assumption, kurtosis (which refers to the peakedness or flatness of the distribution compared with normal distribution) was transformed with the use of the inverse (e.g. $1/Y$ or $1/X$).

Also negatively skewed (which describes the balance of the distribution) distributions were transformed using a squared or cubed transformation, whereas the logarithm (which was deemed to be the most appropriate) was used to transform positive skewness in the data.

The assumption of homoscedasticity refers to the assumption that dependent variable(s) exhibit equal levels of variance across the range of predictor variable(s). Homoscedasticity is desirable because the variance of the dependent variable being explained in the dependence relationship should not be concentrated in only a limited range of the independence values. The transformations made to correct non-normal distribution also remedied the heteroscedasticity in the data. Tests to check multicollinearity and outliers were also performed using SPSS and variables with high multicollinearity and outliers were removed.

4.8.3   Reverse coding

Before running reliability tests and confirmatory factor analysis on scale items, negatively worded statements or items were reverse coded. This was done to avoid cancelling out between variables with positive and negative factor loadings on the same factor. It also ensured that a high value indicates the same type of response on every item.

4.9   Data Analytic Techniques

This section details the analytical tools to be used in analysing data collected in the current study. Three data analytic techniques were used to analyse the data – Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), Hierarchical Multiple Regression (HMR) and Hierarchical Linear Modelling (HLM).

4.9.1   Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

SEM refers to a class of methodologies that seeks to represent hypotheses about the means, variances, and covariances of observed data in terms of a smaller number of structural parameters defined by an underlying hypothesized model (Kaplan and Kriesman, 2000). Alternatively, SEM can be seen as a comprehensive statistical approach to testing hypotheses about relations among observed and latent variables (Hoyle, 1995) and it is also one of the more popular statistical methodologies available to quantitative management researchers for data analysis. The process of testing hypotheses with SEM begins with the specification of a model to be estimated based on the objectives and underlying theories of the study. A model is a statistical statement about the relations among variables and based on theory or results of empirical research. Specification is the exercise of formally stating a model and it is central to the SEM approach. Indeed, no analysis can take place until the researcher has specified a model of the

relations among the variables to be analysed (Hoyle, 1995). In SEM, model specification involves formulating a statement about a set of parameters. Parameters typically are specified as either fixed or free. Fixed parameters are not estimated from the data and their value typically is fixed at zero. Free parameters are estimated from the data and are those that the investigator believes to be non-zero (Hoyle, 1995). There are two components of the general structural equation model. The first is the measurement model. It is that component of the general model in which latent variables are prescribed. The second is the structural model which has the component of the general model that prescribes relations between latent variables and observed variables that are not indicators of latent variables (Hoyle, 1995; Kaplan, 2000). A fundamental consideration when specifying models in SEM is identification. Identification concerns whether a single unique value for each and every free parameter can be obtained from the observed data (Hoyle, 1995).

Once a model has been specified, the next task is to obtain estimates of the free parameters from a set of observed data. Although single-stage least squares methods such as those used in standard ANOVA or multiple regression can be used to derive parameter estimates, iterative methods such as maximum likelihood or generalized least square are preferred. When the estimation procedure has converged on a solution, a single number is produced that summarizes the degree of correspondence between the latent and observed covariance matrix. That number is referred to as the value of the fitting function. A model is said to *fit* the observed data to the extent that the covariance matrix it implies is equivalent to the observed covariance matrix (i.e. elements of the residual matrix are near zero). The most common index of fit is the goodness-of-

fit test, which is derived directly from the value of the fitting function (Hoyle, 1995; Kaplan, 2000).

The index of fit provides a perspective on the fit of structural equation models (Kaplan, 2000). The basic idea behind indices is that the fit of the model is compared to the fit of some baseline model that usually specifies complete independence among the observed variables. Some of these indices include *normed fit index* (NFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and comparative fit index (CFI). According to Kaplan, (2000), these indices are typically scaled to lie between zero and one, with one representing perfect fit relative to the baseline model.

While SEM shares some similarities with standard approaches like correlation, multiple regression and ANOVA, it differs from the standard approaches in some way and has some strengths over the other approaches. The SEM approach is a more comprehensive and flexible approach to research design and data analysis than any other single statistical model in standard use by management and social scientists. Although there are research hypotheses that can be efficiently and completely tested by standard methods, the SEM approach provides a means of testing more complex and specific hypotheses than can be tested by those methods (Hoyle, 1995; Kaplan, 2000), hence the reason for its use in this study. Also SEM uses confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to reduce measurement error by having multiple indicators per latent variable. SEM was used in my data analysis for various reasons. First, there was the need to conduct a series of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for my organizational-level data and individual-level data to ensure model fit. For instance with the organisational-level, I tested the hypothesized three factor measurement model that included collective Awareness of WLB,

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Usage of WLB and Experienced WLB. With the individual-level data, I tested a 6-factor model which included experienced job resources (JR), WLE, POS, employee engagement, Traditional Gender Role and WLB Satisfaction. SEM provides a means of controlling not only extraneous variables or confounding variables but for measurement error as well (Hoyle, 1995), hence the use of SEM.

4.9.2 Hierarchical Multiple Regression (HMR)

According to Petrocelli (2003), multiple regression is a set of multivariate techniques that are used for examining specific scientific hypotheses and relationships among experimental, quasi-experimental, and non-experimental data. Typically, multiple regression is used as a data-analytic strategy to predict and/or explain a criterion (dependent) variable with a set of predictor (independent) variables. Hierarchical regression, which is one of the many researcher controlled regression methods, involves theoretically based decisions that inform how predictors are entered into the analysis.

In their paper on the use of multiple regression in research, Wampold and Freund (1987) described the difference between simultaneous, stepwise, and hierarchical regression. According to them, simultaneous regression involves cases in which the researcher enters all of the predictors into the analysis at once whereas stepwise regression involves choosing which predictors to analyse on the basis of statistics. Hierarchical regression on the other hand, involves theoretically based decisions on how predictors are entered into the analysis. Therefore, simultaneous and stepwise regression are typically used to explore and maximize prediction,

whereas hierarchical regression is typically used to examine specific theoretically derived hypotheses (Aron and Aron, 1999; Cohen, 2001).

Again, what makes hierarchical multiple regression different from the statistical methods described above is that instead of the computer program using statistical criteria to make such entry decisions, HMR allows the researcher to determine which variables they would like to propose as covariates. The selection of a covariate should not be arbitrary but rather based on theory or solid empirical basis in which existing literature has shown the need to take into account the relationship(s) between the criterion variable and one or more of the predictors (Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2006).

According to (Petrocelli, 2003) in hierarchical multiple regression analysis;

- IVs are entered into equation in the order specified by the researcher based on theoretical grounds

- IVs are entered in steps (blocks)

- Each IV is assessed in terms of what it adds to the prediction of DV after the previous IVs have been controlled for.

- Overall model and relative contribution of each block of variables is assessed

Block entry analysis can serve at least two research functions. First, several variables in combination may predict better than any one of them taken in isolation. Entering variables as a set (block) allows researchers an opportunity to explore that possibility. Second, some variables in a study may either naturally relate to each other or may all pertain to a general area of the content domain and so may lend themselves to be entered as a block. For example, in predicting

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the strength of factors that affect employee WLB, one may want to enter confounding variables such as respondents' demographics before the more purely organisational factors such as job resources or perceived organisational support (Meyers, Gamst and Guarino, 2006).

HMR was used in the study for three reasons. First, I needed to know how well a set of IVs is able to predict a particular outcome (DV). Second, I needed to identify which IV is the best predictor of an outcome. Third, there was a need to find out whether a particular predictor variable is still able to predict an outcome when the effect of another variable is controlled (Hair et al, 2010). For example, I tested for the ability of Awareness of WLB policies to predict Usage of the WLB policies. In order to know the extent to which Awareness predicts Usage, I controlled for demographic factors which are also confounding variables such as age, gender and marital status. This was done not only to establish a positive and significant relationship between Awareness and Usage, but also to identify which variable is the best predictor of Usage and whether the confounding variables are still able to predict Usage with the introduction of Awareness; the variable of prime concern.

The use of hierarchical multiple regression analyses should give a better insight into which variables contribute to the interaction effect. Moreover, by means of regression analyses it is possible to determine whether an interaction effect is significant over and above the main effects. And finally, regression analyses allow for a comparison between different interaction terms in terms of explained variance. For those reasons, the present study will use hierarchical multiple regression analyses to calculate the different interaction terms within the organizational-level model and the individual-level model.

4.9.3 Hierarchical Linear Modelling (HLM)

Organizations are inherently hierarchical. Individuals are nested in work groups, work groups are nested in departments, departments are nested in organizations, and organizations are nested in environments. Given this characteristic, a natural concern is how one level influences another level in organizational setting (Hoffman, 1998). Hierarchical Linear Modelling (HLM) was used to analyse the cross-level hypotheses of the study. Hierarchical linear modelling is a software package used as a description for a broader class of models – random coefficient models, and models designed for hierarchically nested data structures (Hofmann, Griffin, and Garvin, 2000). Thus, in order to gain a better understanding of the dynamics individual behaviour within organizations, the research needs to measure individual attributes as well as the aspects of the environment within which the individual is performing. This means that the resulting data will include variables that reside at different levels of analysis. The different levels of analysis include the individual, group or departmental, organisational and national levels. Thus the analysis will include variables that describe the lower level and the higher level units and contexts of the study (Hofmann, 1997).

Hofman (1997) has suggested that in situations where variables exist at more than one level of analysis (exhibited by a lower level outcome and both lower level and higher level predictors), there are three main options for data analysis that the researcher can choose from. First, one can disaggregate the data so that the lower-level units are assigned a score representing their value on the higher-level variable. The data analysis for this option, therefore, would be based on total number of lower level units included in the study. This, according to Bryk and Raudenbush (1992), is referred to as, ordinary least score regression analysis (OLS). For instance, all

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individuals might receive a score representing their work group's cohesion, with the investigation between cohesion and satisfaction carried out at the individual level. The challenge with this solution is that multiple individuals in the same work group, are likely to be exposed to similar experiences within the group. Thus, one cannot satisfy the independence of observations assumptions that is required by traditional statistical approach (Hofmann, 1997). Aside violating this assumption, the disaggregation approach leads to another problem. Statistical tests involving the variable at the higher level unit are based on the total number of lower level units and this can influence estimates of the standard errors and associated statistical inferences (Bryk, and Raudenbush, 1992).

The second major approach is to aggregate the lower-level variables to the same level as the higher level variables. For example, one could investigate the relationships between group characteristics and individual outcomes by aggregating the individual outcomes to the group level (Hofmann, 1997). The disadvantage of this approach is that potentially meaningful individual-level variance is ignored both in the outcome measure and in one of the predictors (Hofmann et al., 2000). In summary, neither of these two options seems to be satisfactory for the testing of my hypotheses - consisting of individual-, and cross-level relationships, since potentially meaningful individual-level variance ignored might result in a group or organisational-level variable with questionable construct validity.

The third major approach to dealing with data structures that are hierarchically nested is the use of hierarchical linear models. These models are specifically designed to overcome the weaknesses of the disaggregated and aggregated approaches discussed above. First, these models

explicitly recognize that individuals within a group may not provide independent observations because they are more similar to one another as compared to individuals in another group. In other words, the HLM models have the advantage of clearly modelling both the lower-level and the higher-level random-error components, by recognizing the partial interdependence of individuals within the same group (Hofmann et al., 2000). This aspect of hierarchical linear models is in contrast to OLS approaches discussed above, where individual and group-level random errors are not separately estimated. In addition, these models allows for investigating both lower-level and higher-level variance in the outcome variable while maintaining the appropriate levels of analysis for the independent variables Thus, hierarchical models overcome the disadvantages of the previous two approaches (Hofmann et al., 2000).

HLM models helps to test hypothesised relationships between variables at two levels of analysis. Conceptually, the hierarchical linear modelling approach is a two-stage strategy that investigates variables occurring at two levels of analysis. Level 1 involves estimating a separate regression for each group including the individual-level predictor and individual-level outcome. Level 2 models the variance in the level 1 intercepts and slopes using the group-level variable (Hofmann 1997; Hofmann et al., 2000). It should be noted that the level 1 and level 2 models are estimated simultaneously. Three key terms that arise in estimating these models are *fixed effects, random coefficients, and variance components*. Fixed effects are parameter estimates that do not vary across groups. The hierarchical linear models, and the HLM software estimates these fixed effects by using a generalized least squares (GLS) regression approach (Hofmann et al., 2000).

Although these two regression parameters could be estimated with an Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression approach, this is not appropriate, given that the precision of the level 1parameters (that is the level 2 dependent variable) is likely to differ across groups, and it is this variation in precision that is taken into account in the level 2 analysis (Hofmann et al., 2000). This GLS estimates provides a weighted level 2 regression so that groups with more reliable (that is more precise) level estimates receive more weight and therefore have more influence in the level 2 regression; t-test statistical tests are provided for these fixed effects (Hofmann, 1997; Hofmann et al, 2000). The variance of the level residuals and variance-covariance of the level residuals comprise the variance components. The variances and covariances of the level 2 residuals are contained in the T matrix. The HLM procedure uses the expectation maximization (EM) algorithm to produce maximum likelihood estimates of the variance components. With regard to statistical tests, HLM provides a chi-square test for the level 2 residual variances assessing whether the particular variance component departs significantly from zero (Hofmann, 1997).

Random coefficients are those coefficients that are allowed to vary across groups. For instance the level 1 intercepts and slopes are random coefficients. The HLM procedure does not provide any statistical tests for these parameters. However, one can assess whether the mean and variance of these parameters depart significantly from zero (Hofmann et al., 2000).Since hierarchical linear models use the level-1 regression parameters (i.e., intercepts and slopes) as outcome variables in the level-2 equation, it is imperative that researchers fully understand the specific interpretation of these parameters. HLM provides several 'centering' options to assist in the

interpretation of results concerning the intercept term in the level-2 analysis (Bryk, and Raudenbush, 1992; Hofmann 1997; Hofman, and Gavin, 1998).

''Centering'' describes the rescaling of the level-1 predictors for which three primary option shave emerged: (1) raw metric approaches where no centering takes place and the level-1 predictors retain their original metric, (2) grand mean centering where the grand mean is subtracted from each individual's score on the predictor, and (3) group mean centering where the group mean is subtracted from each individual's score on the predictor. With grand mean centering, the intercept represents the expected level of the outcome for a person with an ''average'' on the predictor. It is significant to note that the appropriate choice of centering depends on the model (theoretical paradigm) (Hofmann, 1997).

As with any statistical technique, there are certain assumptions required for statistical inference. Hofmann (1997, p. 739) notes the following statistical assumptions of HLM (Bryk and Raudenbush, 1992, p. 200):

1. Level-1 residuals are independent and normally distributed with a mean of zero and variance for every Level-1 unit within each Level-2 unit;

2. The Level-1 predictors are independent of the Level-1 residuals;

3. The random errors at level-2 are multivariate normal, each with a mean of zero, some variance, and a covariance among random elements, and are independent among level-2 units;

4. The set of Level-2 predictors are independent of every Level-2 residual. (This assumption is similar to assumption 2, but for Level-2);

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5. The Level-1 and Level-2 residuals are also independent.

With respect to sample-size requirements, Kreft, (1996) and Mok, (1995) conclude that, in general relatively large sample sizes are required. Studies have indicated that in order to have sufficient power of 0.90 to detect cross-level interactions it is necessary to have a sample size of 30 groups containing 30 individuals. However, there are trade-offs (either large number of groups, with fewer individuals within or small number of groups with more individuals per group) (Hofmann et al., 2000). With regard to the necessary conditions that must be met before hypotheses are to be supported, these are discussed in the main analysis section.

In sum HLM has several strengths over the other approaches discussed earlier. First, HLM explicitly models both individual and group level residuals, therefore, recognising the partial interdependence of individuals within the same group. Second, the method allows researchers to identify and partition different sources of variance in outcome variables. In view of these strengths, HLM is used to test the cross-level hypotheses. The ensuing discussion provides a vivid description of how and why HMR and HLM were used to test my group-, individual-, and cross-level hypotheses.

Figures 1 and 2 show that the hypotheses consist of organizational-, individual-, and cross-level relationships. To analyse the organizational and individual level hypotheses, I utilized Hierarchical multiple regression (HMR) approach. The HMR approach has several advantages, including correcting for attenuation due to measurement error and providing the best balance of Type I error rates and statistical power (MacKinnon et al., 2002).

To examine the cross-level hypotheses, I utilized hierarchical linear modelling (HLM; Raudenbush, and Bryk, 2002). The HLM was deemed particularly appropriate because the approach accounts for the nested nature of data while maintaining the appropriate level of analysis for the predictors (Raudenbush, and Bryk, 2002). Thus, HLM allowed me to account for potential non-independence effects and cross-level effects, thereby providing more correct estimates of the standard errors of the Level 1 and Level 2 effects. Any cross-level analysis was tested using intercepts-as-outcomes, because I hypothesized effects of organizational-level variables on individual-level outcomes. In all the HLM analyses, I used grand-mean centering to facilitate the interpretation of the HLM results (Hofmann, and Gavin, 1998). Interactive calculation tools for establishing simple intercepts, simple slopes, and regions of significance were used to test a two-way interaction estimated in hierarchical linear regression model.

4.7.2 Conclusion

In this chapter, I discussed research design. I also provided an in-depth discussion of the three data analytic techniques used to analyse the data – SEM, HMR and HLM, highlighting their advantages over other data analytic techniques, and providing rationale for their use. SEM was used to run the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), HMR was used to analyse the organisational-and-individual-level hypotheses, while HLM was used to analyse cross-level hypotheses. In the ensuing chapter, the results of the data analytic techniques used to test the study hypotheses are presented.

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION OF DATA AND ANALYSIS

5.1   Introduction

The objectives of my study are first, to test WLB, by examining at the organizational level, awareness and usage of organizational WLB policies as intervening mechanisms through which WLB influences individual and organizational outcomes such as POS and employee engagement through a multi-level analysis respectively. Second, to test at the individual level, job resources, work-life enrichment and perceptions of organizational support (POS) as mechanisms through which the awareness and usage of organizational WLB policies ultimately influences employee engagement. I used SEM to test how well the measured variables represent the constructs of the study through a confirmatory factor analysis process. To analyse the data, I used hierarchical multiple regression analysis to test the individual-level and (through aggregation) organizational-level hypotheses, and HLM to test the individual and organizational cross-level hypotheses. In this chapter, I present the results of the data analytic techniques used to test the study hypotheses.

5.2   Measurement Issues

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a convenient hypothesis-driven alternative of exploratory factor analysis that is based on measurement theory and represents a special case of structural equation modelling (SEM) that measures the latent variables in a model. In such models, measures of each activated region of interest are treated as indicators of an underlying latent construct that represents the concurrent activation of the elements in the model. Thus, it prescribes latent variables. As such, confirmatory factor analysis focuses analyses that activates

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the hypothesized model as a whole, improves statistical power by modelling measurement error, and provides a theory-based approach to data reduction with a robust statistical basis. It also helps in fine-tuning the structural model which has the component of the general model that prescribes relations between latent variables and observed variables that are not indicators of latent variables.

Using structural equation model (SEM) I conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) to examine whether the variables in the hypothesized model (for level 1 and level 2) captured distinct constructs those variables were designed to measure. The CFA results for the data showed that the level two hypothesized three-factor measurement model that included awareness, usage and experienced WLB fit the data well with a goodness of fit index of .91, TLI of .91, CFI of .93, an root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA) of .051 and a p-close of .41 ($p < .05$). These results support the construct and discriminant validity of the measures. Table 5.1 presents the descriptive statistics, internal consistency reliabilities, and correlations among the study variables.

Table 5.1: Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations

Organisational Level (n= 30)

	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1 Age Range	1.66	.75												
2 Gender	1.29	.48	-.115*											
3 No. of Children	.75	.95	.488**	-.193**										
4 Child Care	3.96	2.23	-.444**	.106	-.606**									
5 Marital Status	1.59	.78	.495**	-.043	.477**	-.457**								
6 Position	1.40	.82	.061	-.072	.096	-.076	.037							
7 Qualification	2.37	1.23	.082	.032	.098	.017	.095	-.054						
8 Tenure	1.21	.60	.443**	.013	.148**	-.176**	.127*	.064	.065					
9 Emp. Type	1.50	1.22	-.214**	.074	-.104	.073	-.136	.017	-.070	-.072				
10 Awareness	6.18	2.03	-.111*	-.095	-.092	.095	-.051	-.065	-.166**	-.099	.041	**0.78**		
11 Usage	3.80	1.92	-.082	-.048	.055	-.062	.081	-.111	-.094	-.082	.097	.443**	**0.87**	
12 EWLB	2.73	.70	-.026	-.022	.073	-.028	-.023	-.090	.003	-.012	.024	.090	.171*	**0.62**

Note. The reliability coefficients are in diagonal. Awareness = Awareness of organisational WLB policies; Usage = Usage of Organisational WLB policies; EWLB = Experienced WLB

Table 5.2: Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations

Variables	M	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Individual Level (N=362)																
1 Age	1.8	0.89														
2 Gender	1.34	0.49	-.160**													
3 No. of Children	0.93	0.97	.593**	-.112*												
4 Child Care	3.55	2.2	-0.426	.158**	-.581**											
5 Marital Status	1.62	0.65	.429**	-0.06	.505**	-.464**										
6 Position	1.56	0.94	.222**	-0.023	.120*	-.118*	0.082									
7 Qualification	2.5	1.26	.229**	-0.081	.168**	-.145**	.170**	0.096								
8 Tenure	1.43	0.88	.589**	-0.1	.353**	-.293**	.272**	.147**	.148**							
9 Emp. Type	1.44	1.13	-.128*	0.097	-.114*	.150**	-.114*	-.129*	-0.093	-.149**						
10 Cog. Eng.	5.89	1.76	.118*	0.002	0.052	-0.031	0.053	0.095	-0.03	.108*	.621**	**0.82**				
11 Beh. Eng.	3.51	1.07	0.046	0.001	0.007	0.043	0.031	0.057	-0.001	0.012	0.071	.621**	**0.72**			
12 Job Resources	3.55	0.6	-0.104	-0.02	-.133*	0.052	-0.082	-0.007	-0.023	-0.07	0.03	.283**	.281**	**0.68**		
13 WLE	3.37	0.57	0.002	-0.048	-0.025	0.039	-0.017	-0.027	0.03	-0.042	0.024	.150**	.132**	.290**	**0.62**	
14 POS	3.25	0.53	-0.039	-0.076	-0.035	0.043	-0.078	-.146**	0.006	-.198**	.184**	.158**	.162**	.170**	.429**	**0.78**
15 TGR	2.95	0.73	-0.067	-0.068	0.006	0.024	-0.063	-0.041	-0.035	-0.09	0.057	-0.024	0.034	0.086	.206**	.238**
16 WLB Sat	3.2	0.82	-0.063	0.004	-0.062	0.063	-0.036	-0.05	0.03	-0.072	0.006	.164**	.184**	.364**	0.069	0.037

Note: The reliability coefficients are in diagonal. Engagement = Employee Engagement; WLE = Work-life Enrichment; POS= Perceived Organisational Support; TGR = Traditional Gender Role

* p< .05 (two tailed).

** p< .01 (two tailed).

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

As shown in Table 5.1, awareness of organisational WLB policies related to usage of the WLB policies (r = .65, p < .00) and Experienced WLB (r = .58, p < .01). Usage of WLB related to Experienced WLB (r = .49, p < .06). As shown in table 5.2, job resources relate to perceived organizational support (POS) (r = .17, p < .01), work-life enrichment (r = .29, p < .00) and employee engagement (r = .28, p < .00). POS related to engagement (r = .16, p< .02), work-life

enrichment (.43, p < .00), and traditional gender role (r = .24, p < .00). Work-life enrichment

related to employee engagement (r = .13, p < .01) and traditional gender role (r = .20, p< .00).

5.3 Analysis of Organisational and cross-level hypotheses

The first conceptual framework/model of the study (which was a multi-level model) was tested

using HMR and HLM. HMR was used to test the hypothesised relationships between variables at

the organisational level (H1$_a$, H2$_a$ and H2$_b$) while HLM was used to test the cross-level

hypothesised relationships and one individual level hypothesis (H4).

5.3.1 Organisational-Level Predictions

It was predicted in hypothesis 1a that awareness of organizational WLB policies would be

positively related to usage of organizational WLB policies, which, in turn, would be positively

related to employees' experienced WLB (Hypothesis 2a). Because all these variables were

conceptualized and measured at the organizational level, I utilized hierarchical multiple

regression to test these direct and mediated hypotheses respectively. I did this by assessing the

overall level of awareness, usage, experienced WLB for the thirty organisations who participated

in the study. I first split the data into organisational and individual levels and averaged across

organisational ratings of the individuals to form organisational-level awareness, usage and WLB.

This was to avoid common method bias. This approach is consistent with prior research (e.g.,

Aryee et al., 2012; Liao and Chuang, 2004). I also calculated both within-group agreement

(*r*wg(j); (James, Demaree, and Wolf, 1984) and two intraclass correlations (ICCs) to provide

empirical justification for aggregating awareness, usage and experienced WLB to the

organisational level. ICC1 indicates the proportion of variance due to organizational

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membership, whereas ICC2 indicates the reliability of organizational mean differences (Bliese, 2000). The median $r$wg(j) was .89 for awareness and .79 for usage and .60 for EWLB, the ICC1 was .63 for awareness, .30 for usage and .29 for EWLB, and the ICC2 was .80 for awareness, .70 for usage and .52 for EWLB, providing support for aggregating to the organisational level.

Different models of hierarchical multiple regressions were performed to investigate the ability of independent variables to predict dependent variables at the organizational level after controlling for demographic or confounding variables such as age, gender, number of children, childcare options, marital status, position in organisation, level of qualification, tenure and type of employment (Lavanya and Thangavel, 2014; Huffman and Frevert, 2013; Ahmad, King and Anderson, 2013). To make sure that these variables do not explain away the entire association between the IVs and DVs of concern, I put them into the first model or block. This ensures that they will get "credit" for any shared variability that they may have with the predictors of interest. Any observed effect of the IVs on the DVs can then be said to be "independent of" the effects of these variables that I have already been controlled for (Hair et al., 2010).

In each regression, preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. Additionally, the correlations amongst the predictor variables included in the models were examined and these are presented in Tables 5.1. All correlations were weak to moderate. This indicates that multicollinearity was unlikely to be a problem (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The predictor variables of concern which were entered in step two of all models were statistically correlated with their matching dependent variables which indicate that the data was suitably correlated with the dependent

variables for examination through multiple linear regression to be reliably undertaken. The correlations between the predictor variables and the dependent variables were all weak to moderately strong.

In hypothesis 1a, I predicted that Awareness would be positively related to Usage. In the first step of hierarchical multiple regression, the nine control measures or confounding variables were entered. The control measures explained 31% variance in Usage, (R^2 = .31; F (9, 19) = .96; p > .50). After the introduction of Awareness, in step two, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 56%. The introduction of Awareness explained additional 25% variance in Usage, after controlling for the demographic variables (R^2 Change = .25; F (1, 18) = 10.11; p > .01). Finally, only one predictor variable was statistically significant, with Awareness recording a Beta value of (β = .58, p < .00).

In hypothesis 1c, it was predicted that awareness would be positively related to EWLB. In the first step of hierarchical multiple regression, the nine control measures or confounding variables were entered. The control measures explained 46% variance in Usage, (R^2 = .46; F (9, 19) = 1.7; p >.14). After the introduction of awareness, in step two, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 62%. The introduction of awareness explained additional 16% variance in EWLB, after controlling for the demographic variables (R^2 Change = .16; F (1, 18) = 7.51; p > .01). Finally, only one predictor variable was statistically significant, with awareness recording a Beta value of (β = .47, p < .01).

In hypothesis 2a, it was predicted that Usage would be positively related to EWLB. In the first step of hierarchical multiple regression, the nine control measures or confounding variables were

entered. The control measures explained 46% variance in Usage, (R^2 = .46; F (9, 19) = 1.8; p >.142). After the introduction of Usage, in step two, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 62%. The introduction of Usage explained additional 17% variance in EWLB, after controlling for the demographic variables (R^2 Change = .17; F (1, 18) = 7.84; p > .012). In the final model, two predictor variables were statistically significant, with Usage recording a higher Beta value of (β = .49, p < .012) than child care options (β = .45, p < .024).

Table 5.3: Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression (Level 2)

DVs	Usage	EWLB	EWLB
Control Measures			
Age	-3.57(4.36)	.06(.17)	.13(.17)
Gender	-1.05(5.93)	-.28(.24)	-.21(.23)
No. of Children	-2.01(3.39)	.02(.14)	.10(.13)
Child Care	-1.83(1.36)	.10(.05)	.14(.06)*
Marital status	6.01(5.58)	.02(.22)	-.16(.22)
Position	-3.07(2.58)	-.10(.10)	-.06(.11)
Level of Qualification	-.18(2.61)	.01(.10)	-.02(.10)
Tenure	-4.97(5.29)	-.13(.21)	-.04(.21)
Type of employment	.25(1.58)	.11(.06)	.12(.06)
Organisational-Level Variables			
N = 30			
Awareness	**3.50(.80)*****	**.11(.04)******	
R^2 (R^2 Change)	.56(.25)	.17(.16)	
Usage			**0.02(.01)******
R^2 (R^2 Change)			.46(.17)

Note. Values in parenthesis are standard errors; entries are unstandardized coefficients. *p< .05; **p < .01 ***p<.001 (two-tailed tests).R^2 Change is additional variance in DV as a result of the IV added in step two.
Source: Author's estimation, 2014
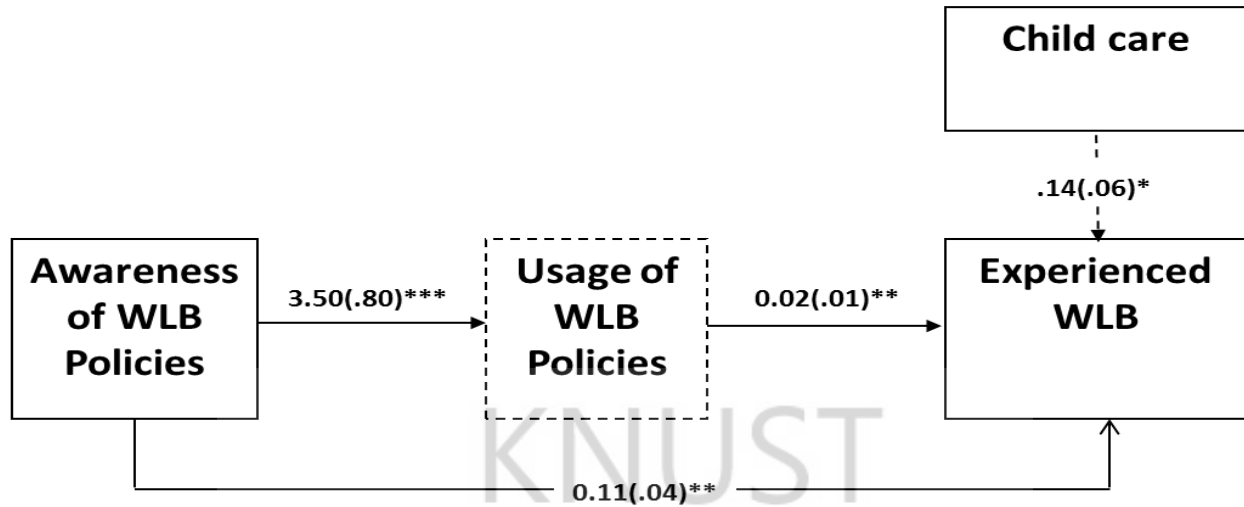
Figure 5.1: A diagram showing results for organisational level predictions

Source: Author's estimation, 2014

In hypothesis 2b, it was predicted that usage will mediate the relationship between Awareness and EWLB. Although the three conditions (IV predicts the DV, IV predicts the mediator and the mediator predicts the DV) for determining mediations were met, a preliminary hierarchical multiple regression to determine the possibility of a mediation relationship proved negative and not significant as depicted in Table 5.4. Therefore, the hypothesis was not supported; hence the null hypothesis could not be rejected.

Table 5.4 Model Summary of the test for mediation between Awareness, Usage and EWLB

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1.Awareness	.58[a]	.34	.31	.26	.34	14.23	1	28	.001
2.Awareness Usage	.60[b]	.36	.31	.26	.02	.98	1	27	.332

a. Predictors: (Constant), Awareness

b. Predictors: (Constant), Awareness, Usage

c. Dependent Variable: EWLB

Source: Author's estimation, 2014

5.3.2 Cross Level Predictions

It was predicted in hypotheses 1b and 2c that awareness and usage of organizational WLB policies would be positively related to POS. Again, it was predicted in hypothesis 3a that Experienced WLB would be positively related to POS. These are cross-level predictions so I utilized HLM to test my cross-level hypothesis.

The results presented in table 5.5 below shows that employees' awareness of organizational WLB policies is positive and significantly related to POS ($\hat{y} = .08$, $p < .01$; Model 1). The HLM result also shows that usage of organizational WLB is positive and significantly related to POS ($\hat{y} = .01$, $p < .01$; Model 2). These results support Hypothesis 1a and Hypothesis 2b, respectively.

Hypothesis 3 suggested that experienced WLB would be positively related to POS. The result shows that EWLB is indeed positive and significantly related to POS ($\hat{y} = .16$, $p < .05$; Model 3). Therefore, the results support all three hypotheses.

Table 5.5 HLM Results for Cross-Level and Individual Level Predictions

	Awareness	Usage	EWLB	Cognitive Engagement
	(Model 1)	(Model 2)	(Model 3)	(Model 4)
Level 1 (n=362)				
Level 2 (n=30)				
Intercept	3.22(.04)*	3.21(.05)*	3.21(.05)*	3.21(.06)*
Level 1 DV				
POS	.08(.03)*	.01(.00)*	.16(.06) †	.11(.03)*

Note. ᵃValues in parenthesis are standard errors; entries are unstandardized coefficients. In all models, variables are grand-mean centered. † $p < .05$; * $p < .01$; (two-tailed tests).

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

5.3.3 Individual-level Predictions

I utilized HLM to test one individual-level hypothesis. This is because the effect of cognitive engagement on POS forms part of the two-way interaction effect tested in section 5.4.4 below. Hypothesis 4 predicted that employee cognitive engagement would be positively related to POS. Using HLM, the prediction was tested and the result shows that Engagement is positive and significantly related to POS ($\hat{y} = .11$, $p < .01$; Model 4).
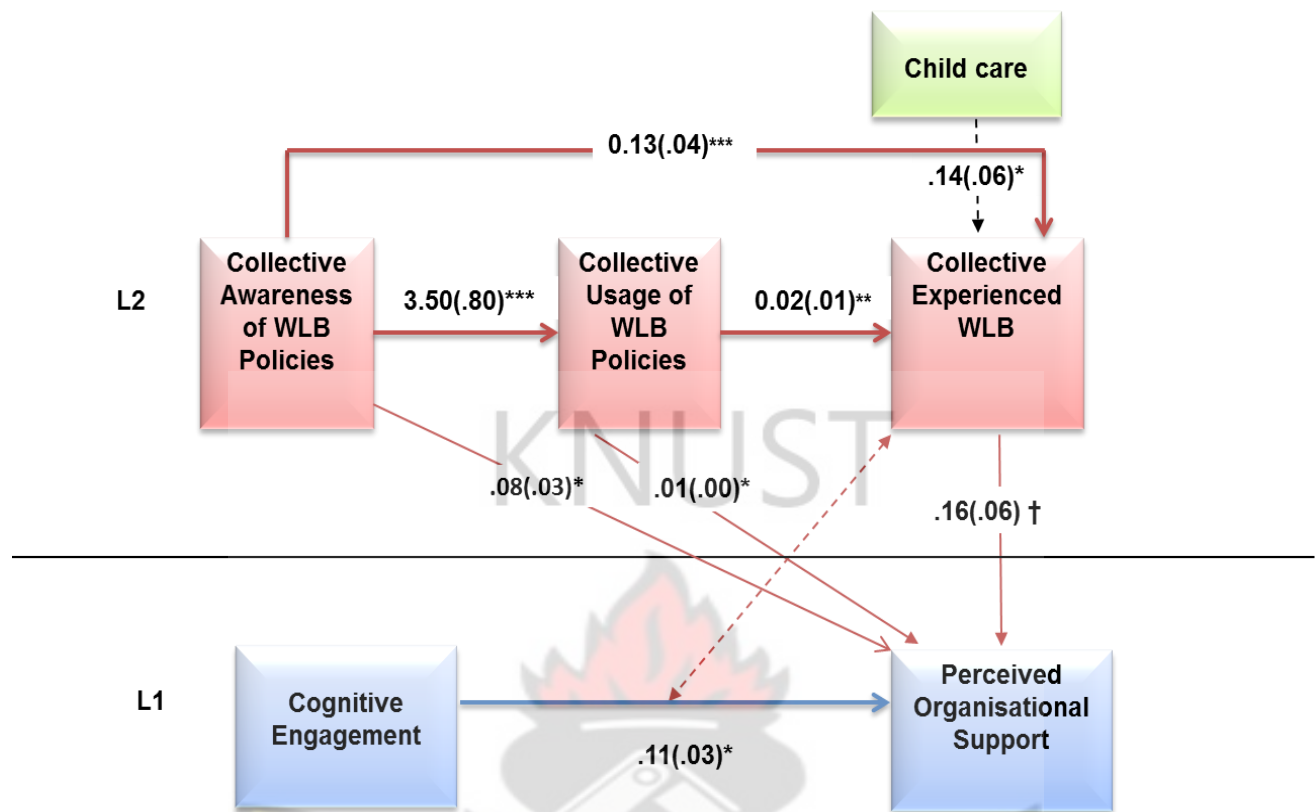
Note. Values in parenthesis are standard errors; entries are unstandardized coefficients. *$p <$ .05; **$p <$ .01 ***p<.001 (two-tailed tests). The cross-level interaction for which the simple slope computed is represented with broken arrows.

Figure 5.2: A diagram showing results for cross-level predictions

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

5.4.4 *Analysis of a Two-Way Cross-Level Interaction Effect*

It was also predicted in hypothesis 5 that EWLB will moderate the effect of cognitive engagement on POS. This type of relationship is referred to as interaction effect. Interaction effects represent the combined effects of variables on the criterion or dependent measure. According to Whisman and McCleland (2005) interaction or moderator effect is present when the association between two variables is hypothesized to be dependent on some other variable. When an interaction effect is present, the impact of one variable depends on the level of the other

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variable. As Pedhazur and Schmelkin (1991) note, the idea that multiple effects should be studied in research rather than the isolated effects of single variables is one of the important contributions of Sir Ronald Fisher. The importance of moderator or interaction research was underscored by Cohen et al., (2003), according to whom "it is safe to say that the testing of interactions is at the very heart of theory testing in the social sciences" (p. 255).

In order to ascertain the existence of a two-way interaction effect, the study tested the ability of EWLB to moderate the relationship between cognitive engagement and POS using HLM. The result of the regression (which includes the asymptotic covariance matrix) depicts an interaction effect as presented below:
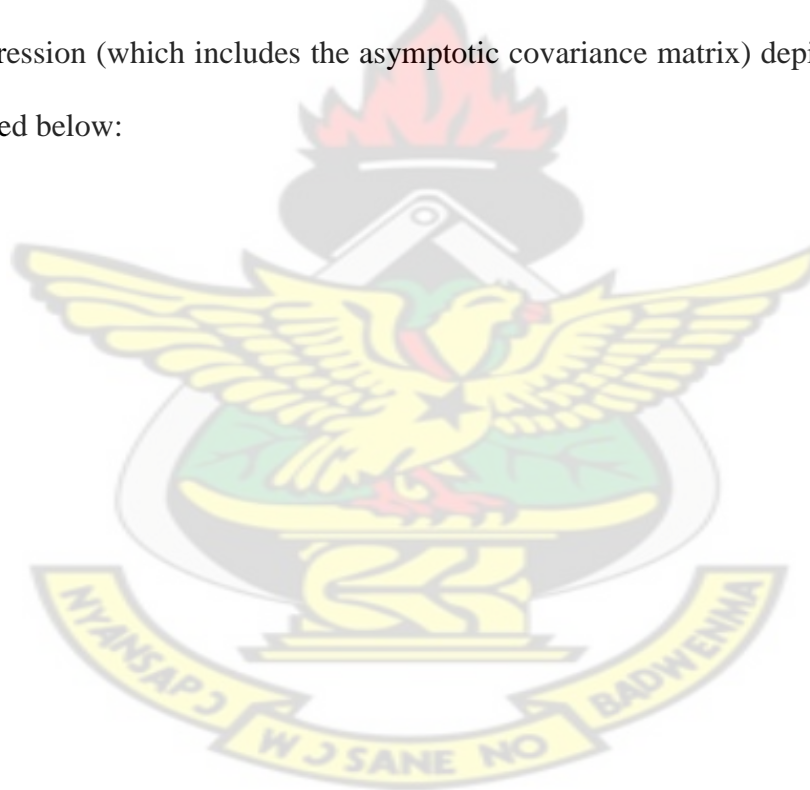
5.4.4.1 Summary of the model specified for the two-way interaction (Model 5)

Level-1 Model

$$POS\_A_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}*(ENG\_COG_{ij}) + r_{ij}$$

Level-2 Model

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}*(EWLB_j) + u_{0j}$$
$$\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}*(EWLB_j) + u_{1j}$$

Engagement has been centered around the grand mean.

EWLB has been centered around the grand mean.

Mixed Model

$$POS\_A_{ij} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01}*EWLB_j$$
$$+ \gamma_{10}*ENG\_COG_{ij} + \gamma_{11}*EWLB_j*ENG\_COG_{ij}$$
$$+ u_{0j} + u_{1j}*ENG\_COG_{ij} + r_{ij}$$

INTRCPT1,β_0	0.04168	0.00103
ENG_COG,β_1	0.00103	0.00003

τ (as correlations)

INTRCPT1,β_0	1.000	0.873
ENG_COG,β_1	0.873	1.000

Random level-1 coefficient	Reliability estimate
INTRCPT1,β_0	0.124
ENG_COG,β_1	0.005

The value of the log-likelihood function at iteration 2142 = -2.423607E+002

Table 5.6 Final estimation of fixed effects**:**

Fixed Effect	Coefficient	Standard error	t-ratio	Approx. d.f.	p-value
For INTRCPT1, β_0					
INTRCPT2, γ_{00}	1.484342	0.387262	3.833	28	<0.001
EWLB, γ_{01}	0.490260	0.137219	3.573	28	0.001
For ENG_COG slope, β_1					
INTRCPT2, γ_{10}	0.226334	0.061651	3.671	28	0.001
EWLB, γ_{11}	-0.059384	0.021954	-2.705	28	0.011

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Table 5.6.1 Asymptotic Variance/Covariance Matrix of Fixed Effects

	$\hat{Y}_{00}$	$\hat{Y}_{10}$	$\hat{Y}_{01}$	$\hat{Y}_{11}$
	2.86894			
$\hat{Y}_{00}$	*0.00921*	0.00165		
$\hat{Y}_{10}$	0.00164	*0.01883*	-0.00026	
$\hat{Y}_{01}$	-0.00114	-0.00026	*0.00020*	0.00004
$\hat{Y}_{11}$	-0.00027	-0.00259	0.00004	*0.0005*

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The ACOV matrix is the covariance matrix of parameter estimates. The ACOV matrix is also known variously as the ACM, the VCE (*variance-covariance matrix of the estimators*), or simply the inverse of the Fisher information matrix (denoted $I(q)^{-1}$). Elements along the diagonal (in italics) represent the variance expected of each parameter estimate over repeated sampling, and can be interpreted as indices of precision of estimation. Off-diagonal elements represent covariances of parameter estimates.

According to Preacher, Curran and Bauer (2004), interaction effect can occur solely within level one or solely within level two or result from a cross level prediction of a level one random effect by a level two covariate. In the current study and from the above results, there is evidence that there is a single main effect predictor at level one (Engagement) and a single main effect predictor at level two (EWLB) which is manifested in as a cross-level interaction. All of the fixed effects were significant, most notably the cross-level interaction between employees'

cognitive engagement and POS reflecting that the magnitude of the relation between cognitive engagement and POS varied as a function of EWLB.

In order to facilitate the testing and probing of the two-way interaction estimated in the hierarchical linear regression model above, Preacher, Curran and Bauer's (2006) web tool was used to calculate and plot the simple slope ($\ddot{\omega}_1$) of the conditional regression of the outcome (POS) on the focal predictor (cognitive engagement) as a function of the moderator (EWLB). Based on the results of model 5 and the results of the ACOV matrix above, the following were inputted in the web tool for calculation.

Table 5.6.2 Web Tool for Calculating Two-way Interaction Effect

	Regression Coefficients	Coefficient Variances		Conditional values
Y_{00}	1.48434	0.00921	$W_{1(1)}$	8.58
Y_{10}	0.22633	0.01883	$W_{1(2)}$	11.50
Y_{01}	0.49026	0.00020	$W_{1(3)}$	14.42
Y_{11}	-0.05938	0.0005	$X_{1(1)}$	2.72
			$X_{(2)}$	3.69
			$X_{1(3)}$	4.66
	Coefficient Covariances		Degrees of freedom	
$Y_{00}Y_{01}$	2.86894	dfint	28	
$Y_{10}Y_{11}$	0.00165	dfslp	28	
$Y_{00}Y_{10}$	-0.00026			
$Y_{01}Y_{11}$	0.00004			
				α 0.05

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Based on the results of the calculation, the interaction slope was plotted as follows:

Cross-level Interaction Plot
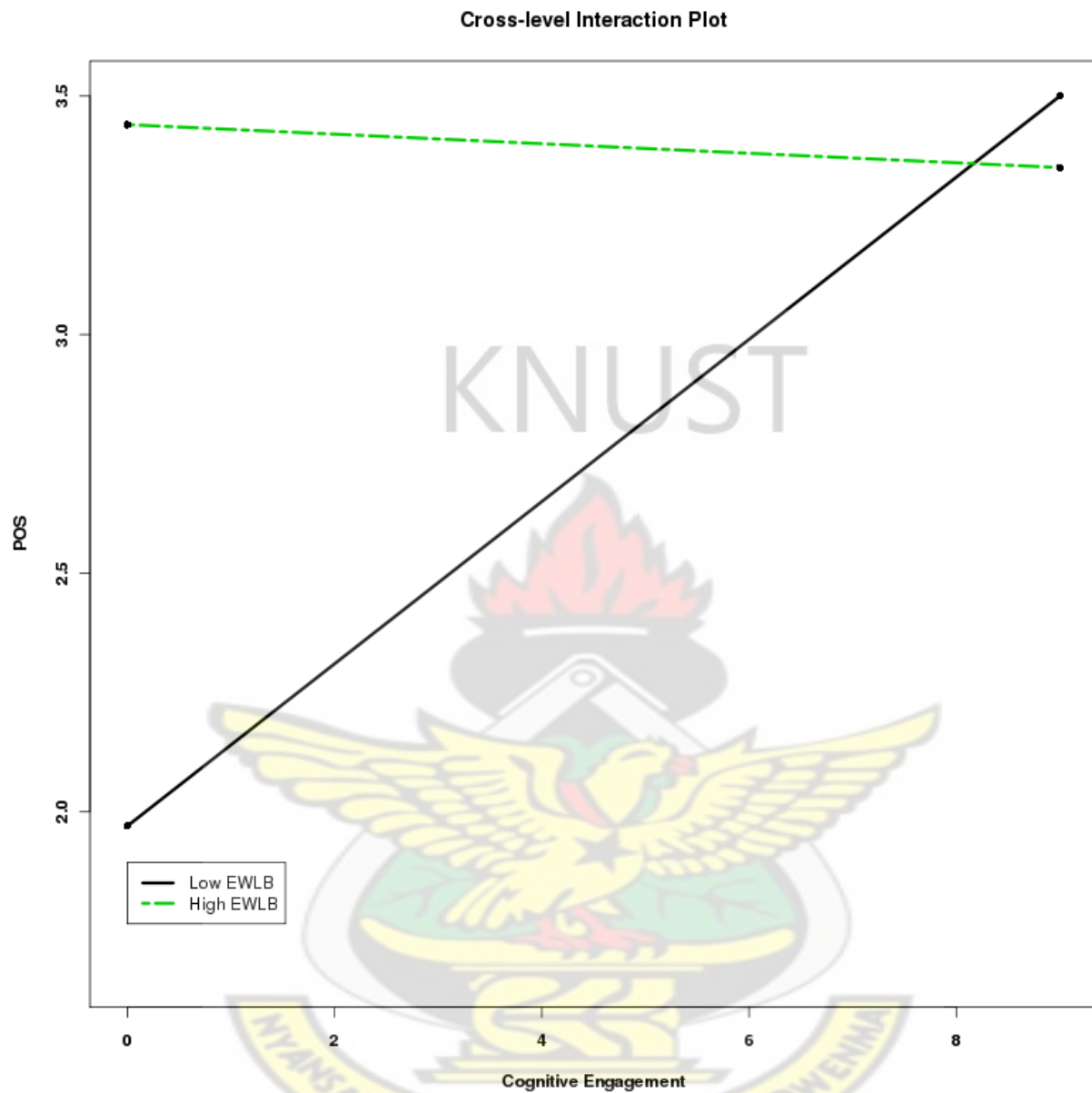
Figure 5.3: A 2-way HLM Interaction Slope Plot
Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Using the procedure described by Bliese (2002), I determined that the interaction term of EWLB and employee cognitive engagement explained 7% of the variance in individual POS. I then plotted this significant interaction graphically using values of one standard deviation below the mean and one standard deviation above the mean (Aiken and West, 1991).

The result indicates that there is a significant and positive relationship between Cognitive Engagement and POS, however, when it joins with EWLB, the effect is altered. This alteration is evident when cognitive engagement is low. As the figure above depicts, at low levels of cognitive engagement, those with low EWLB had lower levels of POS than those with high EWLB. This shows that EWLB significantly but negatively moderates the relationship between employee cognitive engagement and POS such that at low levels of cognitive engagement, high EWLB influences POS more than low EWLB. However, at high levels of cognitive engagement, there is no difference between low EWLB and high EWLB among employees in terms of their perception of organisational support.

5.4 Analysis of Individual Level Predictions

To test for the hypothesized relationships at the individual level of the conceptual framework of the study, different models of hierarchical multiple regressions were performed to investigate the ability of independent variables to predict dependent variables after controlling for nine demographic factors which were also deemed to be confounding variables such as age, gender, number of children, childcare options, marital status, position in organisation, level of qualification, tenure and type of employment (Lavanya and Thangavel, 2014; Huffman and Frevert, 2013; Ahmad, King and Anderson, 2013). To make sure that these variables do not explain away the entire association between the IVs and DVs of concern, I put them into the first model or block. This ensures that they will get "credit" for any shared variability that they may have with the predictors of interest. Any observed effect of the IVs on the DVs can then be said to be "independent of" the effects of these variables that I have already been controlled for.

In each regression, preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. Additionally, the correlations amongst the predictor variables included in the models were examined and these are presented in Table 5.2. All correlations were weak to moderate. This indicates that multicollinearity was unlikely to be a problem (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The predictor variables of concern which were entered in step two of all models were statistically correlated with their matching dependent variables which indicate that the data was suitably correlated with the dependent variables for examination through multiple linear regression to be reliably undertaken. The correlations between the predictor variables and the dependent variables were all weak to moderately strong (please refer to table 5.7) for details of hierarchical multiple regression as per discussion below.

Hypothesis 6a predicted that a job resource was positively related to POS. In the first step of hierarchical multiple regression, the nine control measures or confounding variables were entered. The control measures explained 9% variance in POS, (R^2 = .10; F (9, 352) = 4.31; p > .000). After the introduction of Job Resources, in step two, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 13% F (10, 351) = 5.05; p < .000). The introduction of job resources explained additional 3% variance in POS, after controlling for the demographic variables (R^2 Change = .026; F (1, 352) = 10.63; p > .001). In the final model, three predictor variables were statistically significant, with job resources recording a higher Beta value (β = .17, p < .01) than age (β = .16, p < .05) and type of employment (β = .15, p < .01).

Hypothesis 6b predicted that a job resource was positively related to WLE. In the first step of hierarchical multiple regression, the nine control measures or confounding variables were entered. The control measures explained 1% variance in WLE, (R^2 = .10; F (9, 352) = .42; p > .925). After the introduction of job resources, in step two, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 9% F (10, 351) = 3.64; p < .000). The introduction of job resources explained additional 8% variance in WLE, after controlling for the demographic variables (R^2 Change = .083; F (1, 352) = 32.33; p > .000). In the final model, one predictor variable was statistically significant, with job resources recording a Beta value (β = .29, p < .000).

Hypothesis 6c suggested that job resource was positively related to behavioural engagement. In the first step of hierarchical multiple regression, the nine control measures or confounding variables were entered. The control measures explained 3% variance in Engagement, (R^2 = .025; F (9, 352) = .1.01; p > .433). After the introduction of job resources, in step two, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 11% F (10, 351) = 4.23; p < .000). The introduction of job resources explained additional 8% variance in behavioural engagement, after controlling for the demographic variables (R^2 Change = .083; F (1, 352) = 32.45; p > .000). In the final model, two predictor variables were statistically significant, with job resources recording a higher Beta value (β = .29, p < .000) than type of employment (β = .11, p < .05).

Hypothesis 7a predicted that WLE were positively related to behavioural employee engagement. In the first step of hierarchical multiple regression, the nine control measures or confounding variables were entered. The control measures explained 2% variance in engagement, (R^2 = .02; F (9, 352) = 1.01; p > .433). After the introduction of WLE, in step two, the total variance

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explained by the model as a whole was 4% F (10, 351) = 1.56; p < .012). The introduction of job resources explained additional 2% variance in engagement, after controlling for the demographic variables (R^2 Change = .02; F (1, 352) = 6.42; p > .012). In the final model, two predictor variables were statistically significant, with WLE recording a higher Beta value (β = .13, p < .05) than type of employment (β = .11, p < .05).

Hypothesis 7b suggested that WLE was positively related to POS. In the first step of hierarchical multiple regression, the nine control measures or confounding variables were entered. The control measures explained 10% variance in POS, (R^2 = .10; F (9, 352) = 4.31; p > .000). After the introduction of WLE, in step two, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 27% F (10, 351) = 12.68; p< .000). The introduction of WLE explained additional 17% variance in POS, after controlling for the demographic variables (R^2 Change = .17; F (1, 352) = 32.45; p > .000). In the final model, two predictor variables were statistically significant, with WLE recording a higher Beta value (β = .41, p < .000) than type of employment (β = .15, p < .01).

Hypothesis 8 predicted that POS was positively related to behavioural engagement. In the first step of hierarchical multiple regression, the nine control measures or confounding variables were entered. The control measures explained 3% variance in behavioural engagement, (R^2 = .03; F (9, 352) = 1.01; p > .433). After the introduction of POS, in step two, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 6% F (10, 351) = 2.03; p < .030). The introduction of POS explained additional 3% variance in behavioural engagement, after controlling for the demographic variables (R^2 Change = .03; F (1, 352) = 10.94; p > .001). In the final model, one predictor variable was statistically significant, with POS recording a higher Beta value (β = .18, p < .001).

Table 5.7: Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression for Direct Effects (Level 1)

DVs	POS	Work-life Enrichment	Behavioural Engagement	POS	Behavioural Engagement	POS	Behavioural Engagement
Control Measures							
Age	.01(.05)	.06(.05)	.09(.08)	.07(.04)	.06(.09)	.10(.05)	.05(.09)
Gender	-.09(.06)	-.05(.06)	.02(.10)	-.08(.05)	.01(.11)	-.09(.06)	.03(.11)
No. of Children	.01(.04)	.00(.04)	.03(.07)	.01(.04)	-.01(.08)	-.00(.04)	-.01(.08)
Child Care	-.00(.02)	.01(.02)	.03(.03)	-.01(.02)	.02(.03)	.00(.02)	.03(.03)
Marital status	-.05(.05)	.01(.06)	.05(.09)	-.06(.05)	.04(.10)	-.05(.05)	.06(.10)
Position	-.07(.03)	-.02(.03)	.08(.06)	-.07(.03)	.09(.06)	-.08(.03)	.11(.06)
Highest Level of Qualification	.01(.02)	.02(.02)	-.02(.04)	.01(.02)	-.03(.04)	.01(.02)	-.03(.04)
Tenure	-.15(.04)	-.04(.04)	.03(.07)	-.14(.04)	.04(.07)	-.16(.04)	.08(.07)
Type of employment	.07(.03)	.01(.03)	.09(.05)	.07(.02)**	.09(.05)*	.08(.03)	.07(.05)
Individual-Level (IVs) Variables							
N = 362							
Job Resources	.15 (.05)**	.28(.05)***	.45(.08)***				
R^2 (R^2Change)	.03 (.10)	(.10).08	.03 (.08)				
Work-life Enrichment				.40(.04)***	.22(.08)*		
R^2 (R^2Change)				.10 (.17)	.02(.02)		
Cognitive Engagement							.06(.02)**
R^2 (R^2Change)							.08(.04)
POS							.30(.09)***
R^2 (R^2Change)							.03(.03)

Note. Values in parenthesis are standard errors; entries are unstandardized coefficients. *$p< .05$; **$p < .01$
***p<.001 (two-tailed tests).
R^2 Change is additional variance in DV as a result of control measures added in step two.
Source: Fieldwork, 2014
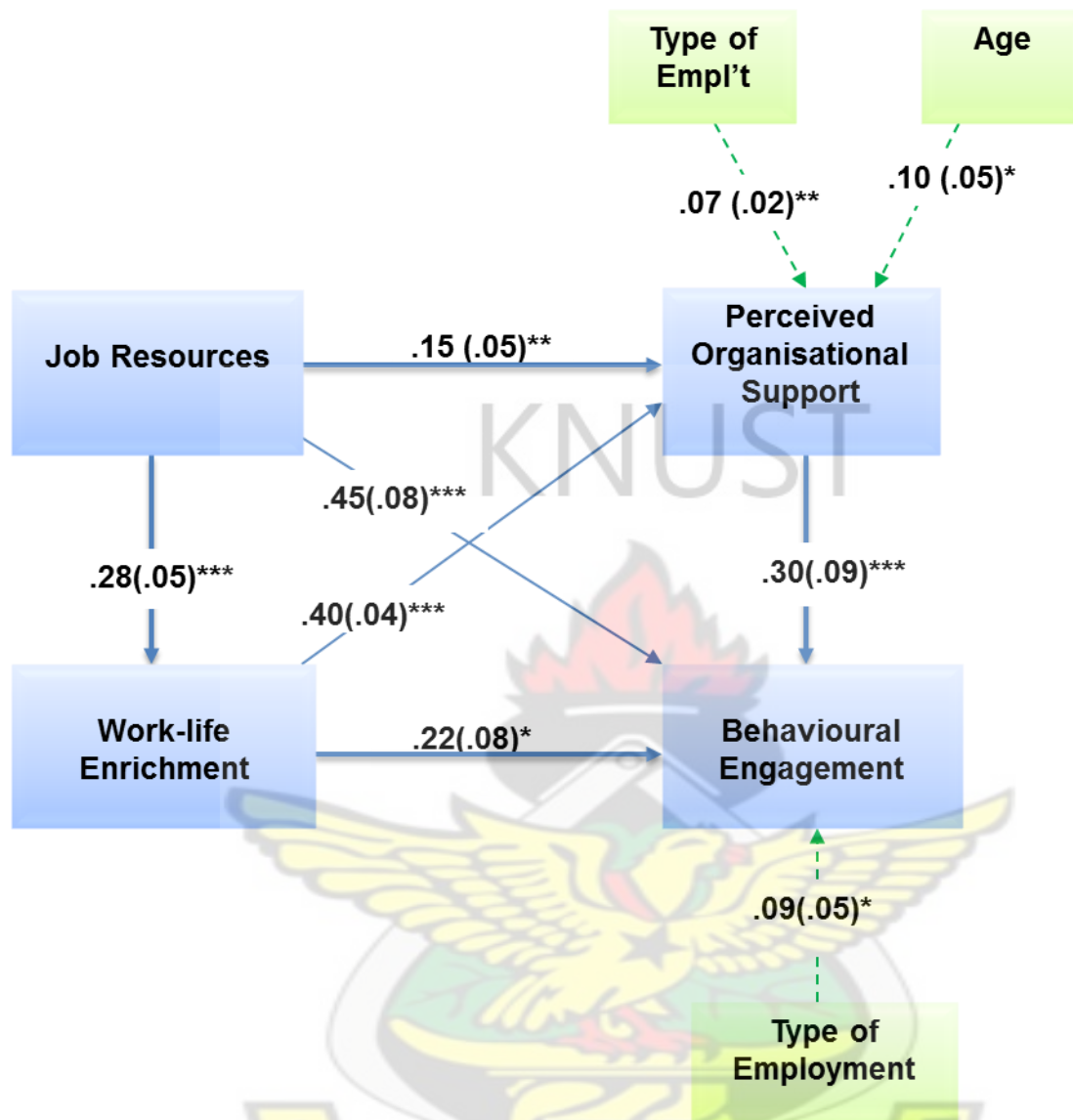
Figure 5.4: A diagram showing results for individual level predictions

Note. Values in parenthesis are standard errors; entries are unstandardized coefficients. *p< .05; **p < .01 ***p<.001 (two-tailed tests).

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

5.4.1   Mediation Analysis

Two hypothesised relationships in the conceptual framework (at level 1) were related to the role

of mediation in the relationship between two tested direct effects. The study hypothesised that:

H6c: WLB Satisfaction mediates the relationship between Job resources and employee engagement

H7c: Traditional Gender Role (TGR) mediates the relationship between WLE and POS

In the above hypotheses, both WLB satisfaction and TGR serve as mediators between an IV and a DV. A variable may be considered a mediator depending on the extent to which it carries the influence of a given independent variable (IV) to a given dependent variable (DV). Generally, mediation can occur when first, the IV significantly affects the mediator; second, the IV significantly affects the DV in the absence of the mediator; third, the mediator has a significant exclusive effect on the DV; and fourth, the effect of the IV on the DV shrinks when the mediator is added to the model. To establish that M (path c') completely mediates the X-Y (independent and depend) relationship, the effect of X on Y while controlling for M (path c') should be zero (Baron and Kenny, 1986).

To test for hypotheses 6c and 7c, the following conditions needed to be established:

1. The IV predicts the DV

2. The IV predicts the mediator

3. The mediator predicts the DV

4. The effect of the IV on the DV shrinks upon the addition of the mediator to the model

In order to test whether these three conditions are met, the correlation coefficients for these three relationships were obtained through a bivariate analysis.

Table 5.8A correlation table showing the relationships between the variables to be tested in H6c

Correlations			
	Job Resources	Behavioural Employee Engagement	WLB Satisfaction
Job Resources	1		
Behavioural Employee Engagement	$.281^{**}$	1	
WLB Satisfaction	$.364^{**}$	$.203^{**}$	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Table 5.9A correlation table showing the relationships between the variables to be tested in H7c

Correlations			
	Work-Life Enrichment	Perceived Org. Support	Traditional Gender Role
Work-life Enrichment	1		
Percieved Org. Support	$.429^{**}$	1	
Traditional Gender Role	$.201^{**}$	$.235^{**}$	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The correlation coefficients for each path, that is, the links between each of the variables, is statistically significant. These results indicate that, at the bivariate level, each of the conditions necessary to test for the possible role of a mediator has been met.

The next step was to compute the raw regression coefficient and the standard error for this regression coefficient for the association between the IV and the mediator, and the association between the mediator and the DV (adjusting for the IV).

Table 5.10 A complete results table for hypothesis 6c showing the four steps/conditions for determining mediation.

Step 1: The IV significantly affects the mediator

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.422	.243		5.848	.000
	JobResources_Variable	.500	.067	.364	7.413	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Satisfaction

Step 2: The IV significantly affects the DV

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.998	.333		6.008	.000
	JobResources_Variable	.428	.092	.247	4.645	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Beh_Eng

Step 3: The mediator has a significant effect on the DV

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.766	.225		12.279	.000
	Satisfaction_Variable	.236	.068	.185	3.459	.001

a. Dependent Variable: Beh_Eng

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Step 4: The effect of the IV on the DV shrinks upon the addition of the mediator to the model to indicate a partial mediation

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.804	.347		5.202	.000
	JobResources_Variable	.359	.099	.207	3.629	.000
	Satisfaction_Variable	.138	.073	.108	1.898	.050

a. Dependent Variable: Beh_Eng

Table 5.11 A complete results table for hypothesis 7c showing the four steps/conditions for determining mediation.

Step 1: The IV significantly affects the mediator

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.108	.219		9.630	.000
	WLE_Variable	.249	.064	.201	3.898	.000

a. Dependent Variable: GenderRole

Step 2: The IV significantly affects the DV

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.900	.152		12.538	.000
	WLE_Variable	.399	.044	.429	9.016	.000

a. Dependent Variable: POS

Step 3: The mediator has a significant effect on the DV

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.727	.117		23.377	.000
	GenderRole	.176	.038	.235	4.580	.000

a. Dependent Variable: POS

Step 4: The effect of the IV on the DV shrinks upon the addition of the mediator to the model to indicate a partial mediation.

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.276	.190		11.963	.000
	JobResources	.135	.045	.152	2.982	.003
	GenderRole	.167	.038	.222	4.363	.000

a. Dependent Variable: POS_Variable

To test whether a mediator carries the influence of an IV to a DV (as propounded by Sobel, 1982); a web tool page developed by Preacher and Leonardelli (2014) was used. Below are the results of the two tests of mediation.

Table 5.12 A table showing the results of the Sobel test for H6c

	Input		Test Statistics	Std. error	p-value
a	.50	Sobel test	2.21799034	0.0315601	0.02655549
b	.14	Aroian test	2.19860697	0.03183834	0.02790588
Sa	.07	Goodman test	2.23789558	0.03127939	0.02522787
Sb	.06				

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Table 5.13 A table showing the results of the Sobel test for H7c

	Input		Test Statistics	Std. error	p-value
a	.25	Sobel test	2.43460302	0.01232234	0.01490814
b	.12	Aroian test	2.3896987	0.01255388	0.0168622
Sa	.06	Goodman test	2.48213772	0.01208636	0.01305968
Sb	.04				

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The test statistic for the hypothesis 6c sobel test is 2.22, with an associated p-value of .02. The test statistic for hypothesis 7c sobel test is 2.43, with an associated p-value of.01. The fact that the observed p value of the two tests fall below the established alpha level of .05 indicates that the association between the IVs and the DVs is reduced significantly by the inclusion of the mediator in each model; in other words, there is evidence of mediation. Therefore it can be concluded that the data support the predictions that first, TGR partially mediates the relationship between JR and POS and second, WLB Satisfaction partially mediates the relationship between job resources and employee engagement.

5.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, I presented the CFA results derived from structural equation modelling for the group-level and individual level data, and reported the descriptive statistics, internal consistency reliabilities, and correlations among the study variables. In model one, organisational-and-cross level predictions of hypotheses 1-4 are discussed and hierarchical multiple regression and HLM results reported. The findings suggest that awareness and usage of EWLB policies or benefits influence experienced EWLB. Similarly, the influence of experienced EWLB on POS is

moderated by employee engagement. Furthermore, the HLM results for cross-level predictions of Hypotheses 1b, 2c and 3, and individual-level predictions of Hypotheses 5-7 are discussed. The findings suggest that awareness and usage of organisational WLB policies and EWLB at the organisational level, predict POS at the individual level. Also, the HMR results of the individual-level model are reported.

The findings suggest that job resources significantly influenced perceived organizational support, work-life enrichment and engagement. The study also found positive and significant relationships between work-life enrichment (as an independent variable) and perceived organizational support and engagement as dependent variables. Also, the study revealed that WLB satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between job resources and engagement while Traditional Gender Role partially mediated WLE and POS. Finally, perceived organizational support had a positive and significant relationship with engagement. Thus, all the 8 hypotheses were supported at the individual level.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

The present study addressed a theoretical overview of a nomological network of WLB. The first model of the study investigated generally the antecedent and consequence of organisational WLB initiatives. While the second model examined the covariates of WLB from a social support (enrichment) point of view. This approach was adopted in adherence to calls for more research in WLB that focused on the positive effect of work on the work-life interface rather than the continuous focus on the negative and harmful effects of engaging in multiple domains (Kelly et al., 2008; Major, Burke and Fiksenbaum, 2013, Wharton, 2012). This chapter first discusses findings from the study. Second, the contributions, implications and limitations of the study are discussed. Finally, conclusions are drawn and recommendations made for future research.

6.2   Discussion of findings

From the first model of the study, organizational-level findings are discussed followed by findings from the cross-level analysis. This is followed by findings from the second model of the study which focused on WLB interactions at the individual level of analysis. The findings of the study are juxtaposed with theory and existing empirical literature to examine the conceptual basis of the results. Figure 6.1 summarizes hypotheses that were tested and supported in the three ways – fully, partially, and null.
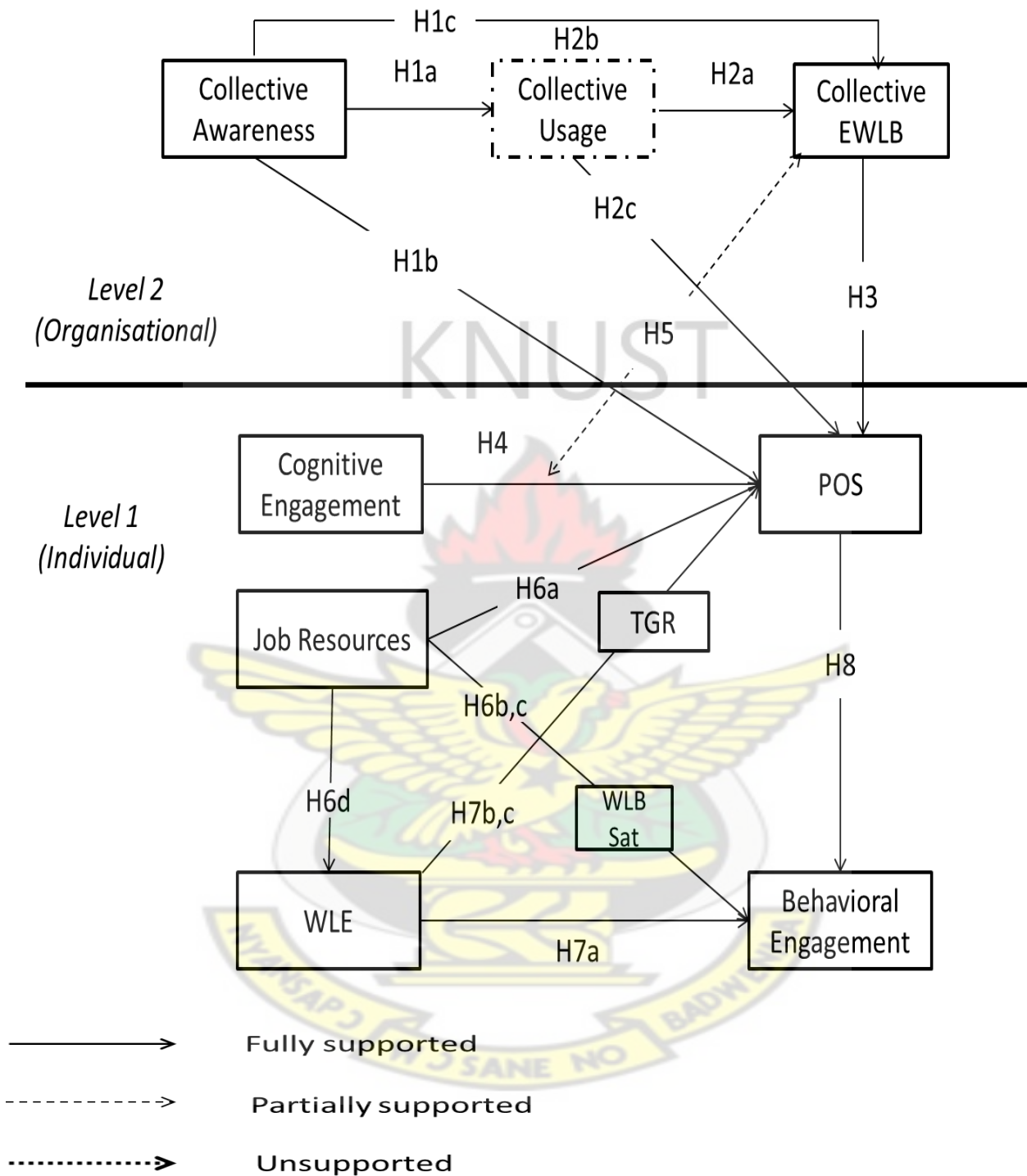
Figure 6.1 Summary of fully-, partially-, and not-supported Hypotheses

Source: Author's own construct, 2014.

6.3   Organisational Level Findings

First, employees' awareness of organisational WLB policies positively and significantly influenced usage of these policies. Though some studies have identified mismatch between the adoption, availability and actual utilization of such WLB policies (Judiesch and Lyness, 1999), this distinction has not been fully researched and understood (Hammer, Van Dyck and Ellis, 2013). Some studies have attributed the lack of usage to other factors such as poor work-life culture, 'ideal worker' culture and an unsupportive manager (Kelly et al., 2010; Tienari et al., 2002; Wharton, 2012; Lewis and Cooper, 2005; Ozbilgin et al., 2011; and Estes, 2003). Hence the study sought to bridge this gap in literature by introducing the concept of awareness as an antecedent to the actual usage of WLB policies adopted by organisations involved in the study. Hence, the mere adoption of WLB policies may not lead to utilization unless employees are made aware of its' availability. First, this study confirms findings from some studies in the United Kingdom which suggests that employees often remain unaware of their work-life benefits following the implementation of work-life balance practices in their organisation (Kodz, Harper, and Dench, 2002; Lewis, Kagan, and Heaton, 2000). Second, this study responds to the call for studies to delve deeper into reasons why WLB policies are sometimes not utilized by employees (Kelly et al. 2008; Lewis et al. 2007).

Second, the study found a positive and significant relationship between usage of WLB policies and experienced WLB among employees at the organisational level. Recent theory and empirical findings have suggested that HR practices such as WLB policies are not applied uniformly across different employee groups (Lepak et al., 2007; Wright and Boswell, 2002). There is also empirical evidence that managers and professional full-time workers are more likely to enjoy

WLB policies more than other employee cohorts (Glass and Estes 1997; Lambert 1999; Jacobs and Gerson 2004). By testing the effect of WLB policies on the collective experiences of employees, this study account for the effect of WL Policy Usage at the collective and organisational level. This finding is also in line with the core findings and foundation of WLB research (Wynne and Baltes, 2013). The basic concept of WLB is that when organisations facilitate the management of multiple boundaries (usually between work and family domains), they help employees participate effectively in these domains and this leads to satisfaction and a better quality of life.

Third, the study sought to test the usage as a mediating variable between awareness of WLB policies and EWLB. This mediation relationship was insignificant and the null hypothesis was rejected. At first it may seem ludicrous that mere awareness of the availability of WLB policies can lead to experienced WLB. However, there is evidence that the mere availability of WLB policies regardless of its usage can engender positive employee attitudes such as organisational commitment (Scandura and Lankau, 1997). Again, this can be explained based on norms of reciprocity, social support and social exchange theories. Employers commonly value employee dedication and loyalty. By contrast, employees are generally more concerned with the organization's commitment to them (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). The norm of reciprocity allows employees and employers to reconcile these distinctive orientations. Based on the social support and social exchange theories, when the organisation shows commitment to the employee by making available, WLB policies with the aim of helping employees balance the multiple domain roles, employees will reciprocate by showing more commitment to their organisation regardless of whether they use these policies or not.

6.4   Cross-level Results

First, the study revealed a positive and significant relationship between awareness, usage and EWLB at the organisational level and POS at the individual level. Extant research shows that corporate policies and benefits that support WLB may improve organisational outcomes such as employee commitment and POS (Kelly et al, 2008 and Kossek et al., 2006; Kossek et al., 2011).

The findings of the study suggest that influencing employees' perception of organisational support is dependent on the clarity or level of understanding that the employee has regarding the availability and utilization of WLB policies. Awareness and usage of WLB leads employees to experience feelings of self-determination, impact, competence, and meaning at work, resulting in POS (Aryee et al., 2013) that impact cognitive employee engagement behaviours. Similarly, experienced WLB helps employees form global perceptions of the extent to which they are valued and cared for by the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986) and reciprocate by engaging in actions favourable to the organization that go beyond assigned responsibilities (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). Thus, the findings revealed an organisational level mechanism through which organisational WLB policies exert its influence on individual level behavioural outcomes (POS and cognitive engagement), highlighting the appropriateness of the boundary management and role theories as theories underpinning this study. Furthermore, no known study in WLB has examined a more complete model of organisational WLB policies in terms of the mechanisms that leads to its usage and the subsequent collective experience of WLB using multiple cross-level analysis. Yet multiple level and cross level implications of the adoption and usage of WLB policies in organisations are clearly highlighted in WLB theorizations (Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007; Ashforth et al., 2000; and Clark, 2000). By empirically testing POS as an outcome of

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collective awareness and usage of WLB as well as EWLB, I provide a more complete test of theorizing in work-life studies that conceptualizes WLB as a multi-level phenomenon.

Second, I hypothesized that EWLB will moderate the relationship between cognitive engagement and POS such that the relationship is more positive when EWLB is high than when it is low. However, the study found a negative interaction effect of EWLB in the relationship between cognitive employee engagement and POS. In other words, EWLB negatively moderates the causal effect of cognitive engagement on POS. The result indicates that at low levels of cognitive engagement, high levels of ELWB influence POS more than low EWLB. This means that even at low levels of cognitive engagement, a high collective experience of WLB among employees leads to high perceptions of organisational support. Thus, the collective experience of WLB among employees can lead to high perceptions of organisational support even when employees are not cognitively engaged at work. Also, at low levels of cognitive engagement, a low collective experience of WLB among employees leads to low perceptions of organisational support. Furthermore, when employees experience high levels of cognitive engagement both those with low and high EWLB exhibit high perceptions of organisational support. This means that POS among highly engaged employees is high even in the absence of high levels of EWLB. This means that being cognitively engaged at work without experiencing WLB does not affect employees' perception of organisational support. This finding suggests that high levels of EWLB and cognitive engagement can be substituted for each other. However, together, they have a more positive impact on employees' perception of organisational support than when they are at low levels. This may be because both engagement and WLB are cognitive processes that take place at both individual and collective levels (Voydanoff, 2005; Hakanen, 2008).

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Though no previous studies were found relating specifically to this hypothesis, as it is a less researched area, it is reasonable to believe that there may be other intervening (un-tested) variables that may help better understand the moderating role of EWLB in the engagement-POS relationship (Robinson and Gifford, 2014).

First, Ghana is a collective society (Hofstede, 1980). Hence there is relatively higher level of social support from family and friends than what may be experienced in the western world. Hence more social support may be derived from outside of work than from work resulting in family-to-work enrichment or facilitation. Through the process of positive spillover, employees may be more focused and engaged at work because they do not have to think of the family demands while at work due to the social support they experience outside of work. Thus even in the absence of WLB policies at work highly engaged employees will still have positive perceptions of organisational support. Second, over 66% of respondents were males. The Ghanaian society largely sees men as bread winners and women as homemakers or caregivers. Thus, the support from their partners in taking care of the home helps them to experience role salience at work and makes them more engaged and happy at work and at home (Ashforth et al., 2000). Hence, men at the workplace may not experience WLB mainly as a result of the organizational WLB policies but as a result of low conflicting demands from family or non-work domain.

By examining the moderating influence of EWLB on the cognitive employee engagement–POS relationship, the study extends the limited research on the boundary conditions of WLB to the organisational level. Previous research examined the contextual boundary conditions of perceptions of control over boundary management style (Kossek et al., 2011). Understanding the boundary conditions of the WLB relationship should provide valuable knowledge for managers in enhancing the effectiveness of WLB policies and practices.

6.5   Individual level results

Job resources was found to be positively and significantly related to WLE. This finding confirms existing literature on positive spillover, expansionist, role accumulation and enrichment theories. Generally, these theories postulate that engagement in multiple domains predispose employees to multiple sources of resources which the employee garner to improve effectiveness and satisfaction in both domains (Polemans et al., 2003; Kinnunen et al., 2006; Ilies et al., 2009). This is consistent with the work to family enrichment literature (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006).

Again, job resources was found to be positively and significantly related to POS. This finding is in line with social support theory which posits that as a form of organisational support that helps individuals accomplish their work (Matthews, Bulger and Barnes-Farrell, 2010). This in-turn creates perceptions of organisational support with its attendant positive consequences.

The result of the study showed a positive and significant relationship between job resources and engagement. In 2008, Hakanen, Schaufeli and Ahola (2008) found similar results in their 3-year

longitudinal study. This result also gives credence to the social support and social exchange theories (Hakanen, Schaufeli and Ahola, 2008; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005; Sui et al., 2010).

The results of the study also confirmed the partial mediating role of WLB satisfaction in the relationship between job resources and behavioural employee engagement. This finding is supported by the boundary management theories (Clark, 2000 and Ashforth et al., 2000). The inter-role conflict likely to be experienced by employees due to conflicting demands from different domains of life can be reduced or managed by the WLB initiatives provided by organisations. Ashforth et al., (2000) in listing the advantages of boundary management posits that by circumscribing domains, boundaries enable one to have the 'peace of mind' to concentrate more on whatever domain is currently salient and less on other domains. By organisations helping employees integrate or segment to an acceptable degree, their work and non-work domains, employees can have more satisfying and effective experiences both at home and at work (Clark, 2000; Greenhaus and Allen, 2006; Voydanoff, 2005; Greenhaus, Collins, and Shaw, 2003; Marks and MacDermid 1996). Hence they are able to focus on the job and experience work engagement.

The results of the study also indicate a positive and significant relationship between WLE and POS. This finding supplements the main and mediating effects found in related studies (Casper and Harris, 2008; Ng et al., 2007, Allen, 2001).

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) defined WLE as the 'extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role' (pg. 73). According to the boundary management

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theories, by the organisation creating conditions that help the employee to accomplish role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between the employee and his or her role-related partners (Grzywacz and Carlson, 2007), the employee tends to reciprocate with positive affective states which is carried over and influences perceptions in other (family) domain. This is in line with organizational support theory which posits that to determine the organization's readiness to meet socio-emotional needs, employees develop global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization cares about their well-being. Perceived organizational support (POS) is also valued as assurance that aid will be available from the organization when it is needed to carry out one's job effectively and to deal with stressful situations. Perceived organizational support can also be used as an indicator of favourable treatment, prompting reciprocal positive actions from employees.

Again WLE was found to be positively and significantly related to behavioural employee engagement. This is consistent with findings from previous literature (see Greenhaus and Powell, 2006; Siu et al., 2010). This can be explained using the social exchange theory and boundary management theory. Social exchange theory asserts that employees would repay their employer with increased organizational outcomes (Blair-loy and Wharton, 2004) if they perceive themselves as having access and the opportunity to utilize these WLB policies which improves their quality of life across domains. As a social and psychological resource, WLB should enable employees to function effectively in the context of work by enhancing their ability to focus attention on their work roles or demonstrate a high degree of work engagement (Ashforth et al., 2000; Clark, 2000). WLE enables employees to emotionally, cognitively and physically invest themselves in the performance of their work. This level of commitment and loyalty can be

explained as a form of reciprocation for the initial commitment of the organisation and its agents (border keepers and domain members) to the border-crosser (employee).

Traditional gender role was found to partially mediate the relationship between WLE and POS. A similar finding was reported by Aryee et al., (2005), Kossek and Ozeki (1998) and Amstad et al. (2011). This finding also supports role theory (Kahn et al., 1964). This theory postulates that potential stressors arise as incompatible role demands conflict with one another due to a lack of congruence between them (Kahn, et al., 1964). However, other theories including the role accumulation theory and work-family enrichment theory propose that holding multiple roles can have beneficial outcomes for employees in certain situations due to the increased number of resources, prestige, power and emotional gratification that one gains in each role (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006 and Sieber, 1974).

The study found a positive and significant relationship between POS and engagement. This finding is consistent with Mathumbu and Dodd, (2013); Gokul et al., (2012); Rhoades et al., (2001), who proposed that there is a relationship between perceived organisational support and work engagement. This is supported by the organizational support theory, social support resource theory and social exchange theories (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Hobfoll et al., 2003; Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). This is because perceptions of organizational support serve as a psychological resource which generates a sense of obligation or a norm of reciprocity on the part of the employee such that the employee will reciprocate the perceived support with positive organizational behaviours such as engagement.

6.6 Study contributions

This study investigated the antecedents and consequences of WLB policies using a multi-level model. Not only did the study reveal a positive relationship between EWLB and POS but that behavioural employee engagement moderated this relationship such that it reversed the positive relationship between EWLB and POS. In other words the more employees experienced WLB, the less engaged they are likely to become and vice versa. Hypotheses testing the relationships between variables in the single-level model revealed positive and significant relationships between job resources, WLE, POS and behavioural employee engagement. The study makes significant theoretical and practical contributions to the literature on WLB.

The findings of the study have not only revealed the generality of the positive implications of WLB policies to the sub-Saharan Africa context but also showed this relationship to be indirect through cross-level (Awareness, Usage) and individual-level (POS, Engagement) influences on individual WLE that emerge at the organisational level as aggregated EWLB. The study therefore adds to WLB research by adopting a cross-level perspective in examining the role of WLB policies in accounting for the positive effects of organisational-level WLB policies.

First, by examining traditional gender roles as mechanisms that underpin the influence of WLE on its documented outcomes such as POS, the study provides a more complete test of role theory by exploring the less researched effect of traditional gender roles on employees' POS (Blanch and Aluja, 2012; Perrone, Wright and Jackson, 2009). Furthermore, the study extends previous research by proposing the demonstrated influence of job resources on employee work outcomes (Voydanoff, 2005) such as employee cognitive engagement. Also, by testing the effect of usage of WLB policies on EWLB, the study bridges a gap in literature by providing an often missing

link between availability of WLB policies and its outcomes (Hammer et al., 2013). More generally, the study extends understanding of the effects of WLB by using EWLB as a boundary condition or a moderator to test the relationship between employee cognitive engagement and POS (Bakker and Schaufeli, 2008; Culbertson, Mills and Fullagar, 2012). Finally, the study of the aforementioned mediating and moderating variables (which have not featured much in WLB studies) at multiple levels in the African context will help push the frontiers of WLB theory and practice by developing a fuller understanding of WLB (Acquaah, 2013, Mordi, Mmieh and Ojo, 2013, Mokomane, 2013) .

6.7 Theoretical Implications

Theoretically, the study adds to previous findings about WLB and how it contributes to work-related outcomes such as POS and cognitive and behavioural engagement. Work-related outcomes such as POS and engagement are a function of cognitive and behavioural processes in organizations, groups, and individuals (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002 and Hakanen, Schaufeli and Ahola, 2008; Aryee et al., 2013). In addition, extant theoretical research suggests that studies into the psychological processes of WLB and its' outcomes is important (Kelly et al., 2008, Beauregard and Henry, 2009; Casper, Hauw and Wayne, 2013). By examining psychological factors (behaviours and cognition) that influence WLB, this study extends the nomological network of WLB policy effectiveness. This study provides evidence of the effectiveness of WLB-related organizational social support on important outcomes such as POS and engagement.

Consistent with the call for a multilevel approach to WLB research (Major, Burke and Fiksenbaum, 2013), the findings of the study revealed a cross-level and an individual-level

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mechanism through which organizational-level WLB policies exert their motivational influence. As a structural source of WLB, the findings of the study revealed that, organisation-level WLB policy drives perceived organizational support (POS). The influence of organisational-level WLB policies, its' awareness and usage on POS uncovered adds to the sparse literature on the antecedents of WLB. Consistent with its strategic orientation, the positive work-related behaviour implications of the use of WLB policies have been examined primarily at the organizational level. Recognition that organizations do not perform but rather that the performance of individual employee enables organizations to achieve their goals (Kozlowski and Klein, 2000) has led to a focus on the individual-level implications of WLB (Peeters et al., 2005; Hakanen and Schaufeli, 2012). The findings of the study that organisational-level WLB policies drive individual work-related outcomes through micro and macro processes that enhance psychological and social support leading to POS and both cognitive and behavioural engagement adds to this stream of research.

However, findings at the cross-level analysis revealed the employee cognitive engagement–POS relationship to be moderated by EWLB. The uncovering of a moderating role for EWLB in the employee cognitive engagement–POS relationship is particularly interesting because though the hypothesis predicted a positive moderating effect, EWLB turned out to have an inverse influence on the employee cognitive engagement –POS relationship. As an individual difference variable, cognitive engagement suggests a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by absorption (Bakker et al., 2008). Thus, although employee cognitive engagement provides a motivational underpinning for POS, this is only possible for individuals who exhibit low levels of EWLB rather than high levels of EWLB. The plausible reasons for this

have been explicated in the discussion section of this chapter. My finding of a negative

moderating influence of EWLB (together with Timms et al.'s, 2014 result of a negative relation

between flexible working arrangement and engagement), therefore opens a new dimension of

cultural and theoretical dynamics that extends previous research.

6.8 Practical Implications

Practically, this study contributes to the management issues related to effectiveness of WLB

policies in organisations. From the resource-based view, engagement can be a source of

sustainable competitive advantage (Boxall, 2003). The adoption and implementation of WLB

policies may lead to WLE. WLE may consequently lead to POS and Engagement. However, it is

important to note that the model upon which these findings are based on, derive their theoretical

roots from the organisational support and spillover theories (Greenhaus and Powell, 2006). The

organisational support theory is premised on the fact that the organisation's ability to provide

physical, psychological and socio-emotional resources to the employee ensures that work is

carried out effectively, leading to feelings of accomplishment and positive affect which can

spillover into other domains of life as resources to help accomplish the tasks and demands of the

other or non-work domain (Wynne, Boris and Baltes, 2013; Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1999)

leading to WLB. Apart from the positive spillover effect of WLB policies, there is also the

perception of organisational support which creates a sense of obligation and reciprocation

leading to positive affective behaviours such as employee engagement. Hence this study makes a

strong empirical case for the benefits of WLB policies to organisational effectiveness. This

underscores the importance of repeated calls in the literature for organisations (and the

generalizability of these calls to non-Western contexts) to adopt and implement suitable WLB policies and practices.

Second, the study throws an important caution to organisations in the adoption and implementation of WLB policies and practices. Based on the negative influence of EWLB as a moderator to the employee cognitive engagement-POS relationship, and also previous mixed findings in existing literature on the effect of WLB policies on employee and organisational performance (Beauregard and Henry, 2009; Kelly et al., 2008), the study sheds more light on the importance of adopting WLB not as an isolated policy, but in conjunction with other HR practices such as performance management systems to create a suitable work culture that ensures the positive effects of WLB are realised.

6.9   Limitations of the study

As with any research, this study has a number of limitations, and by discussing them, some directions for future research are simultaneously highlighted. First, the cross-sectional design of the study precludes any inference of causality. Although the study is grounded in the boundary management and other related theories, and most of the relationships reported are consistent with predictions and theory, future research with a longitudinal design will be better suited to addressing the directionality of the relationships examined in the study. In this respect, future research should control for prior work-related attitudes and other antecedents of work attitudes such as personality among employees and leadership styles among managers (Devadoss and Minnie, 2013; Liao and Chuang, 2004) in order to more rigorously test the findings reported in this study. Notwithstanding, the existing and tested theories guided the assumptions about the

causal order and several longitudinal and/or experimental studies provide some evidence for the postulated causal relationships (e.g., Culbertson, Mills and Fullagar, 2012; Hakanen, Schaufeli and Ahola, 2008; Perrone et al., 2009; Aryee et al., 2013).

Second, the organisational-level WLB policies were obtained from few managers of each organisation, undermining the reliability of this data (Major, Burke and Fiksenbaum, 2013). I readily acknowledge the importance of using multiple raters and establishing inter-rater reliability of their ratings as a way of enhancing confidence in WLB data. However, the crux of the argument about the number of raters is the extent to which raters are knowledgeable about HR practices (Gerhart, Wright, and McMahan, 2000) such as WLB policies. Given the size of the organisations that participated in the study and the extent of operational autonomy they enjoy, the managers should be knowledgeable about the WLB practices used in helping managing employees manage their work and life roles (Ashforth et al., 2000).

Third, although I proposed and examined hypotheses drawn from a context-free model, the cultural context of the study may have influenced the findings reported and therefore constrained their generality to other cultural contexts as well as economic sectors. However, this limitation is mitigated by the fact that the research was grounded in boundary management and role theories which has been conducted in developing countries (Mathumbu and Dodd 2013; Gokul et al., 2012; Devadoss and Minnie, 2013) that share relevant cultural values (e.g., high power distance and relationship orientation) with countries in the sub-Saharan African region. Future research should replicate and extend the findings of this study with data obtained from multiple cultural contexts (Masuda, 2013).

Fourth, although the work was grounded in relevant theories like boundary theory, role theory and organisational support theory, it is recognized that there are a number of pathways through which WLB has been theorized to influence its demonstrated work-related outcomes (Voydanoff, 2002; Ten Brummelhuis and Bakker, 2012). Future researchers are urged to simultaneously examine relevant, theoretically informed mechanisms of the WLB–work outcome relationship. Also, to make an even stronger business case for the adoption and implementation of WLB in organisations, future research could extend literature further by focusing on the direct and indirect effect of WLB on organizational performance (Kelly et al., 2008; Beauregard and Henry, 2009).

Last, support for the partially mediated relationships predicted in the study underscores the complexity of the pathways through which organizational-level or the use of WLB influences attitudinal and behavioural outcomes. Major et al. (2013), observed a possibility of multiple mediators and more intricate processes and interrelationships through which WLB influences outcomes that span multiple levels. Consequently, future research should examine multiple attitudinal and behavioural outcomes and test competing explanations of these pathways. These limitations are counterbalanced by a number of conceptual and methodological strengths of this study. First, I proposed and tested hypotheses drawn from a multilevel model of intermediate linkages in the attitudinal and behavioural implications of the awareness, usage as well as EWLB. Second, unlike previous research, I simultaneously examined work engagement at both the cross-level and individual level as a mechanism through which WLB influences POS. Last, I obtained data from multiple sources including managers, senior staff and junior staff

(respondents) from different sectors of the economy, suggesting that the findings of this study are substantive and not methodological artefacts.

6.10   Conclusion

Although research interest in why and how WLB is related to work-related outcomes continues to accumulate (Avgar et al., 2011; Major, Burke, Fiksenbaum, 2013), our understanding of the mechanisms through which WLB influences work-related outcomes is still unclear. The motivation for this study was to examine the intermediate linkages (mechanisms) through which WLB influence work-related outcomes.

While WLB researchers agree that employee experiences of WLB practices are important in understanding the WLB-work related outcomes relationship, not much research has considered employee perceptions of WLB and its effect on work-related outcomes such as engagement (Robinson and Gifford, 2014).

Secondly, there are calls to use a multi-level approach to simultaneously examine the impact of WLB on work-related outcomes and the processes that underlie this relationship at both the individual and organizational levels of analysis (Wharton, 2012; Kelly et al., 2008).

Thirdly, despite the critical role of traditional gender role in theorizations of the WLB and work-related outcome relationship (Khan, 1990; Ahmad, King and Anderson, 2013), most WLB research has neglected to model the influence of traditional gender role in the intermediate

linkages between the positive experiences of WLB and work-related outcomes (Ling and Powell, 2001).

To address these research needs, I first developed and tested a multilevel model grounded in the boundary management, role and spillover theories, with data obtained from different categories of employees drawn from 30 organisations in the two most populated and commercial regions in Ghana. My findings suggest that collective awareness and usage of WLB policies act as an important link in the relationship between WLB policies and outcomes such as POS and employee engagement, and that in testing the WLB and work outcomes relationship at the organizational and cross level, the focus should particularly be on awareness and usage of these policies and how these policies fit into the needs of the organisation in gaining competitive advantage and the needs of employees in successfully managing competing work and family demands/roles.

Second, the study's findings that collective awareness and usage of organisation-level WLB policies related to EWLB at the organizational level and POS at the individual level in the cross-level analysis reinforces the importance of moving beyond managerial claims of their organizations use of WLB policies to an examination of employees' collective experience of WLB as a source of motivational implications of these practices.

Third, the findings demonstrate that WLB satisfaction and traditional gender roles partially mediate first, the influence of job resources on behavioural employee engagement and second, the influence of work-life enrichment on POS respectively. Furthermore, the availability of job

resources had a positive and significant relationship on employees' perception of organizational support, work-life enrichment and engagement. The study also provides empirical evidence of effect work-life enrichment on behavioural employee engagement.

In conclusion, this study contributes to the current understanding of the link between WLB policies and practices and outcomes such as POS and employee engagement at multiple levels of the organisation. It highlights the critical role of traditional gender roles and employee satisfaction with WLB policies as important links in the relationship between WLB policies and work attitudes and outcomes and therefore provides a more complete test of WLB. Furthermore, the findings of the study suggests a cross-level influence of WLB on individual level motivational mechanisms (POS) through which the use of WLB exerts its influence on individual-level behavioural outcomes. This highlights the need to include employee perspective in any WLB intervention strategy, as a way of enhancing individual motivation to perform, in ways that allow the organization to achieve desirable organizational and individual outcomes.

6.11 Recommendations

In light of the findings of the study, the following recommendations are offered to organisations who strive to help their employees manage the boundaries between work and non-work domains with the hope of enhancing their work-life balance and consequently engender commitment, engagement and performance.

6.11.1 Adaption of work-life balance policies in line with socio-cultural characteristics of the Ghanaian society.

The descriptive statistics (refer to appendix 2) of the study shows that though employees' awareness of work-life balance policies was low (mean = 1.9), usage of the policies and EWLB were relatively high at 2.5 and 2.7 respectively. Based on the data, it is reasonable to conclude that employees' experience of work-life balance may be due to social support from both the work and non-work domains. First, informal arrangements with supervisors and co-workers may be helping them to deal with demands from both work and non-work domains which in turn may be contributing to their EWLB even at the organisational level. This is consistent with several studies (Aryee et al., 2013; Beauregard and Henry, 2009; Clark, 2000; Kossek et al., 2011), who suggested that supervisor support plays a critical role in implementing WLB policies. This is supported by the data collected on POS which shows supervisor support recording the highest mean (3.55) and accessibility to organisationally sanctioned WLB policies recording the lowest mean of 2.99.Second, social (family) support in the form of support from family and friends in the African society is well documented (Mokomane, 2013, Oheneba-Sakyi and Takyi, 2001). In African societies like Ghana, "it takes a whole village to raise a child" hence working women are more likely to receive or have easier access to childcare support than their counterparts in western and developed countries. Therefore, providing childcare support might not necessarily elicit the documented motivational process in employees. Also, it is plausible that employees' experience of WLB may be as a result of family/ non-work social support rather than organisational support.

Though WLB is a western concept, it is recommended that WLB policies should be adapted to suit the socio-cultural context of Ghana in order to yield the well documented benefits associated with the use of WLB policies (Wynne and Baltes, 2013).

6.11.2 *Inclusion of employees in the design and implementation of WLB policies*

It is also recommended that the process of adaptation, design and implementation should involve employee representatives. This will ensure that the preferences of employees regarding WLB policies are incorporated into the design of those policies in line with what the work environment can and will allow. Such a person-environment fit approach will ensure congruence between employees' segmentation or integration preferences and the nature of the work environment. This is because as employee preferences match employer availability of WLB policies, less work-life conflict occurs (Chen et al., 2009, Rothbard et al., 2005).

6.11.3 *Accurate signalling for the awareness and usage of WLB to employees*

Aside the low level of awareness of WLB policies recorded among employees in the study, it also revealed a two-way cross-level interaction such that EWLB negatively moderated POS and cognitive engagement. Hence, at high levels of EWLB, cognitive engagement is low and vice versa. Combining these two findings, it is plausible to attribute this to poor communication on the part of the organisation. Organisational initiatives like WLB policies are implemented to facilitate the management of the work-life interface with the aim of eliciting positive organisational behaviours such as POS and engagement. Once the real reasons for providing WLB policies are not appropriately communicated to employees, it may lead to information asymmetry. According to Stiglitz (2002), information asymmetries occur when "different people

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know different things." In order to give the right signal about the reasons for the availability and usage of WLB policies, it is recommended that management repetitively signal the same message in order to reduce information asymmetry. According to signalling theory, signalling repetitively can increase the effectiveness of the signalling process, especially if one uses different signals to communicate the same message (Connelly et al., 2011). Hence organisations can use brochures, workshops and seminars to keep employees informed about WLB policies.

Additionally, though some organisations encourage their employees to access flexible work arrangements. Yet, when employees do access these policies, they are perceived and labelled as less committed and this sometimes affects their chances of being promoted. Such conflicting signals can confuse employees, making communication about WLB policies less effective (Connelly et al., 2011). Also, employees are likely to apply weights to the signals they receive in accordance with preconceived notions about the importance or cognitively distort signals so that their meanings diverge from the original intent of the signaller (Ehrhart and Zieger, 2005). Also, an important aspect of signalling has to do with the receivers' interpretation, which is defined as the process of translating signals into perceived meaning (Connelly et al., 2011). This may also help explain why employees' experience of EWLB leads to low engagement at work. This is because they may be interpreting the availability and usage of WLB policies as a way to get out of work and spend more time in non-work activities without necessarily feeling the obligation to put in the extra effort or be cognitively engaged to the organisation. However, signal consistency which is defined as the agreement between multiple signals from one source, can help mitigate this problem. This means management can send several or multiple signals or information to employees about WLB policies without distorting the employees' perception and/or

interpretation of the signal. It is thus, recommended that management endeavour to send accurate signals about WLB policies to employees at all times while being conscious of when and how the message is sent, received and interpreted by employees. This will help not only in the successful implementation of WLB policies, but also engender positive perception of organisational support among employees with its attendant benefits.

6.11.4 *Inclusion of supervisors in the design and implementation of WLB policies*

There is growing literature that confirms the critical role played by supervisors in the implementation of WLB policies (Beauregard and Henry, 2009). Extant empirical research has shown that the implementation of WLB policies such as flexitime and reduced hours worked depends to a large extent on the supervisor discretion. This is because supervisors determine employee workload and therefore play a critical role in employees' experience of WLB. The level of supervisor decretion in implementing WLB policies makes them a critical source of social support at the workplace as they decide how much latitude they would give an employee over when they work (time flexibility), how many hours they work, and where they work (location flexibility). For example, a manager refusing to allow an employee's to leave work early to send a sick child to the hospital will minimize the employees' perceptions of organizational support. Alternatively, granting such requests will increase perceptions of organizational support. There is research evidence suggesting that a supervisor who is supportive of family-related issues positively relates to employees' experienced WLB (Aryee et al., 2013; Thomas and Ganster, 1995).

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In line with the critical role played by supervisors in the implementation of WLB policies, it is recommended that supervisors are involved in the design and implementation of such policies. This will help supervisors to better appreciate the importance of such policies on employees' wellbeing as well as its positive effects on organisational outcomes. It will also engender buy-in and commitment from the supervisors in the implantation of such policies.

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APPENDIX A: **WORK-LIFE BALANCE SURVEY**

The purpose of this research is to investigate into the work-life balance policies and practices in your organization and their effect on employee and organisational performance in Ghana. As an employee of your organisation, you qualify to participate in this study. Please be assured that this study is strictly for pedagogical or academic purposes and any information you provide will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Thank you for your cooperation.

In this study the terms:

- 'Work–life balance' is used to encompass the manner in which employees balance responsibilities and commitments to paid work and non-work/family activities.

- 'Life', 'social life', 'family' and 'non-work' have the same meaning and they are used interchangeably.

- 'Initiatives', 'practices', 'policies' and 'activities' have the same meaning and they are used interchangeably.
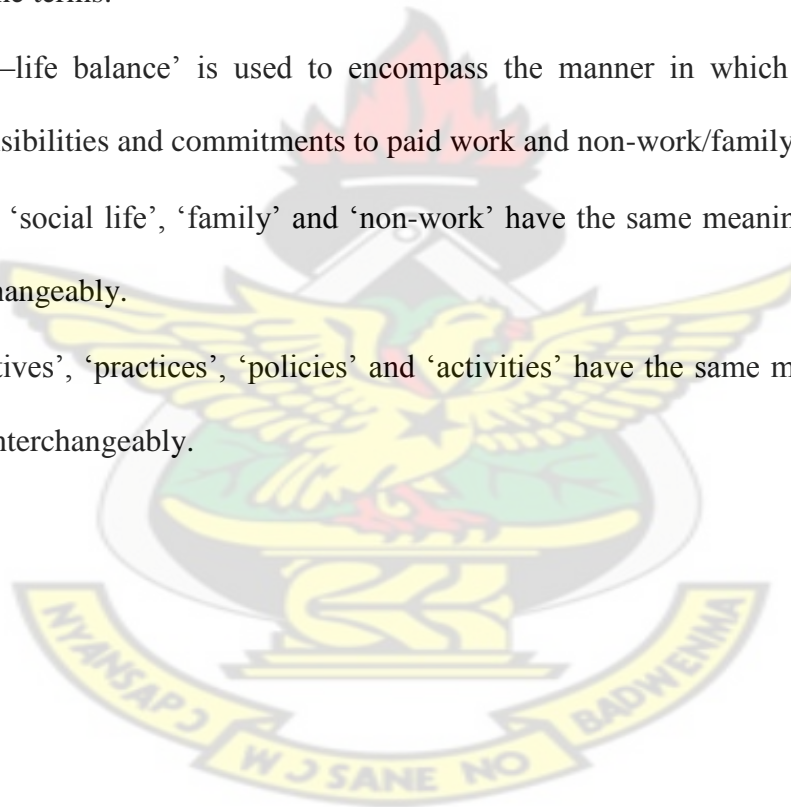
SECTIONA–WORK-LIFE BALANCE PRACTICESANDTHEIRUSAGE

For each item below, please indicate your usage of that practice. Please **tick (✓)** as appropriate.	How often do you use this policy personally?				
Scale Items	**Very Often**	**Often Sometimes**	**Rarely**		**Never**
	5	4	3	2	1
Part Time(e.g. allows employees to work part-time if a family situation changes					
Job Sharing (two or more people share one full-time job)					
Flexi-time(a system permitting flexibility of working hours at the beginning or end of the day, provided an agreed period of each day					
Compressed working hours (full-time work completed in fewer than five days a					
Working reduced hours					
Teams making their own decisions about rotations					
Working from Home (employees working off-site, possibly linked by computer, who work a full or part-time schedule)					
Study Leave					
Parental leave (Care for sick child or dependent)					
Career breaks					
Casual leave					
Compassionate and/or Bereavement leave					
On-site child care support or bringing children to work in emergencies(e.g. provision of a safe location where staff can carry out their regular work duties while caring for dependents until other					
Employer **assistance with childcare** (e.g. employers paying for or reserving places in					
Counselling services for employees (the organisation pays for counselling services for					
Relocation or placement assistance(where an employee has to move for work purposes (e.g. transfer),the organisation helps the whole family adapt to the new environment)					

SECTIONB–AWARENESSOF WLB POLICIESANDPRACTICES

Please read each question and tick a number, either **1**(**Don't Know**), **2**(**No**) or **3**(**Yes**). Please **tick (✓)** as appropriate.	Yes 3	No 2	Don'tKnow 1
Does your organisation have written copies of work-life balance policies?			
Have you seen or been given a copy of this organisation's work-life balance policies?			
Is it easy to understand when and how these work-life balance policies can be used by employees?			

Section C: Perceived Organisational Support for WLB Practices

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Neutral 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5

(Please **tick (✓)** as appropriate.)	1	2	3	4	5
It is acceptable in my organization to make informal arrangements with my supervisor and co-workers to enable me attend to urgent non-work issues.					
The work-life balance policies and practices offered by my organization are easily accessible to me.					
My organisation is committed to helping its' employees balance their work and family/non-work life					
I can approach my manager to talk openly about flexible working arrangements					
Non-use of WLB initiatives can positively affect my promotion/career progression					
My manager encourages me to use the WLB initiatives available					
I feel confident using the WLB initiatives					
Using WLB initiatives can adversely affect my career progression					
Using WLB initiatives can be interpreted as lack of commitment to the organisation					
In my organisation, it is believed that an ideal worker(or a hard working employee) always puts the organisation first ahead of family/non-work demands					
In my organisation, it is believed that an ideal worker or committed employee must come to work earlier and leave later than his/her colleagues					
I feel supported by my supervisor at work					
My supervisor understands my family situation					
My supervisor encourages me to have a good balance between work and life/family/non-work activities					
My organisation encourages employees to have life outside work					

Section D: Enrichment

How do you feel about the following statements?

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

(Please **tick** (✓) as appropriate.)	1	2	3	4	5
Family issues are treated with sensitivity and care by my supervisor					
My co-workers cover for me when I have to attend to family/non-work activities					
My family members show a great deal of understanding for my worries about combining work and family/non-work activities					
My family members take care of family/non-work demands and responsibilities for me when I have a lot to do at work					
Someone in my family helps me out by running errands when necessary					
When I am frustrated at work someone in my family tries to understand					
Support from family and friends help me to handle demands from my employer to work overtime					

Section E: Satisfaction with Organisational WLB Policies

How do you feel about the following statements?

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

(Please **tick** (✓) as appropriate.)	1	2	3	4	5
I am satisfied with the flexibility of my work schedule					
I am satisfied with the levels of work stress					
I am satisfied with time left for family/non-work roles					

Section F: Effects of WLB Practices on Experienced WLB

How true are the following statements?

Very true	**Somewhat true**	**Not very true**	**Not at all true**
1	2	3	4

(Please **tick** (✓) as appropriate.)	1	2	3	4
I have the time to reach my personal and career goals satisfactorily.				
Personal issues do not hinder my ability to perform effectively at work.				
I feel fulfilled in all aspects of my life.				
The work-life balance practices in my organization are adequate in helping me meet my family/non-work responsibilities.				
I am well able to meet family and work demands.				

Section G: Traditional Gender Role

How do you feel about the following statements?

Strongly disagree	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly agree**
1	2	3	4	5

(Please **tick** (✓) as appropriate.)	1	2	3	4	5
It is usually better for everyone involved if the man is the achiever outside the home and the woman takes care of the home and family					
Most women are just not interested in having big and important jobs					
Most women are happiest when they are making a home and caring for children					
It is more important for a wife to help her husband than to have a career herself					
Women can handle job pressures as well as men can					
Men should be given first chance at most jobs because they have the primary responsibility for providing for a family					
A working mother can establish just as warm and secure a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work.					

Section H: Employee Engagement

The following 9 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, tick the "0" (zero) in the space after the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you felt it by ticking the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

Never	Almost Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
0	1	2	3	4	5	6

(Please **tick** (✓) as appropriate.)	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
At my work, I feel bursting with energy							
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous							
I am enthusiastic about my job							
My job inspires me							
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work							
I feel happy when I am working intensely							
I am proud of the work that I do							
I am immersed in my job							
I get carried away when I am working							

Section I: Job Resources
To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

(Please **tick** (✓) as appropriate)	1	2	3	4	5
I get my job done on time					
I have the knowledge, skills and abilities to get my job done properly					
I have flexibility in the execution of my job					
I have autonomy and control over the execution of my job					
I have the opportunity of learning new things through my work					
I get help and support from my colleagues					
My colleagues are often willing to listen to my work-related problems					

SECTION J: Demographics

In this section, I request demographic information about you. This information is solely for statistical control purposes. I have to control for differences in employee characteristics and organisations. I should there appreciate your candid response to the questions below.

1   Age Range: 20-29 □   30-39 □   40-49 □   50-60 □   60 and above□

2   Gender: Male □   Female□

3   Number of children: _____

4   Who takes care of the children while you are at work?

Spouse□   Relative□   Friend□   House help□ Day Care Centre Attendant □ N/A □

5   Marital Status: Single □   Married□   Divorced □Widowed □

6   Position in organization: Operative/Non Manager□ Supervisor □Manager □ Executive□

7   Highest Level of Qualification _____

8   Name of Organisation_____

9   Years spent in current organisation_____

10 Type of employment: Full time□   Part time□ Temporary□ Casual □ Contract □

11 Work Schedule: I work _____ days a week.

12 You normally report to work at: _____am.

13 You normally close from work at: _____pm.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR RESPONSES

APPENDIX B **DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS**

Level 2: Organisational Level

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Usage_Variable	304	1.00	5.13	2.5491	.74973
Awareness_Variable	354	1.00	3.00	1.9896	.64230
EWLB_NMD	362	1.00	4.00	2.7264	.69648
Valid N (listwise)	301				

Level 1: Individual Level

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
JobResources_Variable_NoMissingData	362	1.33	5.00	3.5526	.59893
WLE_Variable_NoMissingData	362	1.50	4.83	3.3723	.57255
POS_Variable_nomissingdata	362	1.25	4.69	3.2463	.53274
Engagement_Variable_NoMissingData	362	.00	8.44	3.6896	.96579
Satisfaction_Variable_NoMissingData	362	1.00	5.00	3.1987	.82326
GenderRole_NMD	362	1.00	5.00	2.9496	.70981
Valid N (listwise)	362				