The Relationship between Organisational Context and Work-Life Balance of Employees

in New Zealand: A Quantitative Study using Social Exchange Theory

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Josephine Malenga

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ABSTRACT

Work-life balance (WLB) is often a determining factor in terms of employee retention, commitment, and satisfaction. Demographic changes such as the increase of women in the labour force, ageing populations and family structures, have resulted in employees shifting their lifestyle focus from solely work to catering to their non-work activities as well. This has also evolved the relationship between employee and employer. According to social exchange theory (SET), the employment relationship is built on the rule of reciprocity where employee attitudes and behaviours are influenced by expected benefits or fulfilment of needs. This thesis will address the application of SET to WLB by investigating how the concepts of perceived organisational support (POS), employee engagement (defined as organisational and job engagement) and the psychological contract (PC) interact with WLB.

The primary research design used in this study is a cross-sectional correlational survey. The target participants were New Zealand (NZ) based individuals employed in various fields and positions. A total of 114 fully completed surveys were analysed using the partial least squares structural equation model (PLS-SEM) technique. To help further explore key findings from the quantitative analysis, semi-structured qualitative interviews with a diversity expert, a senior human resource professional, and a human resource professor provided valuable insights with which to triangulate and extend the survey findings.

POS was found to influence all the PC dimensions and WLB. Organisational engagement did not have any influence on either the PC dimensions or WLB, while job engagement had a negative influence on WLB. This presents concerns for employers on how attachment to the organisation may or may not impact areas other than WLB, such as turnover and organisational citizenship behaviour. The only PC dimensions with an influence on WLB were those related to job content and the respect for private life. The study offers a framework on how the context that the organisation offers impacts employees' perceptions of WLB. The implication that there is a link between what employees expect and how they

relate to WLB demonstrates the importance for practitioners to take a more personalised approach around WLB practices if they are to be effective.

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All the empirical research in this thesis obtained the necessary approval from the appropriate University Ethics Committee.

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APC	Average Path Coefficient
ARS	Average R-squared
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
AVIF	Average Variance Inflation Factor
CB-SEM	Covariance-Based Structural Equation Modelling
CD	Career Development
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CMV	Common Method Variance
COR	Conservation of Resources
CR	Composite Reliability
EE	Employee Engagement
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
FR	Financial Rewards
HRM	Human Resource Management
HRNZ	Human Resource Institute of New Zealand
HTMT	Heterotrait-monotrait
JC	Job Content
JE	Job Engagement
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
MAR	Missing at Random
MCAR	Missing Completely at Random
MPOWER	Massey People, Organisation, Work and Employment Research
NMAR	Not Missing at Random

NZ	New Zealand
OE	Organisation Engagement
PAF	Principal Axis Factoring
PC	Psychological Contract
PCA	Principal Components Analysis
PLS-PM	Partial Least Squares Path Modelling
PLS-SEM	Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Model
POS	Perceived Organisational Support
RP	Respect for Private Life
SA	Social Atmosphere
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SHRM	Strategic Human Resource Management
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
UWES	Utrecht Work Engagement Scale
VIF	Variation Inflation Factor
WFB	Work-Family Balance
WFC	Work-Family Conflict
WFE	Work-Family Enrichment
WLB	Work-Life balance
WLBSC	Work-Life Balance Supportive Culture

CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This research explores the relationship between three organisational concepts and work-life balance (WLB) using the Social Exchange Theory (SET). These organisational concepts include perceived organisational support (POS), employee engagement (EE) (measured by job and organisation engagement) and the psychological contract (PC). Specifically, this study examines the relationship between the organisational context as provided by these concepts and their impact on WLB. The intention is to determine some of the factors that may affect an employee's perception to ensure that the organisation is offering the right environment for effective WLB practices. WLB has gained considerable attention from both scholars and practitioners in recent years. Viewing the employment dynamic as an exchange relationship allows for the opportunity to be able to identify and implement practices that can yield the expected behaviour and actions. This perspective is useful across different contexts, including countries such as NZ where 69 per cent of professionals regarded WLB as a priority when seeking a new role (Employment New Zealand, n.d.). Drawing on relevant scholarship, Section 1.1 provides a broad background on the study under examination to set the scene in terms of the importance of WLB and its relevance to today's workforce. It also introduces the organisational concepts as mentioned above that fit into the relationship. The study's research questions and the hypotheses are presented in Sections 1.2 and 1.3, respectively. Section 1.4 outlines the research design. Section 1.5 addresses the key contributions that arise from the study in terms of academics and practice. The researcher's interest is provided in Section 1.6 and Section 1.7 overviews its structure and the coverage of each chapter. A summary is provided in Section 1.8.

1.1 Background and Overview of the Study Domain

This section provides an overview of the thesis by presenting the main organisational concepts that will be applied.

1.1.1   Social Exchange Theory

In the late 1920s, Elton Mayo conducted a series of tests and experiments to investigate whether workers were more responsive and productive under certain environmental conditions. These were named the Hawthorne studies and garnered a lot of interest as well as controversy at that time. The studies generally concluded that physical conditions and monetary incentives were less effective than social dynamics in predicting work performance. However, they did not explore the reasoning behind these results. Several researchers believed that the value of these studies concerned the different questions they raised rather than the conclusions that were drawn (Zoller and Muldoon, 2019). They demonstrated that the working environment was complex, and further analysis was required to understand the dynamics at work that influence individual and group behaviour. George Homans, a student of Mayo, attempted to pioneer this line of inquiry and in so doing, developed Social Exchange Theory (SET).

A social exchange is defined by Kamdar and Van Dyne (2007) as an open-ended transaction where the parties involved in the exchange receive mutual benefits. Actions within this relationship are evaluated and reciprocated accordingly. In the employment context, social exchange has been theorised to underlie a variety of workplace relationships (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) such as the organisation/employer and employee, supervisor and employee or fellow employees. This research will focus on the employer-employee dynamic. Using Social Exchange Theory (SET), this study seeks to form a conceptual foundation specifically about the relationship between organisational context and the WLB of employees. There is little acknowledgement in the extant literature on how different organisational conditions relate to the perception of balance. The effectiveness of Human Resource Management (HRM) implementation, specifically in terms of WLB is largely dependent on the social exchange relationships that exist between employee and employer (Bos-Nehles & Meijerink, 2018). The assessment of the investment made by employers and the output that employees will reciprocate with forms the basis of the relationship and can inform several outcomes. In this study, WLB is the outcome, and this will be investigated by looking at the constructs:

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POS, EE, and the PC. Each of these concepts is further explained in the sections that follow and in Chapter 2 (the literature review).

1.1.2 Work-life Balance

WLB has been a topic of interest within the realms of sociology, HRM and psychology for the past five decades (Khateeb, 2020). The early origins of the term WLB began with the concept of work-family balance as these two domains were seen to overlap considerably (T. D. Allen, Cho, & Meier, 2014). The economic landscape that prevailed at the time when the concept was first introduced dictated this emphasis on family as the workforce made up of working parents. The dynamic between the two roles was attributed as the reason for many employee outcomes, behaviour, and attitudes. Employers, societies, and individuals acknowledged that the work and family lives of individuals are intertwined and consistently influence one another (T. D. Allen et al., 2014). This assertion fuelled the interest and growth of research into the interdependency of the two domains, and of utilising this relationship to yield benefits for all the parties involved. Work-family balance (WFB) was once considered to be at the core of issues related to human resource development (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007). Employees sought a synthesis between the two (Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010). However, as the labour market welcomed a diverse range of individuals, it became apparent that work and family were not the only aspects of life that were of importance. Harmonising the work and life domains has become a critical matter for both employees and employers.

Early conceptualisations of WLB focused on the equal distribution of resources across the various work and non-work roles (Brough, Timms, Chan, Hawkes, & Rasmussen, 2020). However, as the understanding of the concept evolved, several definitions and views on the term arose, leading to various definitions, ways of measuring, and ways of operationalising it (Brough et al., 2020). The definition of WLB used for this research is from the work of Kalliath and Brough (2008), which recognises the priorities of employees and asserts that balance is when work and non-work activities complement each other for the benefit of the individual.

Strategic human resource management (SHRM) has placed its focus on WLB as a key organisational outcome that is essential for the maintenance of human capital (Harrington & James, 2006). WLB has greatly evolved, from one focused on only those with familial responsibilities to those in which other domains that encompass an individual's life are also taken into consideration (Chandra, 2012). The shifts in both demographic and socio-cultural norms have largely driven this movement. These include the increase in the number of women in the labour market as well as dual-earner households, ageing populations, and societal changes in the roles of men and women (Duxbury, Lyons, & Higgins, 2008). Across the employment landscape in various countries, employees in all industries have often been expected by their employers to live up to an 'ideal worker' norm (Wynn, 2018). That is, they have traditionally been expected to devote themselves fully to their work and craft, with little or no regard for their other responsibilities (Minnotte & Minnotte, 2021). However, the developments in the labour market mean that contemporary organisations must deal with the disruptions caused by these changes (Guest, 2004). These developments have caused significant changes in workplace practices such as longer working hours, technological advancements that allow for the near-constant availability and access of individuals to do their work, and the need for more flexible working arrangements (Day, Scott, & Kevin Kelloway, 2010). Additionally, there is little indication that the difficulties arising from these shifting aspects are slowing. M. Ferguson, Carlson, and Kacmar (2015) remarked that the stress of working and keeping up with the pressures of the home has become even more prominent for employees.

As a result, the ideal worker norm has been queried and proved challenging to maintain. As employees have increasingly developed as individuals with other responsibilities that may occur alongside or take precedence over work, organisations have needed to adapt to ensure that employees' needs are met (Lott & Abendroth, 2020). WLB is relevant to employees and their respective organisations or employers (Turliuc & Buliga, 2014). Halpern (2005) noted that flexible working time allowed employees to devote time to other responsibilities, and leads to a more satisfied workforce (Guest, 2002b). One area where the breakdown of this norm is notably affected concerns the concept and

practice of WLB. Adherence to the assumptions from this norm has contributed to the fear that employees experience when considering flexible working arrangements (Sallee, Ward, & Wolf-Wendel, 2016). Furthermore, many employees have faced longer working hours, dealing with multiple, sometimes conflicting roles and care responsibilities (Fein, Skinner, & Machin, 2017). Kanai et al. (2021) in a study of six countries (China, Japan, South Korea, Germany, Finland, and the United States) found that the group norm in which it was expected to work overtime affected working hours positively in all countries, that is, they worked longer hours.

For many, work is thought of as key to an individual's identity (Doherty, 2009)and has dominated conversations about finding ways to improve performance and productivity (Sparrow & Otaye-Ebede, 2017). However, people no longer wish to be defined solely by their work; individual's identities are multi-dimensional and dynamic (A. D. Brown, 2015) and this evolution has enhanced the need for employees to expand how they view their identities (Hoare, 2017). The flexibility of their identity to encompass more than work to include elements like family and leisure is a catalyst for many that seek WLB.

1.1.3   Perceived Organisational Support

In organisational research, workplace culture plays a significant role in the effective implementation and benefit of policies. For employees, their organisational context provides a lens through which they can assess policies and initiatives. POS adopts a critical role in the employee-employer relationship (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Once an employee views their organisation as supportive of their interests, this is likely to have a regulating effect, with the employee then evaluating all initiatives in a more positive light than when support is not perceived (O'Driscoll et al., 2003). Ghislieri, Gatti, Molino, and Cortese (2017) asserted that POS allowed employees to view their jobs as a resource that can enrich their personal and family life. Concerning positive perceptions of WLB, POS increases the individual's positive orientation towards the employer through social exchange (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Greater organisational support in terms of family also allowed employees to experience lower levels of work-

family conflict (Lapierre et al., 2008). The mere presence of WLB practices is not sufficient to impact WLB outcomes, and offering a supportive climate is essential to ensure that the practices in place are effective (McCarthy, Cleveland, Hunter, Darcy, & Grady, 2013). Kurtessis et al. (2017) noted that employees with high POS displayed a more balanced relationship with their home-life.

1.1.4   Psychological Contract

The PC involves the mutual (implicit) agreement between an individual and the organisation (Rousseau, 2001). Employees are no longer satisfied with a largely transactional approach to the employment relationship, and rather, generally seek and expect benefits such as greater autonomy, flexible work arrangements, career development, and a certain level of emotional involvement on the part of their employer (N. Anderson & Schalk, 1998; Hiltrop, 1995). The expectations that employees have can also play a significant role in how they perceive WLB. Hyatt and Coslor (2018) found that employer-mandated flexibility did not yield the same results that employee-led alternatives would. Indeed, employees have become increasingly diverse in their requirements and expectations, and when they are provided with initiatives that might not serve their purpose or meet their expectations, they remain unmotivated or can become demotivated by those practices. Therefore, it is essential to understand how different expectations interact with their perceptions of balance to pursue (HRM) strategies and initiatives that will enhance staff motivation and productivity.

1.1.5   Employee Engagement

Additionally, another area of importance in the management field is EE (Saks & Gruman, 2014), which looks at the level of employee's involvement at work. Research indicates that employees who are engaged in their work are not only going to be more productive but may also be happier and healthier as a result (Soares & Mosquera, 2019). Engagement allows employees to focus on the task at hand and can affect their perception of WLB. Engaged employees are likely to devote large amounts of resources

(time, energy, and involvement) to their work and therefore have positive perceptions towards WLB as they may consider their work more enjoyable (Albrecht, 2010).

1.2   Research Questions

Based on an identification of key gaps in extant scholarship in strategic human resources, management, and organisational behaviour fields, the main aim of the thesis is to expand the knowledge on how the concepts of POS, employee expectations and EE influence the perception of WLB. One of the key gaps identified is with regards to the PC, where research has focused on grouping PCs under transactional or relational. This categorisation is limited as some elements can fall within both, and the PC should be viewed more as being on a continuum between these two categories. In offering more dimensions of the PC to consider, the study can offer a more expansive look at the impact of these different expectations on the perception of balance as well how the other concepts of POS an EE impact these dimensions. Additionally, it would be useful to determine whether there is a feasible model incorporating each of these concepts and their impacts on WLB so that practitioners may have some foundation to which to work on when seeking to improve their employees' perceptions of balance. Thus, the following research questions which underpin this primary research aim will be covered:

1. How does perceived organisational support, job and organisation engagement, the psychological contract influence the employee's work-life balance?
2. What relationship does the psychological contract have with work-life balance?
3. How does perceived organisational support, job and organisation engagement influence the psychological contract that employees have with their employers?

1.3   Hypotheses

To address the research questions provided above, several hypotheses were formulated for this research. In response to RQ1, it is theorised that positive outlooks in terms of organisational support and engagement are likely to have a positive influence on WLB. This is because, as employees perceive

their employer is supportive, they are more likely to attribute positive feelings to their overall perception of balance. Employees who assume that the employer has their best interests in mind can to a degree overlook minor negative elements such as occasional long working hours or missed personal events, resulting in an overall positive assessment in terms of balance. Additionally, employees that are invested in the job and organisation acknowledge the importance of their input and are therefore more likely to perceive balance positively as they maintain an overall positive picture of their work and the organisation. That is, they are more likely to attribute positive feelings to their employer that feeds into their perception of balance. Therefore, hypotheses 1-3 are that there is a positive significant relationship between POS, JE, and OE with WLB respectively.

RQ2 considers the relationship between the PC and WLB. As this research categorised the PC under the five dimensions, it seemed appropriate that each of the hypotheses tackle the relationship between each of them and WLB separately. Some of the dimensions are more relationship focused while others are more transactional; and given that WLB is a more relational concept; the research considers that the expectations that are more relational will have a positive correlation while the less relational ones will have a negative relationship. Therefore, hypotheses 4a-c and e assume that there will be a positive significant relationship between the dimension of career development (CD), job content (JC), social atmosphere (SA), and respect for private life (RP) and WLB. Hypothesis 4d on the other hand assumes that there will be a negative significant relationship between finance rewards (FR) and WLB.

In relation to RQ3, the main aim is to investigate how the elements of POS, OE and JE influence the expectations of employees as measured by the PC. With each of these, it is theorised that as with their relationship with WLB, the more positive overview that the employee perceives in terms of support and engagement the more likely they are to expect more positive outcomes on all the dimensions of the PC. Therefore, hypotheses 5-7 consider that there is a positive significant relationship between POS, OE, and JE with the PC.

1.4   Research Design

To address the above research questions and hypotheses, this study will employ a positivist and quantitative research design because the study relies on the testing of the developed hypotheses to determine the relationship between the constructs (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2016). The positivist approach seeks to explain and predict what will happen through causal relationships (Neuman, 2014). This study seeks to identify the relationship between the various constructs introduced to guide employers in ensuring that employees have positive perceptions of WLB. Holton and Burnett (2005) noted that quantitative research lends itself to two purposes, to test theory for broad generalisation, and to discover theoretical propositions. The deductive nature of the study implies that a positivist approach is best suited (Neuman, 2014).

A questionnaire was used to gather responses from a sample population of employees in NZ workplaces on the various constructs detailed in Section 3.3.3. The survey employed mostly closed-response category questions, reflecting its employment of existing, validated scales, and to enable robust statistical analysis of the relationship between key phenomena and constructs. The survey was disseminated via online links that were sent out to employees to complete. A total of 114 completed responses were received that fed into the quantitative analysis. Significantly, following the analysis of the quantitative survey data, certain unexpected relationships were uncovered. A supplementary analysis was thus undertaken, drawing on key informants' semi-structured interview comments. This exploratory inquiry involved qualitative thematic content analysis of this rich interview material. Triangulation of the qualitative findings with the statistical results helped to corroborate, explain and/or extend the quantitative results from the survey data analysis, thereby adding to the overall empirical contribution of the study. Chapter 3 provides a more in-depth discussion of the method.

1.5   Contribution to Knowledge and Practice

The area of WLB has been extensively researched in a range of disciplines, including human resources, organisational behaviour, psychology, and sociology (T. D. Allen, French, Dumani, & Shockley, 2015; Guest, 2002b; Haar, 2013; Kalliath & Brough, 2008; Morrison & Thurnell, 2012). However, several meta-analyses have highlighted certain, key gaps in extant scholarship that are still yet to be addressed, such as the use of conflict as a definition of balance, lack of specificity in measures, the focus on Western industrial workers, and the neglect of individual differences and personal characteristics as an antecedent for balance (Bardoel, De Cieri, & Santos, 2008; Casper, Vaziri, Wayne, DeHauw, & Greenhaus, 2018; A. Chang, McDonald, & Burton, 2010; Eby, Lockwood, Brinley, Casper, & Bordeaux, 2005; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). This study places a significant emphasis on employee expectations and perceptions as the driving force for the perception of WLB, distinguishing the presence of WLB policies from the perception of balance. This is an important approach because it allows for the possibility that the mere presence of policies does not mean that they are effective, however, perception provides a strong influence on outcomes. Perception of other human resource practices such as performance appraisal affects the employee attitudes and sends signals of their value to the organisation (Boswell & Boudreau, 2000), so too perception with regards to the support of the organisation conveys specific messages to the employee that determine how they react towards the organisation. Although the intention of the organisation may be positive, it is how it is perceived that ultimately determines its impacts on attitudes and behaviour. Indeed, organisations can implement several initiatives to help employees; however, if these are not perceived by everyone in the same manner, they may remain ineffective or yield unexpected results. Additionally, research to date has neglected conceptualisations of what employees expect from their job and workplace, and how those expectations can shape their perceptions, even if they do come to fruition. This study thus adds a layer of analysis that is missing from extant WLB studies in NZ and beyond and can extend WLB theory to incorporate the various expectations that employees have with their employer.

The main practical value of the research includes its capacity to make employers cognisant of the key and various factors that affect employees' perceptions of WLB, itself a relativist notion. The human resource arena has made great strides in personalising many of its duties such as performance management and training development. However, organisational initiatives and responsiveness to WLB have been left largely to their own devices, with employers, unions and employees relying on statutory requirements. For instance, in NZ, the Employment Relations (Flexible Working Arrangements) Amendment Act 2007 provides employees with the right to adapt their working arrangements if they have dependents. This does not consider the variability that exists in terms of employee characteristics, circumstances, expectations and needs. Indeed, S. Lewis and Cooper (2005) emphasised that there are no 'one size fits all' solutions; any policies implemented without ensuring they meet a need or without cultivating the culture required for their success will have limited impact. This research responds to this challenge, encouraging employers to recognise and inclusively respond to employee diversity, and to progress a more proactive approach when offering WLB initiatives. Although such initiatives can require considerable levels of investment on the part of the employer, the expected benefits of a well-balanced and satisfied workforce are likely to far outweigh the costs and investment in the longer-term.

1.6   Researcher's Interest

The topic of WLB first caught my attention when I worked as a consultant for a global organisation. During this time as is characteristic for consulting organisations, I worked long hours, weekends, and was expected to be available whenever the clients required. As an eager new employee that had just finished my master's degree, I initially enjoyed the complexity and the variability in work assignments that were offered by working for a large organisation. The turbulent hours did not impact me given that I had no other responsibilities and work took priority in my life. However, as I progressed, and the work became more familiar I found myself seeking more than just client work. Even though I still enjoyed my job and my colleagues, I became dissatisfied. This in turn affected other areas of my life, including not being able to find time for leisure activities that I enjoyed, as well as difficulty, maintain friendships

outside of colleagues. As I looked at the other people around me, the story remained the same, however for different reasons. Some employees wanted to be able to travel more and have extended breaks, others wanted more time to spend with their families and some wanted just a few days off to reset. This triggered my initial search into the area of WLB and served as my foundation for wanting to pursue a PhD in this area. As I dove into the research, the topic of the PC which was my main research area for my master's degree rose and I decided to incorporate it into my research. Although my PhD evolved from what I first thought it would be, I am pleased with the outcome of the journey. With my PhD, I am hoping to add to the knowledge that employees are unique individuals that have varying interests and work is only a fraction of what makes up their identity. I hope that I would be able to demonstrate that each employee has their priorities as they enter the labour force and how the organisation sets itself up has an impact on how they can manage these various priorities, and in turn, how balanced they perceive their work-non-work environment is.

1.7   Structure of Thesis

Chapter 1 introduces the main concepts and research questions and provides the background to the study. These serve to make the importance of the study clear. The methodology adopted for the research project is introduced and briefly discussed and an outline of the thesis is provided. Finally, the contribution that the study makes to knowledge and practice is provided.

Chapter 2 includes a review of the literature from which the research questions are derived. From the literature review, gaps in the body of knowledge are identified and the research questions and hypotheses are subsequently developed. A research model is included to visually demonstrate the variables and hypothesised relationships developed as part of the current study.

Chapter 3 describes the methodology used for the research. The chapter includes a brief discussion on the research paradigm and justifies the selection of the method. The chapter outlines the use of an initial quantitative method, followed by a supplementary qualitative interview with key informants. The

chapter provides coverage of the sample, measures, data analysis techniques used in the study, and the ethical considerations taken within the study.

Chapter 4 presents the results from the testing of the hypotheses, as well as the findings from the supplementary qualitative interviews that followed.

Chapter 5 provides an in-depth discussion of the results presented in Chapters Four. This chapter also provides the implications of the study as well as the limitations and future research directions.

Chapter 6 concludes with the highlights of the study's key findings and final remarks.

1.8   Chapter Summary

While the constructs studied in this research have been subject to critical review and empirical investigation for many years, much scholarship in the human resource field has focused on specific outcomes of the concepts used within this research. For example, the concept of the PC is usually only studied as breach or violation. The content of the contract is neglected, even though it may have a significant influence on work outcomes. By using SET to frame its research aim, questions and empirical inquiry, this study embarks on an inaugural and thus unique investigation of the relationships between POS, job and organisation engagement, and the PC on WLB. In Chapter 2, a critical review of scholarship identifies the key areas within WLB that remain under or not investigated, to develop thereby informing the key research questions of this study.

CHAPTER 2 - LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0　　Introduction

This chapter provides an exhaustive literature review of concepts and studies relating to the focus of this study on the impact of the organisational context on the perception of balance of employees. It thus traverses a range of key constructs, including Work-Life Balance (WLB), Perceived Organisational Support (POS), the Psychological Contract (PC) and Employee Engagement (EE). In Section 2.1, Social Exchange Theory (SET) is discussed, evaluated, and justified as the theoretical lens through which WLB, and other key concepts are examined in this study. Section 2.2 examines conceptualisations of WLB, including its various definitions and significance in and for workplaces Section 2.3 overviews the development and demise of the 'ideal worker' norm which has informed organisational approaches and practices until recent decades. This development is then connected to a discussion of the different theories that arose and the changes in the types and effectiveness of WLB practices offered by organisations to employees. Sections 2.4, 2.5 and 2.6 present the concepts of POS, EE, and PC, and the rationale for the study's focus on their relationship to WLB. A summary of key themes, findings, the study aim, and research questions are provided in Section 2.7.

2.1　　Theoretical Framework – Social Exchange Theory

In the late 1920s, Elton Mayo conducted a series of tests and experiments to investigate whether workers were more responsive and productive under certain environmental conditions. These were named the Hawthorne studies and garnered a lot of interest as well as controversy at that time. The studies generally concluded that physical conditions and monetary incentives were less effective than social dynamics in predicting work performance. However, they did not explore the reasoning behind these results. Several researchers believed that the value of these studies concerned the different questions they raised rather than the conclusions that were drawn (Zoller & Muldoon, 2019). They demonstrated that the working environment was complex, and further analysis was required to understand the

dynamics at work that influence individual and group behaviour. George Homans, a student of Mayo, attempted to pioneer this line of inquiry and in so doing, developed Social Exchange Theory (SET).

The basic premise of SET is that Homans (1958) envisioned social interactions between individuals involving costs and rewards. He drew upon economics in developing this theory, where he assumed that individuals make conscious investments with the expectation of receiving a reward. In considering rewards he concluded that some of the economic terms and conceptualisations did not apply as well to social behaviour. The rewards people receive in a social exchange can be intrinsic (love) or extrinsic (help with chores). A critical component of SET is the crucial role that rewards – social or economic - play in motivating behaviour (Lamb, Cai, & McKenna, 2020). Mitchell, Cropanzano, and Quisenberry (2012) noted that people behave in ways to maximise positively valued resources. Individuals weigh out the possible rewards in interaction with others, and if neither party receives satisfactory rewards, then the social exchange will not take place (Yin, 2018). The economic level involves the actual exchange of something between individuals. and the relational level is where the selection and evaluation of relationships happen. These levels are not mutually exclusive. While this give-and-take dynamic takes place in general social life, it has relevance in the working environment as well. Homans observed that multiple interactions between individuals foster a sense of trust that creates a mutual dependence on those in the relationship.

Therefore, the social exchange relationship is ongoing, reciprocal, and dynamic (Molm, 2006). This type of exchange relationship is longer-term than the generally one-time transaction associated with economic exchanges (Molm, 2006). Social exchange is therefore important when examining relationships within an organisation. Considering the organisational setting, the employer-employee relationship is a type of social exchange where employers provide positive interactions such as organisational support in the hope that their employees will reciprocate by being more committed to the organisation, yielding higher performance outcomes (Sungu, Weng, & Kitule, 2019). Individuals also exchange resources with one another and respond accordingly to balance the resources they exchange (Yoshikawa, Wu, & Lee, 2018). These resources include approval and care from the organisation, and

the theory postulates that employees feel obligated to respond with positive work behaviour (T.-Y. Kim, Aryee, Loi, & Kim, 2013). Moreover, social exchange is useful for organisations as it allows them to use organisational social capital (Yoshikawa et al., 2018). Organisational social capital is the resources embedded through and available through the network of relationships possessed (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Putnam (2001) further defined it as the connections among individuals and the norms of reciprocity that arise from them. It is the foundation on which SET relies.

The theory has for many years been applied in organisational research (Chernyak-Hai & Rabenu, 2018) to study various phenomena. In their review of 493 independent samples, Colquitt et al. (2013) revealed that several social exchange constructs such as POS, trust, and organisational commitment are significant to relations among justice, citizenship behaviour and task performance. The social exchange relationship is a mediator between employers' actions and employees' work behaviour (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Belmi and Pfeffer (2015) posited that reciprocity norms form an integral part of cooperation and productivity. Burger, Sanchez, Imberi, and Grande (2009) even stated that sometimes these norms of reciprocity are so internalised that parties can still engage in reciprocal behaviour even if the other party may not ever know about that behaviour. Organisations that employ this theory and provide suitable programs for the employee, regardless of the reason for starting the program (i.e., attraction, employee aid), will experience an effect on employee attitudes (T. D. Allen, 2001) and produce a reaction. The reaction produced may be reciprocation by exhibiting organisational citizenship behaviour and commitment (Clay-Warner, Hegtvedt, & Roman, 2005; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Moorman, 1991).

SET relies on the occurrence of repeated interactions that generate obligations between parties (He, Yang, & He, 2018). However, actions are voluntary. Thus, for social exchange to succeed, both parties must abide by the rules of exchange (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Among the various rules, that used most often in the management field is the reciprocity rule. This is influenced by an interdependence between two parties; the process forms a cycle of actions where one party is constantly reacting to the actions of the other. Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) note that the nature of this cycle makes it difficult

to organise into discrete steps; therefore, employers cannot pinpoint what actions independently result in a specific outcome. The relationship is an accumulation of all the interactions; each relationship is shaped by a variety of social dynamics and is therefore unique. This is further complicated by the vague nature of the relationship; unlike economic exchanges, the terms in a social exchange are not explicit and are rarely specified (Blau, 1964). As the nature of the return is at the discretion of the one who provides it (Berkery, Morley, Tiernan, & Peretz, 2020), there can be no guaranteed course of action that will produce desired results.

While SET has mostly been applied to individuals, each participating party exists in a wider context that may impact their ability to expend resources within the relationship (Zagenczyk, Gibney, Murrell, & Boss, 2008). That is, everyone may be influenced by a variety of social factors that affect the employee-employer dynamic. Application of the social exchange dynamics within WLB occurs when employees feel that the organisation assists them in balancing their work and personal life (Larasati & Hasanati, 2018). Employees feel cared for and supported by the organisation and respond to this by increasing their positive feelings for work (Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005). Talukder, 2019 #427@@author-year} supported the basic tenets of SET with a study comprised of 305 employees in the financial sector in Australia and found that when employees perceived that their conditions were family supportive, they experienced increased WLB. Felstead and Henseke (2017) also noted that in line with SET, employee that worked remotely were more committed and enthusiastic about their job and had higher levels of satisfaction. This implies that in exchange for flexible working, employees were prepared to exert more energy and attach a more positive outlook on their work. Rodríguez-Modroño and López-Igual (2021) further corroborate this in their study where all telework arrangement resulted to work intensification; however, they also noted that different types of telework have different impacts on WLB. This highlights the need to incorporate employee expectations within SET applications of WLB. Further application of SET within the concepts of WLB, POS, PC and EE are detailed in the sections that follow.

2.2 Work-Life Balance

2.2.1 Evolution of the Work-Life Balance Concept

Balance is a struggle for individuals, regardless of their familial responsibilities, and should be viewed as a broader concept than just between work and family (Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010). Whereas previous literature in the fields of organisational behaviour, psychology, and human resources ignored anything beyond the family domain outside of work (Greenhaus, Ziegert, & Allen, 2012; Jain & Nair, 2013; McNamara, Pitt-Catsouphes, Matz-Costa, Brown, & Valcour, 2013; Voydanoff, 2005), recently, scholars have begun to take an interest in the varied models of life, seeking to incorporate other aspects such as community and religious commitments, recreational and study activities. Social roles hold an important position in our lives; with various roles in the family, religion, community, and leisure influencing how we interact, think, behave, and use our time (Frone, 2003). With the roots of WLB in work-family balance, many organisations retain the WFB definition of life as family or child/elder care responsibilities. This leads them to construct policies that are favourable to employees with these needs, while neglecting those with others (Wilkinson, Tomlinson, & Gardiner, 2017). Indeed, Hall, Kossek, Briscoe, Pichler, and Lee (2013) theorised that life is multi-dimensional and the interaction between work and non-work commitments should encompass this broader view. Additionally, given that many of foundational theories and concepts reference WFB, further research that focuses on WLB is needed.

While the term WFB has shifted to WLB, more 'tweaking' appears to be needed in to capture the true essence of the phenomena under scrutiny. This is made evident in a meta-analysis by Casper et al. (2018) who examined the presence of the 'jingle and jangle fallacy' in relation to WLB. The jingle fallacy entails attributing different meanings to a single construct, specifically where balance has referred to situations of low conflict, equality, satisfaction, or involvement. The jangle fallacy concerns the use of different labels for a single construct such as the use of work-life conflict, balance or, more recently, work-life integration. Each of these labels pose methodological challenges to research on WLB. The labels come with their own differences in interpretation (S. Lewis, Gambles, & Rapoport,

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2007), and with each interpretation a different tool used to measure it. Additionally, with multiple definitions, the themes that support the construct are varied (Brough et al., 2020). This makes it difficult to consolidate the research in this area to provide a universal framework for use. In line with role scarcity research (Marks, 1977), when some studies define WLB, they are really investigating work-life conflict which suggests that individuals have limited resources that are split between and interfere with their work and non-work demands, causing tension (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). This definition assumes that, given that roles are incompatible, and that energy is fixed (Haddon, Hede, & Whiteoak, 2009), to achieve balance is to seek to minimise conflict. On the other hand, role expansion theory assumes that roles can have positive influences on each other (Nordenmark, 2004), and this is known as work-life enrichment.

Thus, the term WLB is not revolutionary by any means. However, debate continues as to whether this phenomenon even exists or if it is a manifestation of a 'fairy tale' that workers strive for but are unable to achieve (Ford & Collinson, 2011; Wynn & Rao, 2020). The accessibility of the term is perhaps one of the factors that have contributed to a lack of unity over its definition. The literature is home to various definitions and measures (Kalliath & Brough, 2008) that are sometimes contradictory. There is a tendency for people to conceptualise the WLB term on the basis on their experience; and the subjective nature of these interpretations has guided the research in the area. As expected, this has resulted in sometimes conflicting outcomes. Balance is a personal state of being experienced subjectively (Cunningham, 2009). The lack of consensus over how balance should be defined has limited the advancement of the concept in terms of theoretical and practical contributions. In a meta-analysis of 290 papers, Casper and Harris (2008) identified 137 unique definitions, some of which included the concepts of conflict and enrichment.

2.2.2   Work-Life Balance Definitions

In recent years the popular press has given increased attention to issues of WLB. The term is sometimes used as a noun (when, for example, one is encouraged to achieve balance), and at other times as a verb

(to balance work and family demands) or an adjective (as in a balanced life). It is also often used to suggest a need to cut back on work to spend more time with the family. It is also thought to be in an individual's best interest to live a 'balanced' life (Kofodimos). Despite the expected benefits of WLB, much of the literature has focused on work-family concepts and ignored WLB (Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003), or mention balance but do not explicitly define or measure the term. Moreover, empirical studies that discuss balance between work and family roles generally do not distinguish balance from other relevant or similar concepts in the work-family literature (Nielson, Carlson, & Lankau, 2001; Sumer & Knight, 2001). Even when definitions of balance are provided (Clark, 2000; Hill, Hawkins, Ferris, & Weitzman, 2001), these are not entirely consistent with one another and often result in a measuring of balance that remains limited.

Less specific than work-family balance, the term WLB was first coined in reaction to the trend of the 1970s and 1980s when men and women began prioritising work and career goals over family, friends, community affairs and leisure activities. WLB as a concept remains elusive because it is often not formally defined, and different scholars conceptualise balance in various ways. After reviewing a variety of perspectives on WLB (e.g. low work-family conflict, equal involvement in work and personal domains), Greenhaus and Allen (2011) conclude that employees experience WLB when they are effective and satisfied in those parts of their lives that are important to them. The terms 'WLB' and 'WFB' are often used interchangeably, but generally are applied to the same concept (Hill et al., 2001). 'WLB' has been used in this research as the author believes it more inclusive term and better encompasses work, personal and family responsibilities ((Lyness & Judiesch, 2014; C. P. Parker et al., 2003). This concept of WLB is favoured by employers and policy makers as it is considered more gender-neutral than work-family balance and is also more inclusive of employees regardless of their family circumstances or involvement (J. Lewis, Campbell, & Huerta, 2008).

With so much emphasis on the need for an appropriate definition for balance, it is instrumental for this research to utilise a definition that captures the complexity of the concept. The goal of WLB is not to ensure that each domain receives equal attention, or that there is zero tension between the two; balance

is meant to invoke feelings of satisfaction and a sense of collaborative effort between the various demands of life that are aligned to the goals of the individual at that time. Braun and Peus (2018) described WLB as the feeling that employees experience when they are satisfied with the multiple roles they encounter. Balance is thus a subjective and relativist matter and may be affected by factors such as the value an individual imposes on each sphere (role salience), their circumstances, values, and stage in life.

In the work-life literature, there are at least several key definitions of WLB. Clark (2000) argued that WLB occurs when there is a sense of satisfaction with work and family roles. Frone (2003) asserted that balance is a four-fold taxonomy between the dimensions of direction of influence (i.e., work-to-family and family to work) and type of effect (i.e., conflict and facilitation). Carlson, Grzywacz, and Zivnuska (2009) recently addressed limitations in the definitions of WLB and suggested that people have balance when they believe they can facilitate work and family commitments and effectively negotiate with significant others in their different life domains. Guest (2002b) offered a subjective definition about WLB. He argued that balance is determined by a person's subjective feelings and emotions. That is, they feel they are living a balanced life. He suggested that people assess the balance in their life using subjective evaluations based on their beliefs and feelings.

For their part, Kalliath and Brough (2008) Kalliath and Brough (2008, p. 324) have defined WLB as "the individual perception that work and non-work activities are compatible and promote growth in accordance with an individual's current life priorities." This definition not only acknowledges balance as a subjective concept, but it also assumes that it is best assessed by the individual, confirming the use of self-report measures in the field. Timms, Brough, Siu, O'Driscoll, and Kalliath (2015) proposed that this definition offers some critical discussion areas; they identify that the definition does not imply that the time spent in any of the domains must be equal. Brough et al. (2014) assert that expecting balance to mean 'equal' is unrealistic, and while the term itself may evoke this thought, the definition chosen focuses on the subjective assessment made. It can also be implied that what is important to one person may differ for other individuals (Jayasingam, Lee, & Mohd Zain, 2021).

Finally, the definition proposes the fact that balance is not a static concept. It may look different at different times for the same individual. The issue of role salience is brought to the forefront. For example, the birth of a baby may lead individuals to value home-life more and a promotion may result in a greater involvement in the work domain (Timms et al., 2015). Andysz, Jacukowicz, Stańczak, and Drabek (2016) note that each person's consideration of optimal distribution of time, energy and engagement within different spheres is subjective and may change due to changing personal or professional circumstances. Although each of these definitions pose challenges for both academics and practitioners, it offers a more realistic view of how balance should be defined, and it is essential that measures and initiatives take this into account.

2.2.3   Work-Life Balance Theories

Spill-over theory

Role theory explains that an individual occupies several roles that make up their life (Cain, Busser, & Kang, 2018). According to this theory, people play many roles in their life (e.g., father, mother, daughter, son, worker, family caregiver), and they have a limited amount of time and attention to devote to each role. Furthermore, each role requires a level of psychological involvement, and the extent of that involvement is dictated by how important that role is to the identity of the person (Frone, 2003). As a result, there can be conflict between roles when people try to accommodate all the roles in their life. This desire to meet the demands of all roles can lead to role ambiguity and role stress in one or all roles and have detrimental effects on people's health and well-being (Poelmans, O'Driscoll, & Beham, 2005). Marks and MacDermid (1996) note that balance between the multiple roles contributes to stronger self-experience and allows the individual to experience reduced life strain. However, role theory is limited because different roles can also reinforce one another and thereby increase people's health and well-being. This phenomenon is addressed by spill-over theory, which became popular in studies that examine WFB (Grzywacz, Almeida, & McDonald, 2002).

Spill-over is said to occur when one domain impacts the other (Pradhan, 2016). This theory is based on the notion that there are permeable boundaries between work and family, and moods, attitudes, emotions, feelings, stress, and behaviours from one domain can spill-over into the other domains (Rothbard & Dumas, 2006). Furthermore, it assumes that there is a similarity between what occurs in one domain and others, and spill-over can be interpreted as either positive or negative (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Positive spill-over refers to situations where satisfaction, a sense of accomplishment, and well-being gained from one domain are transferred to another domain. In contrast, negative spill-over occurs when difficulties in one domain spill-over into the other domain, resulting in harmful consequences (Xu, 2009). In a positive spill-over, employees operating in a positive, balanced environment have a more satisfactory outlook on the job. In a negative spill-over, employees exposed to conflicting work and family issues will transfer those problems into the workplace. However, other theories take a more segmented approach to how the domains interact with each other.

Segmentation theory

Segmentation theory is one of the earliest views on the relationship between work and home. This theory suggests that work and family are separate worlds (Kanter, 2006) and have no influence on each other. It suggests that people need to establish firm boundaries between work and family and, if necessary, suppress the thoughts, feelings, attitudes, and emotions that they have in one realm when they are in another. For example, in a stressful and demanding work role, one would compartmentalise those feelings within that sphere, protecting them from their non-work roles. This theory has also tended to perpetuate the ideal worker norms (which is discussed here in Section 2.3), as the home is viewed as a haven for women and work as an arena for men (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). Segmentation theory is thus the opposite of spill-over theory and is sometimes used as an alternative theory to spill-over theory when the latter cannot explain non-significant effects (Smyrnios et al., 2003). Guest (2002b) further noted that this theory was used more as a theoretical possibility rather than one with empirical support.

Conservation of resources theory

The conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 2011) proposes that individuals will be motivated to acquire and maintain resources to deal with the demands of work and family. COR theory has been predominantly used in the stress and motivation literature and explains how and what resources are invested to gain more positive states (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007). This positive resource re-investment is a perpetual cycle in which people acquire additional resources that act as a buffer when challenges in the work and family environments arise. Resources can be anything that people value, for example, self-esteem, close attachments, WLB, as well as materialistic objects such as houses and cars.

Hobfoll (2011) classified resources into four general areas: (a) personality traits (e.g., self-esteem, optimism, sense of coherence, resilience); (b) conditions (e.g., physical, and mental health); (c) objects (e.g., socio-economic status and housing); and (d) energies (e.g., time, money, skills, knowledge). He suggested that resources are in a constant loss or gain loop that is cumulative. Therefore, people who experience work-family conflict experience resource loss cycles that are harmful to effective functioning, WLB, and well-being. However, Hobfoll and Schumm (2002) argued that individuals with a strong resource pool to draw from are more resistant to this cycle, experience greater levels of well-being, can problem solve, are solution-focused, and have the cognitive capacity to positively reframe the situation.

2.2.4   Work-Life Balance Practices

WLB practices play a critical role for both the organisation and the employee. Therefore, the most effective initiatives must be put in place. Daverth, Hyde, and Cassell (2016) described that WLB practices have commonly been classified into four broad categories: flexible working arrangements, child-care opportunities, leave arrangements, and support and well-being programmes. These forms serve different purposes and can therefore be used by different employees (Carless & Wintle, 2007). Research has suggested that companies are increasingly attempting to create work settings and environments that are more conducive to WLB. One of the primary ways in which this has been done is through the development and implementation of policies to foster more flexibility and/or change the

dynamics of the work setting (Jiang, 2012). Most of these policies have been aimed at increasing positive WLB through flexitime, telecommuting, and job sharing or personal days. Flexitime is defined as adjusting the time of workday hours away from the typical 9 am to 5 pm workday so long as a set number of hours are worked per week. Telecommuting is another common organisational WLB policy though there is still debate among academics surrounding how to define and therefore measure the effects of telecommuting. However, the term broadly means using information and communication technology to perform job responsibilities away from the workplace (Mokhtarian, Salomon, & Choo, 2005). Some practices are less common. For example, few organisations offer services related to WLB, such as sponsored or workplace child-care centres (Lapierre & Allen, 2006).

The various theoretical models describing WLB include multiple definitions (Brough et al., 2014). Each WLB definition encompasses a value perspective that determines which elements are essential for individuals to perceive balance in their spheres (Reiter, 2007). These definitions have been classified as two perspectives - absolutist and situationalist (Reiter, 2007). The absolutist perspective assumes that there is one universal picture of what balance should look like and that all should aspire to materialise this image. However, a situationalist approach aims to explore which factors allow different groups of individuals to experience WLB in different ways (Reiter, 2007). Under the situationalist approach, while some may experience balance by integrating their work and non-work domains, others benefit from viewing them as distinct realms (Clark, 2000). However, the reality remains that practice seems to favour an absolutist approach (Reiter, 2007); similar work-life policies are offered to all employees regardless of their circumstances or needs. The assumption that a young individual with no dependent care responsibilities and a single mother with no support would not differ in the value they place on certain policies is simplistic and unrealistic. Reiter (2007) questioned the motive of employers in offering 'one size fits all' policies in that their expectation is for their workforce to achieve a balanced distribution of commitment regardless of their wants and desires.

Rosin and Korabik (2002) noted that mere access to or utilisation of family-friendly policies does not result in any positive work or personal outcomes. Rather, it is the satisfaction that employees felt

concerning these policies that produce favourable results. However, many studies in the WLB field have relied on the availability or number of benefits available as a means of assessing the effectiveness of policies. In agreement, (2007) concluded that measuring the number of initiatives used may not be an accurate measure of the impact of the use, and that appropriateness of the initiatives needs to be considered. This research provides a more relevant measure of WLB by using the Kalliath and Brough (2008) definition and thus the measure is related to how well employees perceive that they are achieving balance.

2.2.5 Meta-analyses on Work-Life Balance

A summary of the review of other key meta-analyses on work-family/life literature that highlight key focus areas and room for growth are provided in Table 1 overleaf. These were chosen as they focus primarily on the concept of work-family/life balance regardless of the definition they have used. Meta-analyses that include how this concept relates to other outcomes were not included as this section deals with just the conceptualisation of the term and not its impact on other concepts. While this is not a comprehensive review of all the literature, it provides a general outlook of the landscape. The table demonstrates several key things: firstly, while there are several variables studied under the literature, the inclusion of individual differences is usually limited to gender or family characteristics. Employees have far more differences that organisations and researchers can tackle. One of the ways this research seeks to do so, without having a multitude of components is through employee expectations. Expectations encompass individual differences, and they stem from what the individual views as a priority. Research that seeks to address this provides the organisation with the ability to cater to and satisfy employee needs effectively. Using conflict as a proxy for balance may not be accurate, as it is argued that individuals can still experience balance even though conflict is present, depending on how balance is defined (Poelmans, Kalliath, & Brough, 2008). Thus, conceptualisations of WLB usually reflect the approach or theory to which a researcher ascribes.

Table 1: Summary of Meta-Analyses on Work-Family/Life Literature

Author(s)	Methodology	Main Findings
Bardoel et al. (2008)	Systematic review Australia and NZ (2004 – 2007) 86 articles (66 on Australia; 18 on NZ; 2 on both)	1. Criticisms of Work-Life literature: - Assessment of work-family often used to focus only on negative consequences - Light use of, or lack of, theory - Loose definition of both work and life - Lack of specificity in measures - Tendency to focus on either work or life domain rather than on both - Lack of multilevel analysis in empirical research - US biased nature of work-life research 2. Focus of the articles: - Organisation (21): policies, programs, strategies, and support provided by organisations; work-life culture, organisational values, and role of organisational policies in recruitment - Work (20): characteristics of the jobs (long working hours, incidence of alternative work arrangements)

Author(s)	Methodology	Main Findings
		- Occupations/industries (18): construction industry, academia, emergency workers and psychologists - Government (16): government policy and legislation, mostly related to child-care, maternity (parental) leave and caregiving - Health (10): health outcomes (psychological such as stress, burnout) - Families (8): family structure and children (issues faced by single-parent families, dual-career families, and families with children with disabilities or chronic illnesses) - Gender (8): gender differences in the experience of work-life conflict, gender discrimination and other issues for women - Additional themes: outcomes such as job or life satisfaction, coping strategies, workaholism and overall support provided to individuals 3. Categories of research - 23 conceptual; 63 empirical (39 quantitative; 19 qualitative; 5 mixed methods) - 6 longitudinal; 57 cross-sectional
P. McDonald, Burton, and Chang (2007)	245 empirical papers (1987 – 2006)	1. Critiques of sampling issues - Women-only samples outnumbered men only samples by almost 5 to 1

Author(s)	Methodology	Main Findings
		- Women (mothers in traditionally female occupations) remain over-sampled - Around 7 out of 10 quantitative studies utilised diverse samples of parent and non-parent individuals, whereas only one-third of qualitative studies used this sample composition - Samples of individuals responsible for eldercare scarce - Manual occupation, lower-skilled, service/clerical workers infrequently used in participant groups - Few compared findings for different occupational groups - Significant bias towards research in Western industrialised workers (More than half studies were carried out in the US. Next most represented regions were Australia and South Pacific, the UK and Ireland, Western Europe, and the Nordic countries)
Eby et al. (2005)	190 work-family studies (1980 – 2002)	- 89% of studies were predictive as opposed to exploratory (62% of predictive studies were categorised as hypothesis testing) - Most studied predictors include family characteristics (12.5%), background characteristics (11.6%), work attitudes (11.2%) and job attributes (9.9%) - Least commonly studied predictors include employee behaviours (<1%), coping (<1%), and children and parenting variables (<1%)

Author(s)	Methodology	Main Findings
		- Most frequently studied criteria include work attitudes (22.2%), work-family interaction (13.9%), health and wellness (12.7%), and family/non-work attitudes (10.8%) - Least commonly studied criteria include children and parenting variables (1.4%), non-work support (<1%), and parent variables (0.0%) - 31% of predictive studies included a mediator - Most frequently studied mediators include work-family interaction (23.1%), stress (20.1%), work attitudes (13%) and family/non-work attitudes (8.9%)
Parasuraman and Greenhaus (2002)	Not specified	- Limited research on role enhancement or positive connections - Neglect of individual differences and psychological characteristics as antecedents of conflict and stress - Narrow scope of research on gender differences - Narrow research on intact nuclear families; scant attention devoted to single parents, blended families, and individuals with significant responsibility for elder care - Overemphasis on the individual level of analysis

2.2.6   Demographic Factors Related to WLB

This section provides a look at a few of the demographic factors that have attributed to the rise of WLB and other practices. These also lead into the discussion on the erosion of the ideal worker norm that is discussed in the following section. Where possible, NZ figures are provided to position the research in its context.

2.2.6.1 Increased Female Participation in the Workforce

There has been a steady increase in women's participation in the labour force in all the OECD countries (Doress-Worters, 1994). Cipollone, Patacchini, and Vallanti (2014) investigated the changes in this regard among 15 EU countries. They identified that labour market organisations and family-oriented policies accounted for 25 per cent of the increase in young women and more than 30 per cent for highly educated women. Even NZ experienced a rise in the number of women entering the labour force (J. Smith & Gardner, 2007). Flynn and Harris (2014) identified the following factors that influence women participation: age of the mother and age of the youngest child. As these two increase, the employment rate of mothers also increases. This implies that as the mothers no longer must be as active in the care of their children, they are freed up to engage in employment activities. This trend has prevailed in contrast to the ideal worker norm (discussed in Section 2.3) that viewed men as the working partner while women served as caregivers (Borris & Lewis, 2006). Organisations have the power to influence this rate by providing policies that can aid mothers even as their children are younger. In relation to this study, this further confirms the role that support can play as well as the need for organisations to consider individual differences.

Green, Moore, Easton, and Heggie (2004) identified that the biggest barriers to women's employment were the availability, quality, and cost of child-care facilities and the incompatibility of start and finish times at school with work demands. Juggling these demands was challenging for them, and a third of women wanted to change their working hours. Some of these barriers (child-care; lack of flexible work and time; lack of support and encouragement; lack of suitable opportunities and training) are addressed

within this research. The goal is to identify how organisations can positively effectively address employee needs, in this instance how to manage career and family demands. The balancing of home and work-life, between paid and unpaid responsibilities can provide added pressures and produce conflict at work and home (Voydanoff, 2005). This is compounded even more when other life domains are included in the equation. Women in the workforce have varying interests and priorities outside of just the family, so in including a broader concept of balance, this research contributes to the acknowledgement of that fact.

2.2.6.2 Dual Income Households

Within the last three decades we have seen a large increase in two-income earner families. This trend has seen a demise of the male breadwinner and the female stay-at-home mum (Higgins, Duxbury, & Irving, 1992). This brings challenges for the management of the family where both are income earners. Sceats (2003) noted that as the ability to combine work and family becomes more difficult, more NZ women would be forced to compromise on one or the other, and in many instances that is likely to be the child-care aspect. Dual income households where both parents work and have dependent children are more likely to suffer from the time crunch, resulting in tiredness, exhaustion, and frustration. Eikhof (2007) concluded that the WLB arena needs to look at the backstory of these perceptions and not just rely on data. One of the ways that this research seeks to do that is to integrate employee expectations into the narrative and identify which expectations are critical in the relationship with WLB.

2.2.6.3 Increase in Elderly Population

Another emerging trend likely to affect the work-life interface is an increased elderly population. This emerging trend brings with it multi-faceted dilemmas for consideration. In the NZ context, the proportion of the labour force over 65 years of age is expected to be between 7 and 11 per cent by 2043 (Statistics New Zealand, 2021); this presents challenges for all organisations. The exiting of older employees from the workforce and their expertise, a perceived shortage of workers, and an ageing

workforce should be of concern to managers of organisations. Organisations need to look at accommodating the needs of this cohort group in formulating work-life retention policies and informal practices to encourage the older workforce to remain within the workspace to pass on their knowledge and expertise to the younger workers. The needs and expectations between and within these cohorts are likely to be different and therefore it is beneficial that organisations provide a supportive environment. The role that organisational support plays in the perception of balance and on the expectations that employees can expect is addressed in the study.

2.3   The Ideal Worker Norm and Work-Life Balance

Engagement in paid or unpaid work is a large component of most individuals' identity, thereby encompassing a large portion of how people spend their time. Their sense of identity is affected by various dynamics including cultural and social factors (Kroger, 1997) where the environment influences those areas of endeavour that individuals deem to be most important to them. During the 1900s, work was widely considered to be central to one's raison d'être, giving rise to the notion of the 'ideal worker' norm.

Acker (1990) defined the ideal worker as one who is wholly committed to, and always available for, their work. According to this norm, Individuals saw their value and were judged by others through the work that they chose to do. In general, employees were expected to work long hours and to 'go above and beyond' for their organisation. At the time of its conceptualisation, the typical worker was male, and women maintained all or the bulk of household and care duties (J. C. Williams, 2001), fitting with an assumed 'natural life pattern'. Many organisations originally had a prototype for what an ideal worker looked like – and for a long time, this remained unchallenged. Their human relations practices reflected and favoured this élite group, strengthening associated expectations of these workers and the primacy of their work role. For example, setting a meeting at office closing time with no regard of employees' commitments outside of work was not seen as problematic (Gupta, 2017). Furthermore,

some employers imposed this identity on their workers to maximise their commitment (Reid, 2015). Workers were expected to work overtime and always be available for work (Lott & Klenner, 2018).

However, wider societal, economic, cultural, and other trends led to increased questioning of how to reconcile the focus of work against other responsibilities that people have (Bothma, Lloyd, & Khapova, 2015). Individuals increasingly struggled to fit the ideal worker mould (Cech & O'Connor, 2017) and, as society advanced, there was a shift towards addressing the incongruence between work and other priorities in the form of seeking to establish WLB for workers that would also benefit employers and organisations.

Scholars report that WLB experiences have been largely premised on the ideal worker norm (Wilk, 2016) but this vision of the ideal worker has changed drastically since its inception. Initially, this ideal type was envisaged as a man with a stay-at-home wife and who devoted the focus of his energy on progressing up the career ladder. In their turn, employers viewed men as the ideal worker as their primary role as a 'breadwinner' (i.e., the main income earner for the household) revolved around work and their female partner who was expected to bear children as homemakers were responsible for all non-paid spheres of human endeavour (Brumley, 2018).

However, Major and Germano (2006) observed that, in general, women's participation in the labour force has increased steadily in many countries over time. Today, most of the United States of America's workforce comprises women while they form nearly half the workforce in NZ (Statistics New Zealand, 2018). Consequently, the 'new' ideal worker became a childless and single woman who shared the underlying principle of devotion to their paid work role (Hamilton, Gordon, & Whelan-Berry, 2006). Concomitantly, workplace policies reflected this philosophy and perpetuated the same norm. In their study, Barham, Gottlieb, and Kelloway (1998) found that managers' willingness to offer alternative working arrangements was influenced by employee characteristics such as job position, gender, and type of responsibility for dependents. Specifically, managers were less likely to grant alternative working conditions to male employees in management positions with eldercare responsibilities than to

female, non-managerial employees with child-care responsibilities. Moreover, when employees engaged in 'non-ideal' activities that took their focus off work, they were punished with lower performance evaluations (Fernandez-Mateo & Kaplan, 2019). Employers still held to the notion that ideal workers were those who appeared to be uninhibited by the pressures of their non-work lives.

When workforces diversified to include mothers, single fathers and both parents as workers, organisations needed to adapt to remain competitive. Furthermore, the emergence of new working arrangements such as teleworking conflicted with the ideal worker norm (Lott & Abendroth, 2020). However, while these technological advancements allowed for greater flexibility in working arrangements, the ideal worker norm still held but morphed to require that employees always be available to work (Worley & Gutierrez, 2020). Indeed, S. Lewis and Cooper (2005) found that flexibility of working time was introduced to extend operating hours or increase production intensity, among other matters. Regardless of the non-work responsibilities of their workers, work was still positioned as their sole priority.

However, in recent decades, in many countries, the employment sector has developed, providing avenues that support employees' pursuit of their various work and non-work roles. As individuals have started to value their mental well-being and sought to engage more actively in non-work roles, regardless of their dependent status and family structure, the vision of the ideal worker notion has started to crumble. Dumas and Sanchez-Burks (2015) insist that employees' capacity to navigate personal-professional boundaries is a fundamental life concern, and can involve different priorities and concerns, including reducing stress, advancing a career, minimising role conflict, or maintaining workplace performance (Dumas & Sanchez-Burks, 2015). Thus, the underlying assumption of the ideal worker notion is its basis on the expectations of the employer. Modern employees now seek to balance the competing demands of their work and non-work lives. The onus on WLB has been shifted somewhat onto organisations in terms of their needing to function as an 'ideal workplace' for employees (S & S.N, 2020).

The new ideal organisation is thus defined as one that acknowledges the needs of employees in all areas of their life and then seeks to adapt to accommodate those needs (Worley & Gutierrez, 2020). The role that an organisation plays in ensuring that the ideal worker norm is not reinforced is critical. For example, in an ideal worker environment, employees have been reluctant to partake in part-time or parental leave provisions as they perceive that this will impact negatively on their careers (J. C. Williams, Blair-Loy, & Berdahl, 2013). This perception has typically been more pronounced for men than women, and those in higher positions, as these, are the workers upon whom employers centre their ideal worker expectations.

However, although several organisations have sought to offer practices that go against ideal worker norms (Gray, De Haan, & Bonneywell, 2019), if their use is not encouraged by managers, then they cannot be effective (Russo & Morandin, 2019). It also causes an inherent conflict between employees' other roles. For example, an ideal worker may not conform to the norm of the ideal mother (Lott & Klenner, 2018), affecting their perception in terms of their WLB. Thus, the norms surrounding the ideal worker type are inconsistent with the increased emphasis on and variations of balance that individuals seek to reflect their diverse characteristics and circumstances, and which some organisational practices now seek to encourage. The expectation of constant availability, for instance, cannot be reconciled with new norms involving the encouragement of fathers to take parental leave (Blithe, 2015). Additionally, even when they are encouraged to take time off if ideal worker norms are not challenged, organisational interventions can set unrealistic expectations among employees and managers. For example, Lott and Chung (2016) noted that men are expected to use flexible working options to enhance their performance or increase their work intensity which can still have negative associations with WLB. Haas and Hwang (2019) further corroborated that, when men took parental leave in Sweden, they generally did so at the convenience of their employer rather than to progress towards their conception of WLB.

It has thus become increasingly clear that the assumption that the ideal worker has no family commitments need to be rectified (Ryan & Kossek, 2008). Some assert that there should be no expectation of employees to share their time and energy equally across the different domains of their

life. Balance is more about the satisfaction experienced with the level of involvement in the multiple areas of one's life (Lazar, Osoian, & Ratiu, 2010), highlighting its relativist and thus potential diversity. The cumulative effect of participation in multiple domains is more important than an arbitrary or mandated division or separation between work and non-work. Indeed, a study by Microsoft found that WLB was considered by employees to be one of the most significant aspects of their job (Stark, 2017). Furthermore, the provision of 'optimal' WLB practices has become an organisational priority as younger workers and an ageing population seek greater flexibility in their work arrangements. Indeed, for some, the attractiveness of these practices is sometimes a determining factor in choosing an employer (Drew, Humphreys, & Murphy, 2003), suggesting that organisations that want to attract a competent workforce needs to invest in this. Additionally, a more diverse workforce almost dictates that the practices are not the same. The ratio of female workers was discovered to be a critical factor affecting WLB practices in public sector organisations (den Dulk & Groeneveld, 2013).

Another pressing matter is how more flexible options can sometimes reinforce worker norms if more fundamental changes in ideology are not addressed. With the increased accessibility to workers through various technologies, employers run the risk of assuming or ignoring the fact that their employees do not have non-work responsibilities and should be always available to work (Cañibano, 2019). Increased availability also affects workers as they may feel pressured to respond to work demands even outside of their regular schedules. This paradox makes it essential to explore various employee and workplace dynamics and the assumptions that underpin conceptions of what constitutes effective WLB that takes account of employee diversity.

2.3.1   Significance of Work-Life Balance

In investigating retention strategies in the hospitality industry, Deery and Jago (2015) asserted that a lack of sufficient WLB practices in organisations aggravates employee stress and burnout and can lead to substance abuse. However, research indicates that, when employees perceive balance, they experience positive impacts on their well-being and satisfaction (Grzywacz, 2000). They experience

positive influences in their psychological welfare that translates into organisational performance (Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). WLB has piqued the interest of many employers as they recognise that those workers who are not able to maintain an equilibrium between their work and non-work-life experience can deliver impaired performance in the workplace (Abendroth & den Dulk, 2011), among others. Furthermore, WLB is a fundamental factor in how the organisational context can affect the health and well-being of individuals (Binnewies, 2016). T. D. Allen, Herst, Bruck, and Sutton (2000) classified the different outcomes of WLB under work-related, non-work-related and stress-related.

Significantly, WLB is also often used as a deciding factor by individuals when they are looking for employment. Deery, Jago, Harris, and Liburd (2018) highlight that WLB is critical in attracting, motivating, and retaining talented employees. Similarly, Sirgy and Lee (2018) conclude that having WLB initiatives in the company results in desirable outcomes. When employees are not catered to in terms of WLB, they may begin to withdraw from the organisation, with Berry, Lelchook, and Clark (2012) defining withdrawal behaviour as when employees physically remove themselves from the organisation. This can be through being late, absent, or leaving work early. Deery and Jago (2015) explained that this happens when the amount of time in one role interferes with time in another, and the employee may, for example, decide to leave work early to meet non-work commitments (Koslowsky, 2000). Additionally, employees who experience imbalance may seek employment with a more family- or time-friendly organisation (O'Driscoll, Brough, & Haar, 2011). However, when WLB practices were instituted in a workplace, employees' quitting intentions and absenteeism were reduced (Sirgy & Lee, 2018).

WLB has always been a concern of those interested in the quality of working life and its relation to the broader quality of life (Guest, 2002b). There are significant costs for employees' family lives. For example, conflicts between work-life and personal life are broad, though unequally, felt (Jacobs & Gerson, 2004; Schieman, Glavin, & Milkie, 2009). One study in the US reported that 53 per cent of employed parents said that balancing work and family was somewhat or very difficult, while 31 per cent of married, working adults without children under 18 also reported difficulties (K. Parker & Wang,

2013). This difficulty is fuelled by job stress, health, and child-care, which are leading causes of absenteeism and have a tangible cost approximated at $500 to $2,000 per employee per year. Hyman and Summers (2004) study on work-life employment practices and policies across financial sectors in the UK reported: adoption issues; lack of formalisation; restricted employee voice; meeting business needs than employees; no reductions in working hours; direct and indirect work intrusions into domestic responsibilities. As a result, many employees in the financial sector continue to face difficulty in reconciling their work, life, and domestic responsibilities.

Workers' perceptions of WLB are essential for their productivity; a study that measured the productivity level of IBM employees who engaged in telework versus 'traditional' workers who work in the organisational setting found that the former viewed themselves as more productive because of this form of workplace (location) flexibility (Hill, Miller, Weiner, & Colihan, 1998). Satisfaction with WLB practices is thus seen to activate (better) job performance (Wayne, Butts, Casper, & Allen, 2017). Beatty (1996) even theorised those employees who perceive negative experiences of balance are likely to engage in negative behaviours such as alcohol abuse to cope. However, these perceptions can be shaped. Organisations can communicate positively in this respect through various means with the practices they offer, the language used in the workplace and even the demographics of their workforce. These elements signal to employees whether the organisation is supportive or not in terms of WLB, and organisations can leverage this to maintain a healthy and productive workforce. Indeed, employees perceive WLB practices as signs that the organisation cares (Kaya & Karatepe, 2020).

2.4   Perceived Organisational Support and Work-Life Balance

Newman, Thanacoody, and Hui (2012) described POS as a concept that integrates and extends a social exchange approach between employees and their employer. Karatepe (2012) found if employees POS, they reciprocated by being more loyal to employers. Researchers examining POS and work-family conflict have found a relationship between the two concepts (Karatepe, 2012). The emphasis that organisations place on work-life initiatives is not always consistent across organisations, and

organisational culture is a key unit of analysis when considering WLB (Guest, 2002a). In some non-Scandinavian European nations, the responsibility for WLB support is placed on the individual employee (Abendroth & den Dulk, 2011); this burden is difficult to bear if the individual does not have the right or an adequate support system. However, some employers are increasingly interested in creating the 'right' environments to foster their employees' WLB (Wood, Oh, Park, & Kim, 2020). Indeed, the role of the organisation might be regarded as paramount for the successful implementation of any initiatives.

The presence of work-life programmes signals a level of consideration for the employee's (existing and potential) needs (Carless & Wintle, 2007). However, the mere presence of organisational policies does not have a significant association with the levels of work-family conflict or psychological strain (O'Driscoll et al., 2003). Zacharias (2005) argued that, since WLB policies tend to be embedded in an organisation's culture in a way that re-enforces existing societal norms, such practices tend to favour those that conform to traditional and stereotypical expectations. T. D. Allen (2001) noted that while family-friendly benefits can help employees manage multiple roles, these are ineffective if they are not accompanied by supportive organisational norms. Even more alarming, a large portion of employees who would benefit from using work-life initiatives do not use them (Bourdeau, Ollier-Malaterre, & Houlfort, 2019). To explain the low uptake of WLB policies, P. McDonald, Brown, and Bradley (2005) focused on five dimensions that made up the work-life culture; managerial support, perceptions of career consequences, organisational time expectations, gendered nature of policy utilisation and co-worker support. Although the model that they proposed was not validated, they emphasised that these five dimensions would be useful in addressing the utilisation gap of WLB policies, both within and across organisations.

However, the decision to implement WLB policies in an organisation does not imply that its employees automatically use them (Galea, Houkes, & De Rijk, 2014). This is because formal policies and programmes are not sufficient to create a family-work environment, that is, a climate compatible with family and personal life (Poelmans et al., 2005). Hence, the provision of WLB practices is not sufficient

to improve employee attitudes towards the organisation (T. D. Allen, 2001; Behson, 2002). The organisational culture plays a significant role. The term organisational culture can be defined as the shared perceptions of organisational work practices (Van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004) and is related to the interaction between employees with certain preferences. Studies emphasise the importance of organisational culture for WLB and the higher commitment of employees to an organisation when the culture is supporting WLB (Maxwell, 2005). Within a high performing culture employees often make no use of offered WLB practices because they are afraid of a potentially negative impact on their career (Correll, Kelly, O'Connor, & Williams, 2014). When employees perceive that within their working environment the organisational culture is not supportive, then flexible work arrangements can be available but are not used (J. Smith & Gardner, 2007). Therefore, the presence of a supportive culture for the WLB in the organisation is necessary.

The WLB supportive culture (WLBSC) is defined in the literature as the 'shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organisation supports and values the integration of employees' work and family lives (C. A. Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). The norms and regulations form the required context; they send out signals to employees that are interpreted as the organisation's priorities, which in turn affect how employees interact with the policies. For example, an organisation that requires employees to sign in and out in the office signals that it values the physical presence, and employees may interpret that they may be deemed unproductive if they are not seen and may be reluctant to take up off-site working arrangements, even if they are available. Moreover, the effect of WLBSC on employee outcomes is stronger than the impact of the availability of WLB practices (Behson, 2002; Poelmans et al., 2008). T. D. Allen (2001) specified that the availability of WLB practices alone has an irrelevant impact on job attitudes, highlighting the important role of WLBSC. Moreover, recent studies have found that having a supportive WLB culture is associated with lower work-family conflict (Talukder, 2019). According to Duncan and Pettigrew (2012), in organisations that offer family-friendly policies, which are not federally mandated, employees will perceive both that they are privileged and that their employer cares about them. Feeney and Stritch

(2019) indicated that family-friendly policies and a culture of family support on WLB are fundamental variables for generating a healthy work climate.

Researchers should consider a supportive work-life culture as a mechanism to integrate responsibilities in both work and life in a balanced manner (Crain & Hammer, 2013). When organisations invest in their employees, through support, this triggers the social exchange dynamic and employees are more eager to engage in this relationship (Kossek, Ruderman, Braddy, & Hannum, 2012). Employees may feel obliged to remain in organisations when they perceive positive relations from a social exchange perspective (Ferrero, Michael Hoffman, & McNulty, 2014). Organisations can display a commitment to the well-being of their employees by offering informal work-family support (Ferrero et al., 2014). This support, in turn, causes the employee to respond with loyalty toward the organisation by increasing their job satisfaction and reducing turnover intention (Kossek & Lautsch, 2012). In general, informal organisational supports such as job autonomy and increased growth opportunities provide resources that create positive effects, which effectively enable employees to manage the basic demands of work and life (Hammer, Van Dyck, & Ellis, 2013). Hammer et al. (2013) noted that informal organisational supports yielded increased job satisfaction, and commitment, while reducing work-family conflict and turnover intention, which is consistent with the social exchange perspective.

Thus, the culture of the organisation has a great impact on the use of WLB initiatives by employees (Senarathne Tennakoon, 2020). If the organisation's culture is not supportive of work-life flexibility, employees may feel pressured to conform to ideal worker norms (Wilk, 2016). Ten Brummelhuis and van der Lippe (2010) stated that a family-friendly culture has positive impacts, specifically for employees who are parents. POS provides an indicator of the workplace culture and may serve as a barometer of use to employees when evaluating WLB policies in place. When the workplace culture does not complement the policies in place, even well-intentioned policies will prove, at best, ineffective and at worst, detrimental to working conditions. Alternatively, Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch (1997) noted that, where the actions of the organisation are deliberate and focus on addressing the employee's needs, individuals held a more positive view and POS was rated higher. Peeters, Wattez,

Demerouti, and de Regt (2009) concluded that organisations were required to foster a culture that encouraged the use of work-family arrangements to yield benefits to employees. They elaborated that a supportive environment allows employees to perceive less work-family conflict and more work-family enrichment. C. P. Parker et al. (2003) identified that the psychological climate, as defined by an individual's perception of their work environment, is significantly related to work attitudes and performance. Lembrechts, Dekocker, Zanoni, and Pulignano (2015) determined that, while the use of work-family policies does not reduce work-family conflict, organisational support in the absence of overtime does. They concluded that the policies themselves are not considered a resource for addressing work-family conflict, but rather the perceived accessibility that represented a resource. Individuals form concrete opinions through their subjective interpretation; as Linde (2015) noted, it is this interpretation that leads to a reaction, whether in psychological, behavioural, or physiological terms. This leads to the rationale of why this research focuses on the perception aspect of the measures used.

H. Brown, Ji Sung, and Faerman (2021) conducted in-depth interviews with professional women in the US and Korea to examine their perception of the influence of culture on their use of WLB programs. They noted that, while there is considerable recent literature that looks at work-family specific organisation support on work-family conflict, there is little on aspects that are not specifically related to work-family supportiveness but might still influence employee's perceptions on balance. Their study found that the women did not believe that balance was achievable through the programs and therefore, they did not use them. They further stressed that further research on organisational culture was needed. Given this, and that most research around this area is conducted in the US or European nations, providing a NZ based context could provide some insight into the role that organisational culture plays in relation to WLB.

POS is based on the premise that employees view organisations as human, with any actions taken by agents of the organisation as indicators of the organisation's intent versus the motives of the individual actor. Based on this personification, any actions are translated to mean the extent to which the organisation values the contribution of the employee. Appelbaum et al. (2004) noted that employees

form subjective perceptions of organisations based on concepts to do with culture, and these perceptions form an organisation's 'personality'. Efforts made by the organisation can shape the workplace into a more appealing environment in the eyes of its workforce merely by focusing on the perceptions of the employees. A supportive environment that leads to the perception of balance will portray the message that the organisation is trustworthy and that employees are not at risk of being taken advantage of, in turn enabling them to expend more energy in their work. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive significant relationship between POS and WLB.

2.5 Job and Organisation Engagement and Work-Life Balance

EE has garnered considerable interest in both organisational and academic environments (Albrecht, 2010). However, much like the debate surrounding the definition of WLB, there have been discussions about the definition of engagement. In the original conceptualisation of engagement, W. A. Kahn (1990) proposed that when individuals are engaged, they integrate all aspects (cognitive, emotional, and physical) to the workplace and vice versa. This promotes a sense of balance in the workplace. Although several definitions are in use, Albrecht (2010) noted that each of them encompasses two qualities: a positive work-related motivational state, and a genuine eagerness to contribute to work role and organisational success.

In reviewing 213 articles, Shuck (2011) identified four different approaches to EE. The needs-satisfying approach (W. A. Kahn, 1990) views engagement through the physical, mental, and emotional behaviour of employees during role performance; engagement is defined as one immersing themself into their work roles in these regards. The burnout antithesis approach (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001) views engagement as the opposite of burnout. They conceptualised that, low ratings on the exhaustion and cynicism areas suggest high levels of energy and meaningful involvement while high ratings relate to burnout. The satisfaction engagement approach focuses on an employee's enthusiasm for work that leads to positive work outcomes (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002). The multi-dimensional approach (Saks, 2006) is like Khan's concept highlighting the cognitive, emotional, and physical components.

Saks (2006, p. 602) defined engagement as "consisting of cognitive, emotional and behavioural components that are associated with individual role performance." This definition is unique to Khan's (1990) theory in that it offers a distinction between job and organisation engagement. Although Schaufeli (2012) noted that this definition is rarely utilised in research, it provides a way to address whether employees would experience the two types of engagement differently. Saks (2006) asserted that this conceptualisation of the term can account for why employees respond with varying degrees of engagement. Saks (2006) applied SET and provided a more in-depth explanation of engagement. The importance of social exchanges, both formal and informal, was seen to play a critical role in how engagement was experienced. Therefore, Macey and Schneider (2008) noticed that, while definitions may differ, their commonality is that engagement is a desirable condition.

It is widely accepted that engaged employees are highly valuable and desirable by organisations (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). Conversely, disengagement leads to workers' lack of work commitment and motivation (May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004). Kahn (1990) proposed that EE is a psychological state of being physically, emotionally, and cognitively present during the moments of task performance. That is, individuals who are engaged in a particular moment, become cognitively vigilant of the environment, emotionally connected to others, and physically involved in their tasks and roles. Therefore, engaged individuals are likely to not only perform well on the tasks, but also to be aware of the potential consequences of their behaviours. Rich, Lepine, and Crawford (2010) found that employees who are attentive and focus while performing work-related tasks are more likely to produce quality work outcomes and make fewer mistakes.

When individuals are engaged, they are likely more dedicated to their task behaviours and thus more likely to perform better, resulting in improved productivity and mental well-being. Research has found connections between engagement and health, showing a positive relation between work engagement and good health outcomes (Freeney & Fellenz, 2013; Sonnentag, Mojza, Binnewies, & Scholl, 2008). However, there are ways in which too much engagement may not be beneficial. Mackay, Allen, and Landis (2017) noted that engagement and burnout are diametric opposites of a single dimension. They

elaborate that an individual can sustain high levels of engagement only if the resources they receive outweigh the demands. High-intensity working is a behaviour shared by addicted and engaged workers, due to the tendencies of both to go beyond the demands of the job and exceed the usual working day limits set by their organisations or superiors (Di Stefano & Gaudiino, 2019). This can have an impact on the WLB of those employees. However, as Cole, Walter, Bedeian, and O'Boyle (2012) caution that not all research supports this assertion due to the variations in how the concept is measured and defined across different studies. Interestingly, research also suggests prolonged high levels of EE are rare (Sonnentag, 2003).

SET argues that a series of interactions between people or parties can create obligations (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Over time, relationships become trusting and mutual when all parties involved follow rules of reciprocity. Macey, Schneider, Barbera, and Young (2009) theorised those employees who perceive that the systems and structures in place in organisations are fair will develop higher trust for the organisation and will therefore be more willing to immerse themselves in their work. Chughtai and Buckley (2013) collected data from 170 research scientists in Ireland to study the role of trust in building work engagement. They found that employees who trusted their top management felt more engaged as they identified more with the organisation and felt obliged to reciprocate positively whereas when employees trusted their team members, it led to an increase in their work engagement because they felt psychologically safe. Several scholars suggest that trust is an essential aspect of all relationships, including employment ones (Cowart, Gilley, Avery, & Barber, 2014). Therefore, employees who trust their employers are more likely to experience balance in a way that they perceive that the organisation has their best interests in mind. In their study, van der Berg and Martins (2013) identified a positive relationship between organisational trust and quality of work-life. Engaged employees experience enthusiasm which spills into the life sphere (Cain et al., 2018), promoting a greater sense of satisfaction between the different roles. There are various other studies, which have used the social exchange perspective to explain the antecedents of engagement. For instance, Jose (2012) assert that satisfaction with HRM practices is one of the drivers of EE although there is a lack

of literature examining the relationship between HR practices and work engagement. Similarly, Alfes, Shantz, Truss, and Soane (2013) found that the perception of HRM practices had an impact on the work engagement levels of employees.

Empirical research has suggested that homeworking (a WLB initiative) may have a positive relationship with EE (D. Anderson & Kelliher, 2009). In their mixed method study, D. Anderson and Kelliher (2009) found that flexible workers (who include homeworkers) were likely to be more engaged than non-flexible workers, as they reported higher levels of organisational commitment, job satisfaction and organisational citizenship behaviour than non-flexible workers. Having a choice over their working pattern and feeling the support and trust of their employer, who allowed their individual needs to be accommodated, are some of the factors that explained the referred positive outcomes of flexible working. However, there is contrasting evidence that shows a negative relationship between homeworking and EE, mediated by increased isolation (R. Davis & Cates, 2013; Sardeshmukh, Sharma, & Golden, 2012). As R. Davis and Cates (2013) contend, social relationships drive human motivation and if the social need is impeded, perceptions of isolation will emerge, which can negatively influence engagement among homeworkers.

Regarding outcomes from a social exchange perspective, Saks' (2006) study demonstrates that engaged individuals are more likely to be a part of activities not formally required by the organisation. Christian, Garza, and Slaughter (2011) argue that engaged employees do so because they efficiently conduct task performance and thus deploy free resources in contextual performance. Another reason could be that engaged employees do not differentiate between task and contextual performance and consider every role as part of their work domain (Christian et al., 2011). In addition to that, Saks (2006) also found job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and intentions to quit as important outcomes of work engagement. Similarly, Alfes et al. (2013) found that work engagement led to greater organisational citizenship behaviour and lower turnover intentions, but this relationship was moderated by POS and relationship with one's supervisor. However, Halbesleben, Harvey, and Bolino (2009) study highlights that people who are highly engaged and involve themselves in organisational citizenship behaviours

experience a higher work interference with family, although this interference was less for highly conscientious individuals. In contrast, Culbertson, Fullagar, and Mills (2012) study suggests that positive experiences at work (such as work engagement) have the effect of enriching one's home-life and work-life further, enhancing the perception of WLB. There is a lack of research that uses engagement as an antecedent to WLB; however, intuitively the rationale provided by Culbertson et al. (2012) is an area worth exploring.

The concept of EE encompasses both the self and organisational dimensions of the construct. Engaged employees are characterised by their tendency to exert high levels of energy while performing their daily tasks and display proactive behaviours that help in achieving organisational objectives (Kuntz & Roberts, 2014). Therefore, this research used the concepts of job and organisation engagement to investigate the impact of the two separately on WLB as follows:

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant positive relationship between job engagement and WLB; and

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant positive relationship between organisation engagement and WLB.

2.6   The Psychological Contract

A review of the literature revealed that the notion of the PC is central to considerations of WLB. Rousseau (1995) defined the PC as an individual's belief about the terms of the relationship between the organisation and the individual. In a conceptual paper, P. McDonald et al. (2005) illustrated that knowledge about employee preferences for work-life benefits can aid the development of effective WLB initiatives. It will determine the importance they attribute to the policies; employees who do not regard policies are valuable to them personally are less likely to be impacted positively by their use. Indeed, policies that might enable a single-parent to balance their family and work-life may be very different to those seen to be of significance by a dual-career couple with no dependent responsibilities or a young male worker striving for career advancement. Additionally, PCs have been found to minimise insecurities and predict future exchanges (Eyoun, Chen, Ayoun, & Khliefat, 2020); therefore,

it is critical to understand the content of such contracts. Ten Brummelhuis and van der Lippe (2010) initially posited that, given that employees with differing household structures have different responsibilities as well as different levels of support, the policies that will support their lifestyle are likely to be different. Thus, Spector (2017) encourages the use of 'cafeteria benefits' programmes that allow the organisation to tailor offerings to employee needs. Managing employees' expectations is an essential issue for organisational performance (Kutaula, Gillani, & Budhwar, 2020). This allows the individual to select benefits from a list of options; this can be applied to WLB policies, ensuring that employees make selections in which they are invested and that will be effective in promoting balance in their lives. In relation to SET, this would allow employees to value the reward and to participate positively in the relationship with their employer.

There are various forms that the PC can take, but they are largely categorised in terms of the extent to which they are either transactional or relational. Transactional relationships are characterised by limited, short-term monetary obligations while relational contracts focus on long-term socio-emotional obligations. In a meta-analysis that consisted of 52 studies, Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, and Bravo (2007) described people's initial employment relationship as an economic transaction, and therefore the transactional nature of the PC was an essential and baseline expectation of employers. They further noted that any relational expectations would be viewed as extra benefits, implying that employees under this type of contract are more likely to rationalise in favour of the organisation if these needs are not met. Although their findings focused on breach of these contract types, they found that transactional breaches had a larger effect on organisational commitment than relational breaches. They rationalised that, given that transactional elements such as pay are made explicit in the written contract, transactional contract breach is less likely. They failed to incorporate employees that already have existing contracts, and whether the assumption that a transactional relationship is the base would still apply. This would allow for a comparison to be made between new and existing employees, and how the organisation can cater to each group.

Furthermore, WLB research has largely ignored the concept of individual differences in its conceptualisations of how policies can impact organisational outcomes. Thomas, Ravlin, Liao, Morrell, and Au (2016) pointed out that there is a need for organisations to consider that employees with different value orientations may engage differently with what is offered. They discovered that collectivist orientations influence the formation of relational PCs. However, other authors such as Yuile, Chang, Gudmundsson, and Sawang (2012) acknowledged the need for organisations to cater to the needs of the employees yet have failed to provide a means of deciphering these needs. The PC provides a framework for this possibility; it describes the expectations that an individual has in terms of the employment relationship. Based on SET, PC perceptions allude to their views, cultivated by organisations, regarding the implicit reciprocal obligations that form the employment relationship (Alcover, Rico, Turnley, & Bolino, 2017).

For their part, L. S. Lambert, Edwards, and Cable (2003) described the type/content of PC as a determinant of both organisational success and the well-being of the employee. Therefore, it is essential for employers to understand the terms that form the PC of the employee. While some such as Curwen (2016) attribute a lack of security and trust to employees seeking a more transactional contract, others such as Lester, Claire, and Kickul (2001) mentioned that the change reflects an emphasis of a broader sense of self-fulfilment. Additionally, Coyle-Shapiro and Parzefall (2008) concluded that the type of PC matters in terms of determining the nature of resources to be exchanged. As the PC is a subjective concept, organisations that offer the same contract to individuals will not be perceived in the same way as individual would have a different mental model of the relationship (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2010). Knowledge of employee preferences allows organisations to gain a better understanding of the mutual needs of the employee (Low, Bordia, & Bordia, 2016). Therefore, it would be helpful to identify the prominence of each type of PC in such a diverse environment to assume the type of policies suited for specific individuals.

The role of the self and individual differences is not generally included in work-family research (V. A. Parker & Hall, 1992). WLB is in the centre of both transactional and relational contracts since work is

generally taken to mean 'paid employment' and life means 'activities outside the workplace' (Sun, Xu, Köseoglu, & Okumus, 2020). The PC impacts on the exchange relationship as it reflects employee beliefs and the extent to which expectations are expected to be met (Birtch, Chiang, & Van Esch, 2016). Chernyak-Hai and Rabenu (2018) noted that various changes to the workplace have further complicated the effects of social exchanges in that certain exchanges can be perceived as good or bad depending on factors such as employment characteristics, personal goals, and so on. For example, employee expectations for more autonomy will require specific workplace conditions that can cater to that need. While they assert that the relationship is still largely based on a subjective cost-benefit analysis, changes to workplace conditions such as fewer interactions with the leader call for some adjustments to be made. Universal exchange relationships may provide counterproductive results. These changes can be analysed using the PC.

Hyatt and Coslor (2018) conducted an experiment in the United States within a municipal government where the workforce of approximately 6,000 full time employees were required to undertake a compressed workweek. This was a mandatory pilot program where they were required to work a 4/10 schedule and no deviations from this schedule were allowed. The results from this experiment suggested that employer-imposed work schedules were not as effective as offering flexible forms of alternative work that the employee could undertake. This research highlighted the importance of employee control (Hyatt & Coslor, 2018), even when practices related to WLB were concerned. Kossek and Thompson (2016) noted that workplace flexibility can mean different things and have differing importance depending on the option being offered. They further acknowledged that employees have different expectations in relation to flexibility, and that how employees perceive these practices cause them to view flexible working arrangements as either structures that reinforce employer control over the worker or as a benefit to the work-life needs of the employee.

Eby et al. (2005) acknowledged that research in work and family ignored the possible psychological processes that are useful in theorising how the two spheres are linked. C. A. Thompson and Prottas (2006) sought to address this and examined how perceived control in areas such as job design related

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to employee and organisational outcomes and found that it mediated this relationship. They suggested that future research should seek to identify which interventions can enhance the perception of employee control as well as how organisations can maintain these perceptions of control. One way to accomplish this would be to ensure that employee expectations are met, thus increasing the perception of control of the employee.

Kossek and Lobel (1996) divided policies geared to supporting balance into four categories: flexible work and leave arrangements were classified as time-based, while employee assistance programmes as information-based. Money-based programmes included company discounts and college scholarships, and direct services comprised of legal counselling and on or near-site day care centres. From this list, it is evident that WLB policies take many forms, and are far more extensive than merely the flexible working arrangements on which much research has focused. Kossek and Lobel (1996) developed this list under the assumption that employee needs are varied and that, as individuals, they may have various commitments that contribute to their (preferred) lifestyle. Relational and transactional contracts correspond to the dynamics of social and economic exchange, with social exchanges focusing on relational exchanges and economic exchanges on transactional contracts (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). D. J. McDonald and Makin (2000) further asserted that PCs will likely contain both transactional and relational elements. Looking at the categorisation, it becomes easier to place work-life programmes on a PC continuum, with money-based benefits lying closer to the transactional side and information-based on the opposite end, closer to the relational side. Therefore, classifying employee PCs into these two categories serves little purpose; however, acknowledging that the varying weights can still provide considerable results.

Indeed, Schalk and Roe (2007) explained that any actions taken by the organisation are evaluated using the lens of the current PC, and any perceptions of deviance or discrepancies are addressed by the employee taking the corresponding corrective action. Therefore, if an employee favours transactional aspects more, then an increase in responsibilities with a subsequent increase in pay may not yield the expected positive outcomes. Additionally, just as Blomme, Sok, Van Rheede, and Tromp (2013) found

that women form partly different PCs with organisations than do men, it would also be interesting to see whether employees in different occupations are likely to vary in this regard because of the nature of the work. This would allow practitioners in certain professions to determine the types of policies that would prove effective in terms of promoting balance for their employees. The content most prevalent in many operationalisations of the PC that does not rely on a rigid separation are five dimensions: job content, career development, financial rewards, social atmosphere, and respect for private life (Freese, Schalk, & Croon, 2011). The PC that many employees have now with their employers are vastly different from those in earlier years (Knapp, Dougan, & Diehl, 2020). Employees originally only expected financial remuneration and job security from their employer, while employers expected loyalty and full commitment to the job (van der Smissen, Schalk, & Freese, 2013). Currently, these are relics of an employment contract and there is more investment required on both parties to maintain the relationship. Rousseau and Schalk (2000) noted that culture in different countries can affect the type of PC obligations; and since research using this classification of PC dimensions and their effect on WLB is scarce in NZ, this study offers a contribution in that area. Jhatial, Jamali, Chandio, and Banbhan (2018) further found that employers' inducements, conceptualised as career development, job content, social atmosphere, and financial rewards, have a significant impact on WLB. However, in their study, they grouped these inducements together without investigating the effect that each of the categories has on WLB. This would allow researchers to identify whether the different categories produce different outcomes and make connections between the types of inducements to offer. In general, research around employee expectations as measured by the PC on the five dimensions described by Freese et al. (2011) and their impact on WLB is scarce. The following sections will seek to address this.

2.6.1   Psychological Contract - Career Development

One of the PC dimensions is career development which includes the opportunities to progress within the organisation (De Vos, Buyens, & Schalk, 2005). While traditional approaches to career development saw many individuals employed in one organisation for the duration of their working life, this has

become a rarity. As employee expectations have shifted, along with their ability and access to different employment options, organisations have needed to contend with a new element of career development. De Hauw and De Vos (2010) termed careerism as workers' strategy to change organisations quickly to progress. This affects the expectations that employees have of their organisation. This is especially true for younger workers in the UK who view the idea of a boundaryless career as more appealing (Tomlinson, 2007) as it provides them with the opportunity to have their needs met by another organisation. With this advancement, it is important that organisations manage career development expectations.

Woods (1993) noted that most elements of human resource such as performance management and job descriptions focus on the expectations of the company. He proposed viewing the employee as a customer with their own expectations. Career concerns relate to their career development needs for getting established and making progress in a job and adapting to changing work and employment market conditions, which involves sustaining their employability and marketability through upskilling and career advancement and finding meaningful WLB based on changing needs (Coetzee, Ferreira, & Shunmugum, 2017); Tallman and Bruning (2005) found that hospitals had major difficulties in retaining nurses because they did not meet their career development expectations. This aspect of the PC is therefore an essential component when weighing the pros and cons of the employment relationship.

There has been research on whether certain WLB practices impact career development; homeworking is one of those practices. Employees may feel that choosing to work from home signals to the organisation that they are not as committed to their work (McCloskey & Igbaria, 2003). The notion is that if they are not seen then they may be affected negatively in terms of career progression and growth. (McCloskey & Igbaria, 2003). This fear may also be related to professional isolation. When employees are not in the work environment, they may feel emotionally as well as physically isolated. These employees reported reduced access to informal development opportunities, informal learning and mentoring in a qualitative study with employees working in the private and public sectors (C. D. Cooper & Kurland, 2002). While there is research that suggests that the fear of missing out on promotions is

justified, (Heatherman & O'Rourke, 2013), this may not always be the case. Other research results indicate that this fear may be baseless (McCloskey & Igbaria, 2003). McCloskey and Igbaria (2003) conducted a study with 53 homeworker-supervisor pairs and 44 office-based homeworker-supervisor pairs from one large US organisation and did not find any differences between the two groups in terms of career opportunities.

The missing element in this line of inquiry is whether expectations that employees have in terms of career opportunities will impact their perception of WLB. It has been asserted that individuals associate their future career development expectations with the employer as soon as they join the organisation in line with their career aspirations and personal abilities (Woods, 1993). Based on the initial information they perceive; employees make an initial assessment of their career opportunities. They then engage in cognitive appraisals of their career development progress within the work environment and may see workplace conditions and practices as either challenging them to adjust to new expectations or as a hindrance to their career progress, which may give rise to specific career concerns (Potgieter, Ferreira, & Coetzee, 2018). Being cognisant of employees' concerns in terms of their career development could have an impact on their perceptions of their PC (Deas & Coetzee, 2020). In addition, Lin (2019) suggested a dual influence of career development expectation and organisational identification to understand why employees exhibit an intention to turnover. Expectations of career development signal that employees are optimistic about the future of their organisation. This can then allow them greater ease with engaging in initiatives that promote balance.

From this review, it is thus important to consider whether:

Hypothesis 4a: There is a positive significant relationship between the PC (career development) and WLB.

2.6.2   Psychological Contract - Job Content

Job content refers to whether the organisation provides the employee with the option to make decisions and engage in challenging and interesting work (De Vos et al., 2005). Job autonomy is the extent to

which employees have the freedom to decide on the processes used within their role (Johari, Yean Tan, & Tjik Zulkarnain, 2018). Autonomy is what allows employees to impact their job content. Walsh and Taylor (2007) used a more comprehensive definition of challenging work, including development opportunities and autonomy. Nurses that experienced high routinisation in job content, that is, they were not able to make changes, perceived lower levels of quality of working life in comparison to nurses that experienced low routinisation (Baba & Jamal, 1991). This implies that the ability to make decisions in terms of job content yields positive outcomes and vice versa. Furthermore, job characteristics seem to be an important predictor of perceived WLB because work characteristics are thought to determine an employee's freedom to negotiate between conflicting demands (Borah & Bagla, 2016). Vera, Martínez, Lorente, and Chambel (2016) note that job autonomy is an important resource that can help individuals accomplish their preferred level of WLB. For example, if an employee has the option to make decisions based on their schedule, they can allocate their time to accommodate their work and non-work responsibilities more efficiently (Boyar, Maertz, Mosley, & Carr, 2008).

In their attempt to research the differences in the PC and its relation to the intention to leave between highly educated male and female employees, Blomme, van Rheede, and Tromp (2010) discovered that of all the PC measures, job content appeared to be the most significant predictor of the intention to leave. Therefore, expectations within this dimension would be a good area to investigate in terms of WLB. However, research has shown mixed results with respect to these job characteristics. Hecht (2001) established in research on the potential sources of feelings of role conflict and overload that greater scheduling flexibility at work is positively associated with employee well-being. That is, those with greater control and autonomy over their schedules experienced greater well-being. Smola and Sutton (2002) also found that Generation Y individuals place high importance on autonomy and WLB. The younger groups tend to seek out opportunities that provide freedom and autonomy and may be prepared to leave the organisation if these expectations are not met (Cennamo & Gardner, 2011). Additionally, E. L. Kelly and Moen (2007) found that schedule control, that is, the discretion as to when, where and how much one works is an important solution to work-life conflicts. However, they

also acknowledged that this greater control could have the opposite effect, through excessive levels of work that comes with the ability to work wherever and whenever. Ten Brummelhuis and Bakker (2012) found that when employees have a supportive boss, job autonomy can lead to positive perceptions on the employee's sense of balance. Therefore, employees that are expectant in terms of their ability to make decisions and engage in challenging work (job content) will likely perceive WLB positively as well.

Hypothesis 4b: There is a positive significant relationship between the PC (job content) and WLB.

2.6.3   Psychological Contract - Social Atmosphere

Social atmosphere is concerned with the nature of the work environment (e.g., pleasant, cooperative) that an employer can seek to encourage (De Vos et al., 2005). This mostly relates to those who value relational aspects of the work than the material. They place social values and relationships in the work environment in high standing. The goal is to maintain positive relations and communication channels with other individuals in the workspace, from peers to supervisors. Cennamo and Gardner (2011) found that millennials appreciate a social atmosphere as well as cooperation between peers. However, Lub, Bal, Blomme, and Schalk (2016) noted that social atmosphere should be important to all generations in the workplace. Aspects related to good working environments and appreciation from both supervisors and colleagues can yield positive experiences for both older and younger employees. More recently, Magni and Manzoni (2020) identified that the importance of social atmosphere is similar across different generations.

De Vos and Meganck (2009) found that employees attach the most importance to social atmosphere, career development and job content. Caring work environments lead to higher employee satisfaction (Guidetti, Converso, Loera, & Viotti, 2018); creating a work environment that is enjoyable and where employees expect that they will maintain good connections is essential for satisfaction according to Ashraf (2019) who showed, in his study, that organisations can focus om supervisor cooperation in promoting deserving employees, and this would lead to positive attitudes towards these activities.

Farrell and Geist-Martin (2005) sought to understand employees' perceptions of wellness in their own work lives. They discovered that communing with supervisors made work more meaningful, and the expectation that an employee's social atmosphere is positive allows them to be more confident in communicating their needs in terms of WLB.

Interestingly, expectations about social atmosphere were less fulfilled in public sector organisations perhaps due to bureaucracy that limits the interaction between employees and supervisors (Willem, De Vos, & Buelens, 2010). Moreover, greater fulfilment of social atmosphere promises has been found to be associated with decreased intention to leave, this suggests the need for the management of expectations that these employees have in relation to good working relationships (Sheehan, Tham Tse, Holland, & Cooper, 2019). Co-workers also contribute to the creation of an acceptable social atmosphere (Reuschke, Clifton, & Fisher, 2021), and foster an environment where workers feel a sense of community. This can have compounding effects for balance, as peers can rely on each other. For example, one employee may be more willing to take time off if they are able to communicate their troubles with their peers and receive reassurance of their support.

Hypothesis 4c: There is a positive significant relationship between the PC (social atmosphere) and WLB.

2.6.4   Psychological Contract - Financial Rewards

Financial rewards refer to the provision of appropriate monetary compensation by an organisation (De Vos et al., 2005). While tangible rewards are no longer the only benefit that individuals seek, they are still a powerful motivator; indeed, millennials express high expectations over financial rewards (De Hauw & De Vos, 2010). Dries, Pepermans, and De Kerpel (2008) also acknowledged that while meaningful work is also essential, salary is still an important value that employees used to determine success. Striving for increased financial gain or progressing through a career ladder to a higher paying position is important for individuals who value career progression (De Vos, De Stobbeleir, & Meganck, 2009)

While workers tend to value multiple forms of reward, financial rewards are a more tangible and transactional nature than the other dimensions of the PC and therefore may relate slightly differently to a relational concept such as WLB. That is, the expectation of greater financial reward may cause employees to perceive a greater need to work longer hours or overwork to reciprocate accordingly. S. Lewis et al. (2007) conducted a study to stimulate a discussion around gender equity in relation to the challenges associated with combining paid work and other life domains. They used seven countries in their research (India, Japan, South Africa, the US, the Netherlands, Norway, and the UK) to include a diverse approach to work-life issues and countries at various economic stages. They reported that, in all the countries, individuals had the ability to make choices in the WLB discourse, however, some of these choices has unintended consequences. For example, for some while performance related pay produced financial rewards, it was produced pressure to work long and intensively.

It is thus important in this study to consider the following:

Hypothesis 4d: There is a negative significant relationship between the PC (financial rewards) and WLB.

2.6.5 Psychological Contract – Respect for Private Life

Respect for private life assumes that the employer can show concern and understanding for each employee's individual circumstances in relation to how they combine their work and non-work roles (De Vos et al., 2005). Indeed, work-life flexibility has become a more sought-after benefit in recent employment arrangements. While an organisation or employer's respect for their workers' private life covers areas like WLB, the two differ in that the former looks at expectation (as it is a PC dimension) while the latter focuses on the actual perception of balance. Employees who have high expectations in terms of this dimensions would likely have gathered this from their organisation's culture. The organisation is likely to have communicated this to them and therefore it is reasonable that their perception would match.

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Therefore, it can be anticipated that:

Hypothesis 4e: There is a positive significant relationship between the PC (respect for private life) and WLB.

2.6.6 Psychological Contract and Perceived Organisational Support

Organisational factors have an impact on the formation of the PC (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2010). An organisation's HRM practices reflect, influence, and reinforce the organisations values, norms and beliefs through careful recruitment, remuneration and retention policies. This will in turn affect the expectations that employees have of their employer. Individuals who feel that they benefit from the HR policies and practices (i.e., including training sessions, working conditions, compensation, and recognition received) probably believe in the sustainability of their organisation (De Vos et al., 2005). In seeking to understand the formation of PCs, Bordia, Bordia, Milkovitz, Shen, and Restubog (2019) noted that certain elements portrayed by the organisation such as organisational documents may signal certain promises thereby influencing expectations.

In line with this, when perceiving HR management as positive, professionals would tend to build beliefs according to which the organisation provides the required conditions for their professional development and growth, bringing about positive expectations regarding their careers (Vasconcellos & Neiva, 2016). Guchait, Cho, and Meurs (2015) argue that when employees feel that their supervisors, and ultimately their organisation, are supporting them, they are more prone to experience a fulfilled PC. A recent study by Kang, Gatling, and Kim (2015) established a significant positive relationship concerning supervisor support and career satisfaction, indicating that supportive supervisors strengthen the social exchange principle between employees and their organisation. For example, career opportunities as a retention practice allude to the extent to which an organisation provides progression in terms of career development (Ferreira & Potgieter, 2018); therefore, employees are likely to have high expectations in this regard. Employees' perceived strategic position within the organisation drives their expectations regarding provision of career appraisal and advice from the employer (Ahmad, Bilal Ahmad, & Hai,

2019). When employees have positive perceptions of HR policies, they have positive on the future of the organisation and thus their career expectations in the organisation (Vasconcellos & Neiva, 2016). They view regarding the reward and compensation that they receive from the employer as appreciation of their efforts (Yadav & Khanna, 2014). In their work, Aggarwal and Bhargava (2010) found that POS was a significant predictor of both relational and transactional PC.

This research aims to extend their work and examine how POS affects the five dimensions of the PC, that is:

Hypothesis 5a: There is a positive significant relationship between POS and the PC (career development).

Hypothesis 5b: There is a positive significant relationship between POS and the PC (job content).

Hypothesis 5c: There is a positive significant relationship between POS and the PC (social atmosphere).

Hypothesis 5d: There is a positive significant relationship between POS and the PC (financial rewards).

Hypothesis 5e: There is a positive significant relationship between POS and the PC (respect for private life).

2.6.7 Psychological Contract and Employee Engagement

Studies frequently view the PC as an antecedent of work engagement (A. S. Davis & Van der Heijden, 2018; Soares & Mosquera, 2019). However, as noted in this research, as well, these studies focus on the effects of breaches of the PC. Moore (2014) found that the PC is positively related to EE. Similarly, Arzoumanian (2018), in a study among bank employees, observed a strong correlation between the two constructs. Sharma and Garg (2017) note that engagement is a crucial element in the IT sector, with employees feeling attached to the organisation when they perceive a positive PC and are therefore empowered by it.

Engagement is the driver of outcomes connected with organisational success. The cyclical nature of SET implies that as employees take part in the exchange, the outcomes then become the drivers and vice versa, thereby developing the relationship. As the PC influences EE (including job and organisation engagement), increased EE then influences the PC in an iterative fashion. The dynamic nature of each of these constructs means that the relationship is a never-ending cycle, until the employee moves to another organisation and the cycle starts again.

It is thus timely to consider if:

Hypothesis 6: There is a positive significant relationship between job engagement and the PC; and

Hypothesis 7: There is a positive significant relationship between organisation engagement and the PC.

Figure 1 below provides a visual representation of the hypotheses proposed in this chapter in the form of a model.

Figure 1: Proposed Model of Relationship between Concepts
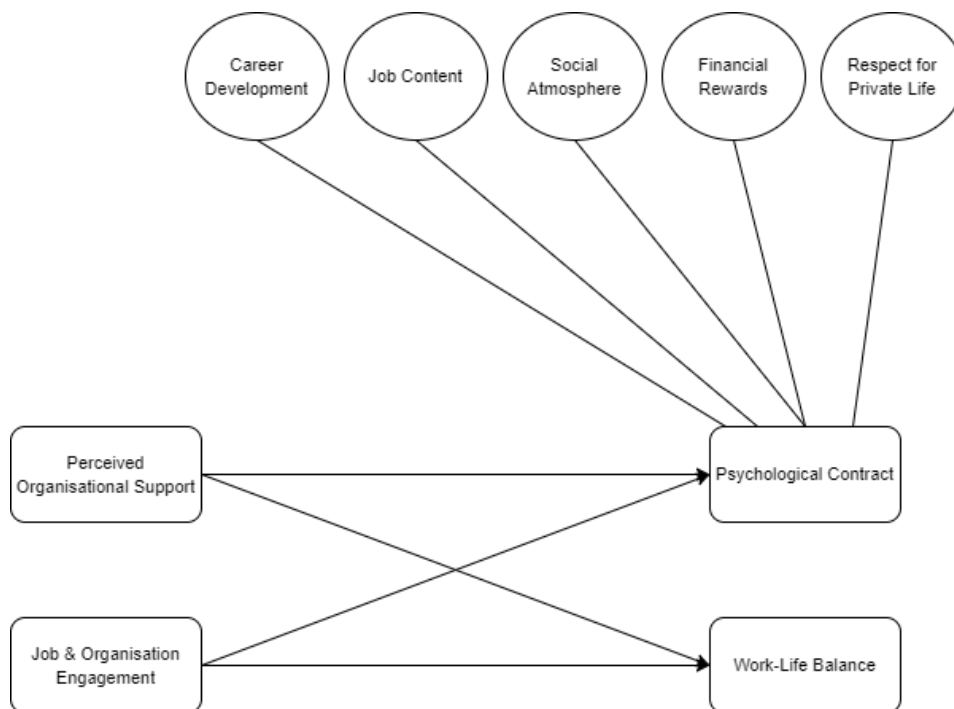
Table 2 presents a summary of the research questions and hypotheses developed for this study and which underpin the proposed model in Figure 1.

Table 2: Summary of Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Questions	Hypotheses
1. How does perceived organisational support, job and organisation engagement or the PC influence the employee's WLB?	Hypothesis 1: There is a positive significant relationship between POS and WLB.
	Hypothesis 2: There is a significant positive relationship between job engagement and WLB.
	Hypothesis 3: There is a significant positive relationship between organisation engagement and WLB.
2. What relationship does the psychological contract have with WLB?	Hypothesis 4a: There is a positive significant relationship between the PC (career development) and WLB.
	Hypothesis 4b: There is a positive significant relationship between the PC (job content) and WLB.
	Hypothesis 4c: There is a positive significant relationship between the PC (social atmosphere) and WLB.
	Hypothesis 4d: There is a negative significant relationship between the PC (financial rewards) and WLB.
	Hypothesis 4e: There is a positive significant relationship between the PC (respect for private life) and WLB.
3. How does perceived organisational support or job and organisation engagement influence the	Hypothesis 5: There is a positive significant relationship between POS and the PC.
	Hypothesis 6: There is a positive significant relationship between job engagement and the PC.

Research Questions	Hypotheses
psychological contract that employees have with their employers?	Hypothesis 7: There is a positive significant relationship between organisation engagement and the PC.

2.7   Chapter Summary

The emergence of WLB as a crucial organisational phenomenon has come about from several changes to the employment landscape that not only changed the characteristics of the labour market but also shaped the expectations that employees had of their employers. In seeking to understand these changes and their impact on balance, SET was used. This theory views the employment relationship as a social exchange where resources are exchanged to provide each participating party with mutual benefits. Employees will respond accordingly to employer actions and initiatives. In terms of this research, the focus was on the measures of POS, the PC and EE (as measured by job and organisation engagement).

Literature in the WLB field has not been consistent in terms of how the concepts is defined or measured, and as a result this has led to various conceptualisations of the term and for each a different measurement method. The lack of consistency in either of these areas has hindered the progress of the field as it has been difficult to provide a consensus in this area. This is equally relevant for engagement as well. The literature review also looked at the concept of POS, which is used to represent the culture of the organisation. The culture influences how employees perceive certain policies and practices, and this can be used in favour of or against the organisation. Practices that are not viewed as supportive, will result in negative reactions by the employer and in terms of balance, if the organisation is supportive then the employee has positive perceptions of balance. In terms of the PC, much of the research has focused on the breach or violation of the contract, at which point the damage may have already been done and it would be more difficult to restore the relationship. Focusing on the actual content of the PC allows one to anticipate the most relevant expectations and how those interact with WLB to provide

policies and practices that cater to specific needs. Using the five dimensions of the PC (career development, job content, social atmosphere, financial rewards, and respect for private life), the research hypothesised that each of these, except financial rewards, would have a positive relationship with WLB. Engagement was expected to have a similar positive relationship as well. Employees that are engaged are likely to have positive perceptions of WLB. These hypotheses will then be tested, to determine whether the empirical study supports the theoretical assumptions made.

The ensuing chapter outlines the methodology that was adopted for this research. The quantitative along with the supplementary qualitative analysis will be discussed.

CHAPTER 3 - METHODOLOGY

3.0   Introduction

Chapter 2 provided an extensive review of the extant literature on Work-Life Balance (WLB), Perceived Organisational Support (POS), Psychological Contract (PC) and Employee Engagement (EE), their relationship providing the focus of this research. The research focused on a quantitative approach that was supplemented by key informant interviews to add further analysis on the quantitative results. The research questions that guided the data collection are:

1. How does perceived organisational support, job and organisation engagement, the psychological contract influence the employee's work-life balance?
2. What relationship does the psychological contract have with work-life balance?
3. How does perceived organisational support, job and organisation engagement influence the psychological contract that employees have with their employers?

This chapter begins with a discussion on the ontological and epistemological considerations deemed appropriate for this research in Section 3.1. Section 3.2 presents a general overview of the methods, and Section 3.3 provides the quantitative research design. The characteristics of the sample used are also introduced. The chapter then discusses the data collection procedure. It also includes a description of the various scales used and the supplementary element included in the research design. The quantitative element of Structural Equation Modelling is discussed in Section 3.4, followed by the qualitative analysis presented in Section 3.5. The chapter then concludes with a discussion on the ethics matters considered and addressed before the research was undertaken in Section 3.6. A summary s provided in Section 3.7.

3.1   Research Philosophy

An understanding of the philosophical issues is useful for determining the research design as well as justifying the chosen research design. Key among these for consideration are ontology and epistemology. Researchers draw from differences in assumptions surrounding them to inform their methodological decisions. These form assumptions about how the world is and how it can be known (Hughes & Sharrock, 2014). Ontology is the core of a research paradigm, and most of the assumptions that are formed during the research process flow from this concept. Ontology deals with the nature of reality (Cassell, 2015). A relativist ontology assumes that different individuals may have different perspectives on a singular issue while the nominalist suggests that the labels attached to experiences are crucial. The second layer in philosophical considerations is epistemology which looks at the different ways of inquiring into the nature of the physical and social worlds (Killiam, 2013). The epistemological considerations dictate the choice of research methods to be applied (Symon & Cassell, 2012). Within this sphere, much debate surrounds positivist and social constructionist approaches. Positivism views that the social world exists externally, and its properties should be measured through objective measures. Social constructionism or interpretivism on the other hand maintains that reality is not objective but rather socially constructed and given meaning by people (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008).

3.1.1   Positivism

Positivism assumes that the observer is independent from the participants they are studying (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) and that ideas need to be defined so they can be measured. Research under positivism is conducted through hypotheses and deduction. Positivists believe that predictions can be made through the information about the links between the different factors. The expected outcome of this research is to verify the proposed model and the relationship of the variables involved, thus providing a guide for the implementation of policy and practices that can be used to address the issues related to WLB. The proposed model was designed to test the hypotheses stemming from existing SET. A deductive

approach (what has happened) is preferred under a positivist lens (Saunders et al., 2016). This view is appropriate for this research as it has relied on extant literature to form the basis of the model proposed. A positivist approach is ideal as it allows for replication of studies (Saunders et al., 2016) and therefore an advancement in the literature can be made through the replication of results. Swanson and Holton (2005) noted that positivist researchers seek out facts in terms of relationships among variables, employing quantitative measures to test and verify hypotheses. Babbie (2016) identified that more sophisticated positivism asserts that researchers can rationally understand even non-rational human behaviour. Positivism relies on quantifiable observations that lead to statistical analyses.

Critics of positivism (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) claim that such an assertion undermines the complexity of human behaviour. Indeed, it is impossible to include all the factors that may affect the various constructs in the study, and therefore at times when results are contrary to hypotheses, the exact causes are unknown. However, Schrag (1992) noted that focusing on the meaning and variability of human behaviour may not yield practical actions for improvement. He added that, for any research programme to enhance practice, it must contribute to some design strategy, conceptual framework, and way of thinking or practice for innovation. To do that, it must demonstrate superiority over the norm. To do so would likely require the use of data derived from experiments. To counter, Tsang (2017) pointed out that positivists are not limited to the use of quantitative methods, although it may be a preference.

There are several purposes for conducting research, and the specific purpose chosen contributes to determining the appropriate method to be used. Leavy (2017) introduced several purposes, including exploration, description, and explanation. Exploration is where a relatively new phenomenon is studied to gain information on the topic; description is when one wants to observe how the phenomenon behaves; and explanation is when one wants to understand why things are the way they are. Each purpose requires a different method to be used to achieve the objectives of the research. Exploratory studies can employ focus group interviews, descriptive studies can rely on informal interviews, while explanatory studies are better suited to using survey questionnaires. The objectives of this study seem to fit better with an explanatory approach, with the use of hypothesis testing. Hypothesis testing allows

the researcher to form tentative explanations for behaviour and then test those explanations with the chosen research method (Bordens & Abbott, 2018). The table below provides a summary of the positivism view.

Table 3: Summary of positivism paradigm adapted from Tsang (2017)

Philosophy	Ontology	Epistemology	Methodology
Positivism	Objective reality with causality as constant conjunction of events	Empirical testing and verification of theories using a deductive approach with aim of discovering law-life relationships with predictive power	Researcher is unbiased and tends toward quantitative methods

3.2   Quantitative and Qualitative Methods

Qualitative research is mostly focused on specific observations (Polit & Beck, 2010), which may provide some limiting implications in terms of generalisation. Positivist generalisation is described to have several characteristics, including that it offers insights that can be used in social practice (Berkovich, 2018). These are helpful as they allow researchers to provide feasible recommendations that bring order to social interactions (Payne & Williams, 2005).

While this research largely adopts a positivist mentality; it rejects the absolute conclusions drawn by choosing any research philosophy. A central outcome for positivist research is the ability to generalise the findings; to generalise is to assert that the results obtained at one place or time can be applied elsewhere or at another time (Payne & Williams, 2005). However, the notion that a researcher must decide between a philosophy that rejects all generalisation (interpretivism) and another that is dependent on generalisations is rather too simplistic (M. Williams, 2000). When using quantitative methods, researchers can establish relationships between variables, describe current situations and sometimes attempt to explain causal relationships between variables (Mertler, 2016).

Therefore, this research has utilised a robust quantitative research design, involving a national survey of NZ employees. In addition, qualitative interview-based inquiry was performed with key informants (a HR academic, a diversity expert, and a HR professional). This approach enables discussion and expansion of the survey results. This follows what is termed a sequential explanatory method, where quantitative data is collected and analysed followed using qualitative methods to interpret the results and promote generalisability (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Typically, in this approach, priority is given to the quantitative phase, followed by the qualitative phase to explore the statistical results (Ivankova, Creswell, & Stick, 2006). This method compounds the benefits of collecting two types of information and allows the researcher to gain insights that might not have been possible if separate methods were used (Bowen, Rose, & Pilkington, 2017). The other approach is a sequential exploratory method, where the qualitative phase followed is by a quantitative phase, with the first qualitative phase emphasised (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). This method is best suited towards the generation and validation of an instrument in a study. The ensuing section details the primary research design.

3.3   Quantitative Research Design

3.3.1   Data Collection

Questionnaires allows for the collection of data on the same topic from many respondents (Akinci & Saunders, 2015). They can be used to collect explanatory data about behaviour, attitudes, and opinions. This is relevant for this research as several theories and relationships exist between the constructs measured independently, however, there is little known about the relationships proposed in this research. For example, while research on the PC and its theoretical underpinning is plentiful, there is little to no research on the relationship between the expectations of the different PC dimensions and the perception of balance. Questionnaires are a reliable method of research as they use questions with uniform definitions which ensure that everyone is asked the same questions in the same way (Hagino, 2002). Quantitative research focuses on the collection of numerical data to determine the relationship between variables (Creswell, 2014). This is useful to draw together concepts that can be applied

practically. Questionnaires also adopt an impersonal nature as respondents are not able to build rapport with the researcher (Gliner, Morgan, & Leech, 2017). In this case, this is not a drawback as in line with positivist philosophies, the researcher remains independent from the respondents. While questionnaires can be delivered in various forms such as face to face, post, or telephone, this one was delivered online. Web questionnaires are usually cheaper and allow for flexibility and the ability to reach a wider sample relatively quickly. Participants were also given the freedom to complete the questionnaire at their own pace and time. Qualtrics, the platform used for the questionnaire periodically saves the responses for a set period and allows the respondent to return and complete it later.

Demographic questions were placed first as it helped to ease the participants into the questionnaire and increase their confidence (McGibbon, 1997). These were followed by questions from the scales related to the concepts studied; these are further discussed in Section 3.3.3. The questionnaire also allowed respondents to provide comments at the end relating to any information they wished to express regarding WLB.

The research design used in this study is a cross-sectional correlational survey designed to examine the relationship between one or more dependent variables and one or more independent variables (D. R. Cooper & Schindler, 2011; Tharenou, Donohue, & Cooper, 2007). According to De Vaus (2002), cross-sectional surveys represent the most common research design used in survey research. Cross-sectional studies involve collecting data at the same point of time (Tharenou et al., 2007). The data were collected at the same point in time, which allows the study to identify whether a relationship exists (or does not exist) between the various independent and dependent variables. The research, however, cannot infer whether the independent variables cause the dependent variables (Tharenou et al., 2007).

3.3.2   Internet Survey Considerations

It was important to ensure that the survey minimised the levels of participant confusion and frustration by following some guidelines on survey design. Some considerations that should be weighed include

coverage of the target population, participation, and distribution speed, among others (Balch, 2010). The quantitative research relied on survey method in the form of a questionnaire where participants were required to indicate their responses on a series of Likert point scales. They were also required to provide some demographic information such as gender, age, tenure, and their employed industry. Surveys are mostly used to assess attitudes and values, and to determine perceptions (Sackett & Larson Jr, 1990). This study looks at both employee attitudes and their perception in relation to things like WLB. The questionnaire was administered online; the cost and time investment using this mode is minimised (Mertler, 2016). When implemented correctly, questionnaires are very precise data collection instruments, designed to allow for coded responses that elicit short concise thought processes from the participant (Quinlan, 2011). Survey or questionnaire research allows one to describe a group or population without having to reach the entire population (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012). Surveys do have their limitations in that it is important to ensure that the right number of questions are used, as this runs the risk of participants not completing the questionnaire (Buckingham & Saunders, 2004).

As the study relies on responses from the same respondent, a methodological concern that is prevalent in research carried out in this manner is the possibility of common method variance (CMV). Kock (2015a) proposed that Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) from a full collinearity test is a suitable measure for CMV. This figure is further discussed in Chapter 4. Fuller, Simmering, Atinc, Atinc, and Babin (2016) suggested, following their use of simulation data that CMV does not pose a great threat to validity of findings at levels typical of multiple item measures. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003) looked at four sources of CMV: responses from the same respondent; the way items are presented; context in which items of the survey are placed; and contextual influences such as time and location. One of the strategies to reduce this bias is the use of different scale types (S.-J. Chang, van Witteloostuijn, & Eden, 2010). They claimed that this would reduce the likelihood that participants rate their responses consistently across the various measures. A copy of the questionnaire is provided in the Appendix. The various scales and measures used for this research consist of different scale end

points, like the 5 and 7-point Likert scale. The nature of the scales also mean that the response dimensions were different for some of the measures, that is not all followed the strongly disagree to strongly agree format. This allows the participant to remain engaged with their responses; and allows the researcher to be able to identify areas where unengaged responses were provided.

3.3.3   Questionnaire Scales

A copy of the questionnaire that was used in this research is provided in Appendix A. Participants were also provided an information sheet (Appendix B), that provided more details about the study. In addition to the relevant scales for this research that were included (that are discussed in the sections that follow), the survey also included scales that were not ultimately used in the analysis. These scales (Affective Commitment, Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), and Job Satisfaction) were included in case the chosen variables did not yield any significant results that could be examined. Cropanzano, Anthony, Daniels, and Hall (2017), in their review of SET noted that employee responses can be divided into behavioural and relational. The relational responses include LMX, trust, and commitment. LMX and POS both follow the principles of the norm of reciprocity (Chen & Eldridge, 2011), Affective Commitment is also related to both LMX and POS further enhancing the social exchange dynamics (Casimir, Ngee Keith Ng, Yuan Wang, & Ooi, 2014). Trust has also been connected to positive outcomes such as job satisfaction. This was included as it is consistent with the trust rationale presented under the EE section (Section 2.5). The additional variables were not included in the analysis.

3.3.3.1 Work-Life Balance Scale

Perception of balance will be assessed with the measure developed and tested by (Brough et al., 2014). In their development of this 4-item scale, they relied on the definition of balance proposed by Kalliath and Brough (2008), the same definition employed in this research. The four scale items are: (1) 'I currently have a good balance between the time I spend at work and the time I have available for non-

work activities', (2) 'I have difficulty balancing my work and non-work activities', (3) 'I feel that the balance between my work demands and non-work activities is currently about right', and (4) 'Overall, I believe that my work and non-work-life are balanced.' The responses were obtained on a 5-point scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. High scores represent perceptions of high balance. Kalliath and Brough (2008) suggest that using scale items with reference to the participant's perception of balance has increased validity than other terms such as conflict, interference, or facilitation. The sample used to validate this measure comprised of workers employed in four countries (Australia, NZ, China, and Hong Kong).

3.3.3.2 Perceived Organisational Support (POS) Scale

The survey of POS developed by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986) was used. Previous studies have provided evidence for the reliability and validity of this scale (Shore & Wayne, 1993). This research used the shorter 8-item version, selecting from high loading items of the original scale. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) acknowledge that as the original scale is unidimensional and has high internal reliability, the use of a shorter version is not problematic. Responses were obtained on a 7-point scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

3.3.3.3 Psychological Contract (PC) Scale

To determine the content of the PC the employee has with their employer, this research used a measure developed by De Vos, Buyens, and Schalk (2003)to determine perceived employer promises. Participants were asked to rate the extent to which they believe their employer made promises to them regarding the listed inducements. Responses were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 'not promised at all' to 'promised to a very great extent'. The 19 items (inducements) are in line with the five PC content dimensions, namely, career development, job content, social atmosphere, financial rewards, and respect for private life. The respect for private life element is originally titled work-life balance in the

source; however, several other researchers have used these two terms interchangeably and so to avoid confusion with the WLB measure in the research, the former will be used. It is expected that these dimensions cover the wide range of expectations that employees have with their employer. Additionally, as each of the dimensions are unique and measure different aspects of the PC, they will be analysed independently instead of an overall PC construct. Each of the five dimensions displayed adequate discriminant validity (De Vos et al., 2003), and De Vos and Meganck (2009) further agreed that it is important to consider the different content dimensions of the PC.

3.3.3.4 Employee Engagement Scale

In line with the multi-dimensional approach for engagement, this research will utilise the measure developed by Saks (2006). Consisting of two six-item questionnaire scales, measuring job and organisation engagement, this measure is said to capture the psychological state of the individual in the job as well as the organisation. The study noted a difference between the two types of engagement – the conditions and consequences related to the two concepts are not the same (Saks, 2006). Participants rated their responses on a 5-point Likert scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. This scale was validated using a sample of 102 employees from various jobs mainly in Canada. In the original study, the items measuring job engagement were reduced to 5 items with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.82; while the items measuring organisation, engagement remained as 6 items with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.90. Bailey, Madden, Alfes, and Fletcher (2017) notes that most studies on engagement have used the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES); however, in revisiting the validity of the scale, Saks (2019) conducted a comparative analysis using both scales and the results were essentially the same. In a meta-analysis to determine whether job burnout and engagement were distinct concepts, Cole et al. (2012) generally concluded that the UWES overlaps with job attitudes and is more like the measurement of burnout (Saks & Gruman, 2014), therefore the Saks measure might be a better alternative for measuring EE.

3.3.4   Quantitative Data Analysis

3.3.4.1 Survey Responses

The target participants for this research were individuals in employment (excluding those in self-employment) within NZ from a broad range of industries and levels of employment. The individual experiences of each of the employees will be analysed across the various measures. Using a heterogeneous sample may allow the findings to be more generalisable across work settings. To achieve this, the research employed variety of sourcing strategies to recruit participants. One of the main sources was through contacting membership organisations, professional and industry associations like Human Resource Institute of New Zealand (HRNZ), Diversity Works NZ and the Massey People, Organisation, Work and Employment Research (MPOWER) Group to gain access to their members to serve as participants of the study. Professional associations are a collective group of individuals that represent various occupations and industries. To reduce the possibility of overlapping responses (same participant from different channels) taking the survey, Qualtrics has the option to prevent multiple sessions by placing a cookie on their browser once completed (Qualtrics, n.d.). While this can still be bypassed, it serves as a sufficient deterrent. These associations were chosen as they consist of members that are likely to have access to a wider employee base. HRNZ is the professional body for human resource professionals, therefore their members would serve in this area across NZ. This avenue would allow greater visibility of the study to as those individuals could then further disseminate the survey to their respective organisations as well. Both Diversity Works NZ and MPOWER each boast a membership of individuals from different fields, allowing for the collection of data from various occupational fields to aid in generalisation of results. Once the channels were identified, the survey was then disseminated.

Initial contact with the professional associations was via email, requesting for the participation of their members in the study. Once agreed upon, the details of the survey and the link were placed in their newsletters and individuals were encouraged to complete the surveys. The first round of survey dissemination yielded low response rates; therefore, reminders were sent out. Van Mol (2017) noted

that sending out reminders is highly effective in increasing sample sizes for research. Further correspondence through social media sites was also used to promote engagement with the study. The use of social media within academia has increased and allowed researchers more visibility within their intended fields and can improve research and scholarly activities (Al-Daihani, Al-Qallaf, & AlSaheeb, 2018). Cawcutt et al. (2019) also asserted that social media assists in the collection of solution-focused feedback. With these added measures, a total of 187 responses were received. These responses were then cleaned and pre-processed to ensure that the data collected was complete and fit for use in the study.

3.3.4.2 Data Preparation

To ensure their accuracy prior to analysis, quantitative (survey) data were run through some preliminary checks to prepare and clean them using Microsoft Excel and Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Data screening was conducted to ensure that the data were in suitable condition for further statistical analyses. Data screening can improve the quality and trustworthiness of the data (DeSimone & Harms, 2018).

3.3.4.3 Missing Data

Missing data are common in survey-based methods (Karanja, Zaveri, & Ahmed, 2013); there are two categories of missing data. The first occurs when respondents fail to partake in the survey; this can affect the survey results if the absence of these participants skews the data in any manner. This is addressed under non-response bias discussed below. The second category term item non-response is when participants leave certain items in the survey unanswered. This could be due to lack of knowledge or ability to respond to the item or a simple error. Regardless, missing data poses a threat to the analysis phase and needs to be addressed (Karanja et al., 2013). A significant amount of missing data may result in not being able to satisfy the conditions for and run key analyses.

SPSS was used to identify any missing values in the study's survey data. The first step was to determine the nature of the missing values, indicating perhaps an issue with the question. There are different forms of missing data. Missing completely at random (MCAR) means that participants with complete data cannot be distinguished from those with missing data (Bennett, 2001). Data that are missing at random (MAR) concerns where participants with and those without missing data differ, but a pattern can be linked to other variables in the dataset. Bennett (2001) asserted that data that are MAR can be ignored in the analysis process. Finally, data that are not missing at random (NMAR) are non-random and cannot be traced to other variables in the dataset. An investigation of the missing values indicated that the data was MAR. Karanja et al. (2013) outlined that the most common ways to remedy missing data are by what are termed first-generation and second-generation techniques.

A first-generation technique advocates for the indiscriminate removal of variables that have missing values. This allows for a complete case analysis, where the analysis is run on only data that is observed after removing all missing values (Kwak & Kim, 2017). While this may yield a smaller sample size, it adds to the simplicity of the analysis and is the most common method of dealing with missing data (Kwak & Kim, 2017). The second-generation technique estimates the missing values of the missing data using other values in the data set. This technique allows for imputation analysis where missing values are replaced to form a complete dataset (Kwak & Kim, 2017). The imputed value could be mean, mode, median, or a value obtained from statistical models (Malarvizhi & Thanamani, 2012). This is suitable when the record does not have missing values across many variables (Royston, 2004). Bennett (2001) stated that when the proportion of missing data is large (more than 10%), the statistical analyses performed may be biased. Therefore, for this study, variables that had more than 10% of missing data for the variables were removed. Those with less than 10% of data missing were estimated in two ways: scores were imputed based on the known values, and when this was not possible the series mean was used. The final dataset consisted of 114 responses.

3.3.4.4 Outliers

The survey included Likert scales for the variables measured so responses on either end of the scale were not considered outliers. One type of outlier that exists within survey methods is unengaged responses or non-attending observances. These denote participants who were not attentive while completing the survey due either to fatigue or lack of interest (Liu, Wu, & Zumbo, 2010). When this occurs, the responses provided are not representative of their true sentiments, but rather, follow a pattern. For example, when participants enter the same value for every item even when some items may contradict each other. In this study, same value responses were computed by calculating the standard deviation of the responses for each participant in Microsoft Excel. A standard deviation that is closer to zero indicates that there is little variance in the responses; and one that is zero indicates no variance, and this is likely an unengaged respondent and could be removed from the analysis. Those with a value less than 0.25 can be removed (Collier, 2020). However, this dataset did not contain any standard deviations lower than 0.7 so it can be assumed that the participants were engaged.

3.3.5 Sample Demographics

As noted from the previous section, the final respondent count was 114. Participants were predominantly female, with 71% (81) being female, 22% (26) male and 6% that did not wish to specify their gender. The majority (31%) of the participants had been employed for 1 – 2 years. 17% were employed for less than a year, 22% for 3 – 5 years, 12% for 6 – 9 years and 15% for over 10 years. The largest proportion (29.8%) were aged between 31 – 40 years old; followed closely (28%) by those aged 41 – 50 years old. 14% were aged 21 – 30 years, 24% were aged 51 – 60 years and 2% were aged over 60 years old.

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics of Sample

Descriptor	Variable	N	%
Gender	Male	26	22.8
	Female	81	71.1
	Do not wish to specify	7	6.1
Tenure	Less than 1 year	20	17.5
	1 - 2 years	36	31.6
	3 - 5 years	26	22.8
	6 - 9 years	14	12.2
	10+ years	18	15.8
Age	21 - 30 years old	16	14
	31 - 40 years old	34	29.8
	41 - 50 years old	33	28.9
	51 - 60 years old	28	24.6
	Over 60 years old	3	2.6

3.3.6   Preliminary Analysis Results

3.3.6.1 Normality

Normality refers to the distribution of the data for a particular variable. Normality is assessed in the following ways: shape, skewness, and kurtosis. The shape can be determined by plotting a histogram in SPSS, and if does not match the normal curve then there may be normality issues. Skewness indicates that the responses were heavily weighted toward one end of the scale. Kurtosis is a measure of the peakedness of a distribution. George and Mallery (2016) suggest that values of skewness and kurtosis between 2 and -2 are considered acceptable. In this study, all except two items fell within this threshold:

gender (with a kurtosis of 3.525) and PC_JC4 (with a kurtosis of 2.367). Since normal distribution assumptions are only applicable to continuous or interval and not categorical variables such as gender, this was not considered an issue. Although the kurtosis figure for PC_JC4 (Opportunities to use your skills and capabilities) was outside the acceptable range, the analysis used within this study does not assume normality of the data, therefore, the item was maintained.

3.4   Structural Equation Modelling

Structural equation modelling (SEM) technique depicts relations between observed and latent variables in various theoretical models, which provides a quantitative test of a hypothesis by the researcher (Schumacker & Lomax, 2016). In SEM, the different constructs are called latent variables; these are variables that are not directly observed or measured. SEM can be used to investigate relationships between observed variables and latent variables as well as causal relationships between latent variables (Miceli & Barbaranelli, 2015). The former is known as the measurement model, while the latter is the structural model (depicted in the figure below). These together make up the SEM framework. The goal of SEM is to determine whether the model is supported by the sample data. Thus, the SEM method has been one of the most essential mechanisms of applied multivariate statistical analyses and has been used by many studies in different fields, such as marketing, economics, education, medicine, and a diversity of other social and behavioural researchers (Pugesek, Tomer, & Eye, 2003). Schumacker and Lomax (2016) remarked that SEM techniques have become popular due to four reasons. Firstly, researchers are more aware of the need to use multiple variables to investigate their areas, and this allows for them to incorporate some complexity into their relationships that aids in understanding complex phenomena. Secondly, greater recognition has been awarded to measurement instruments and their use in many disciplines. SEM has also evolved over the past 40 years. Lastly, the ease of use of many SEM programs has increased their accessibility.

Figure 2: SEM Framework
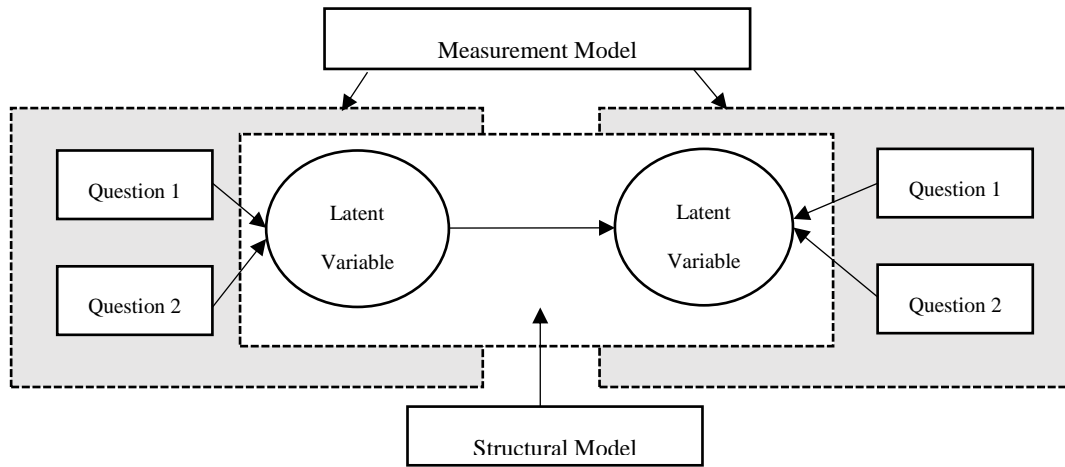
The literature indicates that there are two types of statistical methodologies that estimate SEM with latent variables, including measurement models: covariance-based (CB-SEM) and partial least squares path modelling (PLS-PM) or variance-based SEM (Ringle, Götz, Wetzels, & Wilson, 2009). For many years, CB-SEM was the dominant method for analysing complex interrelationships between observed and latent variables. In the current study, the research used the PLS-SEM technique (specifically WarpPLS 7.0), and it offers several advantages over CB-SEM. Additionally, PLS does not require that latent variables do not have at least five items (Westland, 2007) which is required by CB-SEM techniques (Kock, 2015b). The research has several scales with less than five items, however, as noted this is not an issue. Furthermore, Ringle et al. (2009) highlight the usefulness of PLS-SEM when the sample size is small, the latent variables are formatively measured, and the data is non-normal. While in this research the data is normally distributed, and all variables measured are reflective rather than formative, the sample size is relatively small. WarpPLS tests for both linear and non-linear relationships (Kock, 2017). WarpPLS allows all the hypotheses to be tested at once which allows the analysis can account for some of the shared variances and learn more about the relationship in the complex model (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011; Hair, Sarstedt, Hopkins, & Kuppelwieser, 2014).

3.4.1   Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) aims to determine the correlations among the variables in a dataset. The output produced is a factor structure with variables with the strongest correlations loading into groupings of variables. The EFA is not bound by theory and therefore can be used to reveal connections between items that were not previously identified (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). Since the EFA is data driven, it can identify problematic variables more easily than a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). It also helps to uncover validity issues that may be ignored by restricting the factor structures. The goal of an EFA is to explore the data and determine whether the model makes sense (Costello & Osborne, 2005). It also allows the researcher to return to earlier steps and make different decisions if the results obtained are not clear. Therefore, even though the research used items from validated scales, the results from this analysis will be highlighted and then confirmed through the CFA.

While typically an EFA and CFA are conducted on different samples, Van Prooijen and Van Der Kloot (2001) noted that, if the two processes are conducted on different data, it is difficult to determine whether methodological explanations are responsible for any variances between the two. They claim that the ultimate test of possible methodological explanations for differences in the two is to run them on the same samples. This is corroborated by Schmitt, Sass, Chappelle, and Thompson (2018) who claim that conducting both methods on the same data can be fruitful. The factorial structure suggested by the EFA is expected to remain within the same dataset (Pardede, Gausel, & Høie, 2021). Additionally, Worthington and Whittaker (2006) acknowledge that, when there is insufficient theoretical foundation, then both an EFA and CFA could be used for cross-validation purposes. Therefore, if the EFA does not yield the same factor structures, then the original scale may not be useful for the data set that has been collected. Further, Knekta, Runyon, and Eddy (2019) specify that a CFA is suitable when using a pre-existing survey from the same context, as the various scales used within

such a survey are validated from (a) different context (to each other and to this study), making the performance of an EFA before a CFA seem appropriate.

The EFA can be completed in three stages as outlined by E. Ferguson and Cox (1993): pre-analysis checks, extraction, and rotation. One of the checks that need to be made is to ensure that the dataset is appropriate for an EFA. Two statistical analyses that are used to determine this are the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy (Pallant, 2020). These assess the factorability of the data; that is if the data is suitable for factor analysis. The KMO measures whether the variables are correlated; low figures indicate that the variables are not correlated enough and imply that they are not suitable to be included in the model. The Bartlett's Test examines that no relationships exist between any of the variables (E. Ferguson & Cox, 1993). Ideally, the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity should be significant ($p<.05$) to indicate that there are discoverable relationships present, and a KMO value higher than .6 are considered appropriate. Both conditions were met with the KMO being .831 and significant ($p<0.01$). Once this is completed, the other two stages may follow.

The extraction method that is most appropriate is dependent on the overall goal (Treiblmaier & Filzmoser, 2010). There are a variety of factor extraction methods, however, the most common ones used are Principal Components Analysis (PCA) and Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) (Akhtar-Danesh, 2017). The difference between the two is on the purpose of each of the methods, although it is argued that they produce the same outcomes. The PCA is appropriate when the purpose is to reduce the number of variables, while the PAF is more appropriate is the purpose is to understand the latent structure of a set of variables (Reio & Shuck, 2015). Additionally, PAF is useful for theory building efforts (J. H. Kahn, 2006). This is the extraction method that I used for the EFA. The third stage is the type of rotation used. Rotation methods are classified under orthogonal and oblique rotations. Orthogonal rotations are the most frequently used, however, they make the factors uncorrelated. Therefore, if the factors are correlated oblique rotations are more suitable (Reio & Shuck, 2015). Oblique rotations include promax, oblimin and quartimin. Promax was recommended by B. Thompson (2004) as the more desirable oblique rotation choice, and so this was used.

CFA as briefly mentioned above is a tool used to confirm an existing theory; it examines whether the latent variables have sufficient reliability and validity. This was done using WarpPLS 7.0.

3.4.2   Reliability and Validity

Reliability is defined as the degree to which the scores of the measurement tool are free from random error (Kline, 2016). It exists as a measure of internal consistency; it determines whether the set of variables will consistently load on the same factor and identifies if the statements for each construct are understood in the same way by the different participants. A Cronbach's alpha is one measure for reliability; it measures the extent to which item responses correlate with each other (Vaske, Beaman, & Sponarski, 2017).

Validity is the soundness of inferences made from the scores (Kline, 2016). These figures are used to determine whether the latent variable measures what is intended. The two types of validity that will be assessed are convergent validity and discriminant validity. Convergent validity refers to the extent that an item loads on to its original construct. Average Variance Extracted (AVE) can be used to measure convergent validity; it measures the average percentage of variation explained by the measuring items for a latent variable.

Discriminant validity identifies whether the latent variables are different from each other, that is, they each measure a unique construct. It can be measured by examining the correlations among the latent variables with the square roots of their respective AVEs. The square root of the AVEs can be found in the main diagonal line of a correlation table, and each of these figures should be larger than any of the other correlations in the corresponding column; this is referred to as the Fornell-Larcker test (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2015) proposed that the Fornell-Larcker test and the assessment of cross-loadings are not as effective at measuring discriminant validity, despite their wide use. They recommended an alternative method that caters for the low sensitivity from the other two tests - the Heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio. Ab Hamid, Sami, and Mohmad Sidek (2017) further corroborated that the HTMT ratio has high sensitivity and specificity when assessing discriminant

validity. This test is also regarded as a more comprehensive test for researchers doing variance-based SEM. The key criterion is that the HTMT ratio should be less than 1 to have discriminant validity (Voorhees, Brady, Calantone, & Ramirez, 2016).

3.4.3 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity exists when one independent variable is highly related to another (M. P. Allen, 1997). This can be measured with a VIF; this measures the extent to which multicollinearity has increased the variance of an estimated coefficient. If such an issue is detected, one way to solve this would be to drop one of the variables as they are likely redundant. A high VIF (above 5) implies multicollinearity (Kock, 2015a).

3.4.4 Model Fit

This identifies whether the model has a good fit with the original data. It was assessed using the following measures: average path coefficient (APC), average R-squared (ARS), and average variance inflation factor (AVIF). AVIF is acceptable when less than 5, but ideally it should be less than 3.3 (Kock, 2017). APC and ARS should be significant at least at the 0.05 level.

3.5 Supplementary Qualitative Analysis

Qualitative methods can be applied to examine a particular phenomenon in greater detail. This is especially useful when the expected outcomes that are derived from theory are not met. It is useful to understand the meaning of a phenomenon for those involved, that is, an understanding of experiences. This was a useful addition to the initial quantitative analysis as it could provide some meaning behind some of the findings. The various data collection approaches under this method include interviews, observation, and written data such as diary entries. Mann (2016) noted that the purpose of the interview is important, whether it provides data, evidence, or information. In this study, the interviews served as a complementary aspect, seeking to provide further information on the quantitative analyses found.

Kallio, Pietilä, Johnson, and Kangasniemi (2016) theorised that semi-structured interviews are popular as they allow for flexibility during the process. Semi-structured interviews require some degree of previous knowledge in the topic (S. Kelly, 2010), as they require the researcher to adapt the questions based on the responses of the interviewee (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). In this instance, the questions were derived from the results of the quantitative analysis. Specifically, those that were unexpected, to gain insight as to why these results were obtained. To accomplish this, it was determined that using key informants, that is, experts would be a desirable source.

3.5.1 Key Informant Interviews

A key informant is an individual that can be relied upon as an expert source of information (Marshall, 1996). The aim of this component of the research was to gain more understanding on specific items, so key informants were used. Using these individuals allows one to gather high quality data in a short period and to steer the recommendations made. This information was gathered using interviews. The interviews were semi-structured in that there was a prepared guide of questions for each interview, however, the discussion and further questions could progress based on the responses provided. The use of open-ended questions facilitated this process. Semi-structured interview formats allow respondents to provide information that is deeper in meaning (Jankowicz, 2000). Jankowicz (2000) also added that the type of respondent used for the interview is a crucial component, as this will dictate the type of information one gets. An issue with key informants is that as experts they may be busy in their work making it difficult to contact and schedule interviews with these individuals (Ali, David, & Ching, 2013). However, the wealth of information that they provide is valuable to the subject matter being researched.

3.5.1.1 Key Informant Characteristics

Key informants allow researchers to gather detailed and rich data in a relatively easy way (Ellis & Dietz, 2017). The key informants were also chosen for their knowledge about the context the research was

conducted in. The principal advantages of the key informant technique relate to the quality of data that can be obtained in a relatively short period of time (Benova, Moller, & Moran, 2019). To obtain the same amount of information and insight from in-depth interviews with other members of a community can be prohibitively time-consuming and expensive. The key informants chosen were:

Table 5: Key Informant Characteristics

Key	Description
Diversity Expert	- Chief Executive of large member organisation - Over 10 years' experience in transformation and leadership
Human Resource Professional	- Director of career management consultancy - Former board member, president, and vice president of human resource-chartered membership group - Over 15 years' experience in human resource relations - Specialised with senior level positions
Human Resource Academic	- Human resources, Industrial relations academic - Published several articles on human resource practices - Over 20 years' experience in human resource academia

3.5.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

Given (2008) notes that there are many forms of data analysis when it comes to qualitative research design, including interview transcripts, fieldnotes, conversational analysis, and visual data. The analysis of qualitative data is considered an iterative process, where prior data analysis is used to inform the gathering of further data. I used the quantitative phase to provide the initial framework that shaped the interview questions. Merriam and Tisdell (2016) advise that data collection and analysis should be conducted simultaneously for qualitative designs. Qualitative analysis is not a sequential process; the first interview helps to inform the next and so on. During the interviews, I made notes of significant

areas that emerged from the discussion and used these for further inquiry in later interviews. The second step to analysis is memoing Given (2008) where the researcher takes notes as they collect and analyse the data. This occurs when either transcribing the interviews or when writing up field notes. Following the collection of data, this data must then be coded, I opted to code groups of statements at a time, as this offers a more flexible approach. Several readings of the transcripts helped move the information from observations to conceptual insights. While there are various software available to managing qualitative data, the analysis for this research was done manually. Additionally, software can sometimes interfere with the creative insights that can arise from an ongoing engagement with the raw data (Given, 2008).

3.6   Ethics

The researcher is responsible for ensuring that their studies are not harmful to the participants (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). The necessary ethics considerations were applied to ensure the research was conducted in an appropriate manner. The ethics process was discussed with supervisors in line with the Code of Ethical Conduct for Research, Teaching and Evaluation involving Human Participants; and approval was obtained from the ethics committee before the study was undertaken.

For the quantitative research, the key elements addressed included consent and anonymity of the survey participants and ensuring that the survey questions did not arouse any negative emotions from the participants. The survey included a statement at the beginning stating the overall purpose of the research and how the information will be used. Additionally, an information sheet with further information on the project was attached, along with a statement that informed participants that participation in the study implied consent. To maintain their confidentiality, the participants were not required to provide their name or that of their organisation. There was no information provided that could be used as identification markers. The only contact information that was collected or stored was for participants were interested in receiving a summary of the survey results once the research was concluded. This information was provided voluntarily by the participants at the end of the survey. Participation in the

survey was also on a voluntary basis, and they were informed that they could withdraw from the survey at any time. As far as the questions the participants will be required to respond to, there is no expectation that any of the questions will cause distress or discomfort. The questions did not require participants to divulge sensitive information or to recall any traumatic events that might lead to offense or upset. The ethics approval for this portion of the study is attached under Appendix C.

The qualitative aspect of the research was also managed in line with ethical standards. This portion of the research was evaluated as low risk. The approval notification is attached in Appendix D. The participants were made aware of the nature of the study and the aim of the interview in early correspondence. They were given the opportunity to consent to their participation in the study and as with the prior stage were also offered the option to be informed of the results once the study was concluded. The information expressed in the interviews were not detrimental to them in any way as they provided commentary on results that were achieved from the previous stage that they were not a part of.

3.6.1   Data Management

The information from both the quantitative and qualitative component of the study were stored securely, and only the researcher had access to the files. The information was saved with no identifying markers in terms of participant identities. The information used will be destroyed five years after data collection in accordance with the Code applied.

3.7   Chapter Summary

The research relied on a quantitative approach to gather data collected from questionnaires to address the research questions proposed. The preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure that the data was appropriate for use. Once the quantitative data was analysed, a supplementary qualitative approach using key informant interviews was conducted. This addition was used to corroborate and explain some

of the results from the initial data collection phase. This provides a robust discussion on the results and allows the researcher to explore specific areas of interest. The following chapter outlines these findings.

CHAPTER 4 - FINDINGS

4.0   Introduction

This chapter presents the results and findings from data analysis of the survey and key informant interviews in response to the study's purpose to investigate the effects of the hypothesised relationships between Perceived Organisational Support (POS), Employee Engagement (EE), Psychological Contact (PC) dimensions and Work-Life Balance (WLB) of employees. As discussed in Chapter 3, there are two types of models the measurement (outer) model and the structural (inner) model. This chapter begins with an exploration of the measurement model in section 4.1 which examines the relationship between the latent variables and their measures. Section 4.2 presents the results from the structural model, examining the relationship between the latent variables. This is followed by a discussion of the qualitative findings from the key informant interviews in Section 4.3. Finally, section 4.4 offers a summary of key findings and themes derived from the analysis.

4.1   Results of Measurement Model

4.1.1   Exploratory Factor Analysis

In conducting EFA, it was found that several of the EE items relating to organisation engagement had cross-loadings with the POS factor and did not load under the expected factor. When the EE items were factored separately, they loaded as expected into two factors: job and organisation engagement. Therefore, the items were not problematic but, used in conjunction with the POS items, failed to load as expected. Several other items such as PC_FR1 (Financial Rewards1), EE_JE3 (Job Engagement3) and EE_JE5 (Job Engagement5) had cross-loadings. These results are presented in Table 6, with coefficients less than .3 suppressed. Further analysis on the wording of the items provided some initial explanations. For example, EE_JE3 also loaded onto the WLB factor; the wording of the item "This job is all consuming" can reasonably be categorised as a balance item as employees that are consumed by their work are likely to ignore cues that promote balance. PC_JC4 (Job Content4) also had a loading

less than 0.5 which is the acceptable threshold (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2014). As this is exploratory, the items were retained, and will only be removed if they are still problematic after the CFA.

Table 6: Pattern Matrix

	POS	PC_SA	WLB	EE	PC_FR	PC_RP	PC_JC	PC_CD
POS1	0.974	0.012	-0.091	-0.170	0.067	-0.112	-0.127	-0.007
POS2	0.762	0.009	0.084	-0.025	0.101	0.039	0.137	-0.238
POS3	0.635	0.009	0.095	-0.108	-0.038	0.024	0.129	-0.062
POS4	0.997	0.053	-0.066	-0.103	0.148	0.018	-0.186	-0.147
POS5	0.937	0.010	-0.042	-0.181	0.116	-0.066	0.019	-0.043
POS6	0.903	-0.104	0.074	-0.065	0.075	-0.163	0.075	0.062
POS7	0.926	-0.080	0.028	-0.087	0.117	-0.083	0.091	-0.110
POS8	0.702	0.133	-0.029	-0.096	-0.003	-0.083	0.175	0.005
WLB1	0.086	0.007	0.771	-0.185	0.001	0.105	-0.167	0.102
WLB2	0.055	0.088	0.723	-0.031	-0.059	0.109	-0.083	-0.099
WLB3	-0.092	-0.154	0.968	0.129	0.023	-0.078	0.073	0.117
WLB4	0.033	0.023	0.896	-0.015	0.063	0.050	-0.072	-0.009
PC_CD1	-0.127	0.127	0.013	0.006	0.265	-0.053	0.010	0.708
PC_CD2	-0.150	0.032	0.121	-0.164	0.131	-0.136	0.142	0.911
PC_CD3	0.174	0.001	-0.120	-0.242	0.136	0.115	0.113	0.596
PC_JC1	0.036	-0.007	-0.042	-0.083	-0.098	0.187	0.590	0.143
PC_JC2	0.058	-0.099	-0.074	-0.054	0.017	0.110	0.677	0.279
PC_JC3	-0.077	-0.057	-0.036	0.232	-0.039	0.063	0.782	-0.065
PC_JC4	0.196	0.201	-0.088	0.055	-0.005	-0.069	0.482	0.060
PC_SA1	0.084	0.725	0.020	-0.097	-0.004	-0.012	0.122	0.103

	POS	PC_SA	WLB	EE	PC_FR	PC_RP	PC_JC	PC_CD
PC_SA2	-0.074	0.964	-0.012	0.049	0.059	0.013	-0.083	-0.004
PC_SA3	0.027	0.904	-0.061	0.067	-0.003	0.017	-0.053	0.051
PC_SA4	-0.070	0.942	0.005	-0.018	-0.069	0.039	-0.009	0.009
PC_FR1	-0.004	0.047	0.007	0.335	0.773	-0.032	-0.104	0.121
PC_FR2	0.060	0.023	0.035	0.086	0.653	0.028	0.180	0.079
PC_FR3	0.109	-0.106	0.071	0.260	0.690	0.051	-0.051	0.171
PC_FR4	0.123	-0.004	-0.061	0.009	0.572	0.209	-0.130	0.083
PC_RP1	0.071	0.118	-0.010	0.010	0.046	0.679	0.088	-0.081
PC_RP2	-0.134	-0.014	0.052	-0.012	0.160	0.745	0.117	-0.123
PC_RP3	-0.086	-0.006	0.105	-0.076	-0.059	0.724	0.052	0.002
PC_RP4	-0.071	0.006	0.005	-0.043	0.069	0.875	0.065	0.001
EE_JE1	-0.054	-0.035	-0.061	0.696	0.226	-0.009	0.038	-0.053
EE_JE2	-0.009	-0.051	-0.166	0.632	0.155	0.114	-0.061	-0.082
EE_JE3	-0.126	-0.091	-0.347	0.437	-0.021	-0.069	-0.047	0.066
EE_JE4	-0.185	0.058	0.104	0.767	0.166	-0.135	0.027	-0.098
EE_JE5	0.027	0.144	0.141	0.740	0.026	-0.113	0.322	-0.163
EE_OE1	0.607	0.104	0.051	0.288	-0.156	0.140	0.039	-0.051
EE_OE2	0.674	-0.157	0.048	0.112	-0.200	0.050	-0.050	0.250
EE_OE3	0.439	-0.212	-0.064	0.307	0.016	0.166	-0.009	-0.100
EE_OE4	0.563	0.000	0.017	0.322	-0.135	0.087	-0.084	0.192
EE_OE5	0.567	0.137	-0.016	0.316	-0.055	0.089	-0.243	0.167
EE_OE6	0.519	0.023	0.053	0.408	-0.155	-0.092	0.153	0.055

The factor analysis identified eight distinct factors. Diekhoff (1992) indicates that a factor solution is acceptable if it explains 50 – 75% of the variance in the variables. In this study, the results from the PAF demonstrate that the variables explained about 65% of the variance (see Table 7), suggesting that the 8 factors explain 65% of the variance. This also indicates the percent of total variance accounted for by each factor, so POS accounted for about 29% of the variance, and PC_SA explains about 10% of the variance. The more factors are extracted the less variance is explained by each following factor.

Table 7: Total Variance Explained

Component	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
POS	12.433	29.603	29.603
PC-SA	4.492	10.696	40.300
WLB	3.708	8.828	49.127
EE	2.147	5.111	54.238
PC_FR	1.810	4.309	58.547
PC_RP	1.134	2.701	61.248
PC_JC	1.063	2.530	63.778
PC_CD	0.813	1.936	65.714

4.1.2   Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The first output to consider with a CFA is the combined loadings and cross-loadings table (Table 8). The expectation is that loadings are high and cross-loadings are low. The p values provided are referred

to as validation parameters of a CFA since they are from a model where the relationships are defined beforehand (Kock, 2014). The criteria are that the p values must be significant (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988), and loadings should be equal to or greater than 0.5 (Kock, 2014).

Table 8: Combined loadings and cross-loadings

	POS	WLB	PC_CD	PC_JC	PC_SA	PC_FR	PC_RP	EE_JE	EE_OE	Pvalue
POS1	0.837	-0.133	0.068	-0.175	-0.011	0.013	-0.063	-0.1	0.137	<0.001
POS2	0.834	0.103	-0.11	0.068	0.009	-0.046	0.131	0.184	-0.285	<0.001
POS3	0.716	0.093	-0.081	0.101	0.041	-0.047	0.032	-0.058	0.048	<0.001
POS4	0.888	-0.085	-0.108	-0.217	0.071	0.119	0.064	-0.085	0.144	<0.001
POS5	0.878	-0.048	0.031	-0.003	-0.007	0.043	0.008	-0.075	0.033	<0.001
POS6	0.878	0.075	0.132	0.054	-0.119	-0.009	-0.109	0.036	0.081	<0.001
POS7	0.881	0.027	-0.017	0.044	-0.085	0.027	-0.011	0.043	-0.062	<0.001
POS8	0.784	-0.018	0.077	0.161	0.122	-0.126	-0.049	0.055	-0.11	<0.001
WLB1	0.159	0.918	0.162	-0.154	-0.021	-0.086	0.101	-0.048	-0.094	<0.001
WLB2	-0.103	0.868	-0.189	0.033	0.122	0.024	0	-0.081	0.138	<0.001
WLB3	-0.118	0.879	0.059	0.145	-0.126	0.015	-0.152	0.116	0.006	<0.001
WLB4	0.05	0.947	-0.039	-0.015	0.025	0.047	0.043	0.014	-0.041	<0.001
PC_CD1	-0.143	0.022	0.869	-0.055	0.076	0.117	-0.07	0.044	0.071	<0.001
PC_CD2	-0.12	0.125	0.926	0.071	0.014	-0.021	-0.143	-0.018	0.006	<0.001
PC_CD3	0.28	-0.16	0.843	-0.022	-0.094	-0.098	0.229	-0.025	-0.08	<0.001
PC_JC1	-0.165	0.035	-0.05	0.782	0.007	0.005	0.056	-0.202	0.149	<0.001

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	POS	WLB	PC_CD	PC_JC	PC_SA	PC_FR	PC_RP	EE_JE	EE_OE	Pvalue
PC_JC2	-0.148	-0.03	0.087	0.864	-0.073	0.158	-0.017	-0.168	0.183	<0.001
PC_JC3	0.061	0.013	-0.092	0.802	-0.093	-0.078	0.029	0.235	-0.197	<0.001
PC_JC4	0.273	-0.015	0.049	0.764	0.172	-0.102	-0.068	0.15	-0.152	<0.001
PC_SA1	0.069	0.044	0.032	0.113	0.892	0.021	-0.053	-0.073	-0.015	<0.001
PC_SA2	-0.059	-0.024	-0.036	-0.088	0.936	0.072	0.006	-0.007	0.009	<0.001
PC_SA3	0.018	-0.047	0.034	-0.039	0.934	-0.025	0.02	0.063	0.047	<0.001
PC_SA4	-0.025	0.029	-0.028	0.019	0.933	-0.067	0.024	0.013	-0.041	<0.001
PC_FR1	-0.115	0.012	0.008	-0.028	0.027	0.824	-0.081	0.125	0.051	<0.001
PC_FR2	0.065	0.032	-0.043	0.238	0.053	0.843	-0.04	-0.053	-0.15	<0.001
PC_FR3	-0.111	0.053	0.019	-0.015	-0.092	0.855	-0.044	-0.009	0.209	<0.001
PC_FR4	0.184	-0.113	0.018	-0.225	0.016	0.732	0.188	-0.068	-0.129	<0.001
PC_RP1	0.247	-0.041	0.041	-0.021	0.074	-0.115	0.841	0.152	-0.142	<0.001
PC_RP2	0.063	-0.003	-0.001	0.034	-0.099	0.042	0.851	0.075	-0.196	<0.001
PC_RP3	-0.302	0.064	-0.095	0.033	0.015	0.029	0.781	-0.227	0.323	<0.001
PC_RP4	-0.029	-0.015	0.045	-0.041	0.012	0.043	0.898	-0.016	0.038	<0.001
EE_JE1	0.193	0.029	0.086	-0.06	-0.049	0.008	0.05	0.788	-0.247	<0.001
EE_JE2	0.169	-0.117	0.042	-0.153	-0.09	-0.045	0.22	0.729	-0.122	<0.001
EE_JE3	-0.112	-0.411	0.176	-0.157	-0.13	-0.124	-0.022	0.538	0.141	<0.001
EE_JE4	-0.225	0.206	-0.105	0.004	0.089	0.128	-0.148	0.743	0.084	<0.001

	POS	WLB	PC_CD	PC_JC	PC_SA	PC_FR	PC_RP	EE_JE	EE_OE	Pvalue
EE_JE5	-0.066	0.181	-0.159	0.333	0.15	-0.003	-0.109	0.724	0.2	<0.001
EE_OE1	0.198	0.056	-0.08	0.06	0.095	-0.108	0.122	0.117	0.854	<0.001
EE_OE2	0.051	0.041	0.141	-0.015	-0.14	-0.081	-0.034	-0.129	0.84	<0.001
EE_OE3	0.114	-0.108	-0.15	-0.043	-0.228	0.076	0.168	0.114	0.582	<0.001
EE_OE4	-0.175	-0.01	0.052	-0.011	0	0.045	-0.034	-0.095	0.917	<0.001
EE_OE5	-0.158	-0.051	0.028	-0.178	0.146	0.125	-0.018	-0.101	0.892	<0.001
EE_OE6	0.028	0.042	-0.042	0.185	0.046	-0.044	-0.151	0.143	0.84	<0.001

4.1.2.1 Reliability

In terms of reliability, a value above .7 is acceptable (Hair, Black, et al., 2014). A high alpha (above 0.90) may suggest redundancies and shortening the length of the scale may be appropriate (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). However, Connelly (2011) indicated that a figure of 0.95 suggests a high degree of consistency between items and low measurement error, and Gleim and Gleim (2003) concluded that an alpha above 0.9 is excellent. The results in Table 9 show that the Cronbach's alphas are above the required level, with the lowest being 0.748 and the highest 0.943. While it is a common test used, there has been considerable debate on the use of Cronbach's alpha as a measure for internal consistency; concerns on the interpretation and misuse of this figure had necessitated those additional figures be used before concluding on the reliability of scales. Sijtsma (2009) declares that it alone cannot be interpreted as a measure for internal consistently.

Composite reliability (CR) is another test for reliability. Cho and Kim (2015) recommend that researchers use alternative measures in conjunction with Cronbach's alpha as they deem it beneficial that organisational research move away from assumptions around the alpha as the sole measure for reliability. The value of CR should be larger than 0.7 to be considered acceptable (Kock, 2017). The

results for this study demonstrate that the measures thus have sufficient reliability, with all the CR values being higher than 0.8, with the lowest being 0.833 and the highest being 0.959 (see Table 9).

Table 9: Reliability Statistics

	POS	WLB	PC_CD	PC_JC	PC_SA	PC_FR	PC_RP	EE_JE	EE_OE
Composite reliability	0.95	0.947	0.911	0.879	0.959	0.887	0.908	0.833	0.928
Cronbach's alpha	0.939	0.924	0.854	0.817	0.943	0.83	0.864	0.748	0.904

4.1.2.2 Validity

Convergent validity is how well one measure correlates with a different one in the same construct; and AVE figures greater than 0.5 are considered satisfactory in this regard (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2013). Each of the variables have an AVE above 0.5 indicating that over 50% of measurement variance is captured by the latent variable. The lowest figure is 0.504, which could be because of the EE_JE3 item discussed earlier, while the highest is 0.853 as shown in Table *10*.

Table 10: Average Variance Extracted

	POS	WLB	PC_CD	PC_JC	PC_SA	PC_FR	PC_RP	EE_JE	EE_OE
AVE	0.704	0.816	0.775	0.646	0.853	0.664	0.712	0.504	0.686

Table 11 shows that the results demonstrate that the discriminant validity of the variables is satisfactory. Additionally, to check that items do not load highly onto other constructs, a check of the cross-loadings is recommended. Cross-loadings should be lower than the item loading (Hair et al., 2011).

Table *12* shows these loadings and indicates that the values meet the specified threshold. Each of the loadings is highest on its own variable than with any of the other constructs. Finally, the correlation among the variables should not be greater than 0.71 (Andreev, Heart, Maoz, & Pliskin, 2009). This is met except for the EE_OE variable that shares a correlation of 0.722 with POS, slightly higher than the recommended cut-off, this figure is underlined in the table.

Table 13 demonstrates that the HTMT ratios for each of the variables is less than 1 and therefore discriminant validity can be established. In addition, an analysis of the wording of the survey statements indicates that while the variables may have similar underpinnings, the elements they measure are different. For example, one of the POS items states "The organisation values my contribution to its well-being", and one EE_OE items states "being a member of this organisation is very captivating". While the focus for both is the organisation, one looks at the active role of the organisation (POS), and EE_OE looks at the passive role. The retention of both elements can provide useful conclusions for my research.

Table 11: Correlations among latent variables with square roots of AVEs

	POS	WLB	PC_CD	PC_JC	PC_SA	PC_FR	PC_RP	EE_JE	EE_OE
POS	0.839								
WLB	0.383	0.903							
PC_CD	0.328	-0.004	0.88						
PC_JC	0.397	-0.067	0.508	0.804					
PC_SA	0.371	0.112	0.457	0.439	0.924				
PC_FR	0.38	0.178	0.534	0.436	0.315	0.815			
PC_RP	0.35	0.46	0.279	0.295	0.402	0.432	0.844		
EE_JE	0.073	-0.22	0.164	0.304	0.055	0.151	-0.042	0.71	
EE_OE	<u>0.722</u>	0.234	0.309	0.399	0.32	0.258	0.284	0.428	0.828

Table 12: Structure loadings and cross-loadings

	POS	WLB	PC_CD	PC_JC	PC_SA	PC_FR	PC_RP	EE_JE	EE_OE
POS1	0.837	0.265	0.254	0.241	0.278	0.274	0.202	0.017	0.618
POS2	0.834	0.397	0.217	0.336	0.307	0.316	0.385	0.093	0.55
POS3	0.716	0.335	0.212	0.305	0.299	0.241	0.308	0.01	0.519
POS4	0.888	0.364	0.208	0.229	0.327	0.347	0.355	0.016	0.649
POS5	0.878	0.31	0.337	0.357	0.336	0.361	0.307	0.012	0.618
POS6	0.878	0.329	0.346	0.382	0.262	0.342	0.234	0.137	0.681
POS7	0.881	0.346	0.271	0.351	0.263	0.353	0.292	0.082	0.627
POS8	0.784	0.219	0.352	0.479	0.429	0.302	0.273	0.121	0.574
WLB1	0.372	0.918	0.048	-0.116	0.127	0.15	0.458	-0.295	0.176
WLB2	0.318	0.868	-0.093	-0.069	0.143	0.105	0.396	-0.221	0.217
WLB3	0.296	0.879	0.023	0.001	-0.004	0.173	0.322	-0.062	0.228
WLB4	0.392	0.947	0.002	-0.056	0.138	0.212	0.479	-0.212	0.224
PC_CD1	0.229	-0.022	0.869	0.434	0.416	0.503	0.214	0.201	0.263
PC_CD2	0.233	-0.002	0.926	0.456	0.384	0.452	0.172	0.146	0.239
PC_CD3	0.411	0.014	0.843	0.452	0.41	0.456	0.359	0.084	0.318
PC_JC1	0.302	0.008	0.38	0.782	0.355	0.328	0.295	0.13	0.299
PC_JC2	0.355	-0.054	0.53	0.864	0.364	0.476	0.278	0.211	0.356
PC_JC3	0.216	-0.114	0.284	0.802	0.235	0.275	0.181	0.368	0.257
PC_JC4	0.407	-0.054	0.434	0.764	0.463	0.311	0.192	0.27	0.372
PC_SA1	0.421	0.134	0.481	0.474	0.892	0.342	0.368	0.025	0.331
PC_SA2	0.292	0.092	0.397	0.345	0.936	0.308	0.382	0.033	0.252

	POS	WLB	PC_CD	PC_JC	PC_SA	PC_FR	PC_RP	EE_JE	EE_OE
PC_SA3	0.364	0.07	0.447	0.425	0.934	0.291	0.364	0.121	0.356
PC_SA4	0.297	0.12	0.368	0.382	0.933	0.225	0.37	0.022	0.247
PC_FR1	0.24	0.082	0.445	0.344	0.25	0.824	0.275	0.217	0.204
PC_FR2	0.349	0.142	0.473	0.485	0.329	0.843	0.381	0.08	0.187
PC_FR3	0.347	0.186	0.452	0.351	0.215	0.855	0.348	0.184	0.305
PC_FR4	0.301	0.174	0.363	0.225	0.232	0.732	0.413	-0.005	0.136
PC_RP1	0.406	0.365	0.288	0.323	0.43	0.362	0.841	0.05	0.33
PC_RP2	0.222	0.377	0.207	0.221	0.258	0.387	0.851	-0.064	0.129
PC_RP3	0.222	0.413	0.136	0.186	0.282	0.277	0.781	-0.105	0.233
PC_RP4	0.327	0.399	0.3	0.263	0.382	0.423	0.898	-0.027	0.267
EE_JE1	0.088	-0.13	0.182	0.252	0.034	0.192	0.009	0.788	0.315
EE_JE2	0.062	-0.15	0.092	0.17	0.005	0.11	0.04	0.729	0.289
EE_JE3	-0.233	-0.485	0.008	0.017	-0.16	-0.133	-0.302	0.538	0.054
EE_JE4	-0.017	-0.099	0.07	0.145	0.015	0.1	-0.072	0.743	0.263
EE_JE5	0.287	-0.008	0.202	0.449	0.251	0.2	0.102	0.724	0.546
EE_OE1	0.7	0.283	0.255	0.39	0.369	0.219	0.362	0.363	0.854
EE_OE2	0.641	0.245	0.276	0.297	0.187	0.178	0.206	0.268	0.84
EE_OE3	0.407	0.112	0.062	0.182	0.024	0.151	0.181	0.325	0.582
EE_OE4	0.613	0.202	0.308	0.366	0.295	0.247	0.247	0.372	0.917
EE_OE5	0.61	0.208	0.311	0.292	0.37	0.28	0.273	0.324	0.892
EE_OE6	0.588	0.093	0.271	0.426	0.276	0.192	0.134	0.488	0.84

Table 13: HTMT ratios

	POS	WLB	PC_CD	PC_JC	PC_SA	PC_FR	PC_RP	EE_JE
POS								
WLB	0.41							
PC_CD	0.37	0.063						
PC_JC	0.458	0.1	0.607					
PC_SA	0.398	0.128	0.512	0.504				
PC_FR	0.429	0.203	0.634	0.521	0.357			
PC_RP	0.389	0.515	0.326	0.349	0.444	0.512		
EE_JE	0.241	0.319	0.22	0.414	0.186	0.273	0.219	
EE_OE	0.783	0.254	0.344	0.461	0.343	0.293	0.322	0.517

4.1.2.3 Collinearity

To check for multicollinearity, the VIF should not be higher than 5, Table 14 demonstrates that these are within the acceptable range.

Table 14: Variation Inflation Factors (VIF)

POS	WLB	PC_CD	PC_JC	PC_SA	PC_FR	PC_RP	EE_JE	EE_OE
3.021	1.662	1.804	1.831	1.565	1.783	1.742	1.688	3.181

Overall, the measurement model has met all the criteria provided under each of the tests: reliability, convergent validity, discriminant validity, and collinearity. These demonstrate that the model is suitable and further SEM procedures can be performed and the results can be generally trusted (Kline, 2016).

4.2   Results of Structural Model

4.2.1   Model Fit

The structural model (inner model) was examined next; this section first looks at the model fit. As Table 15 indicates, for this study, these figures are all satisfactory. While the figures are satisfactory, Kock (2017) points out that model fit indices are less important when testing out hypothesis (as in this research) and are more useful when the goal is to decide on which model has a better fit with the data. These are still helpful to identify any issues with the overall model.

Table 15: Model Fit Indices

APC	ARS	AVIF
0.173*	0.241**	1.538

*p<0.05 **p<0.005

4.2.2   Results of Hypothesis Testing

As noted in Chapter 2, the purpose of my research was to address several research questions surrounding the application of social exchange theory in the employment relationship; these are addressed by the hypotheses that were derived from a critical review of extant scholarship. The questions were:

1. How does perceived organisational support, job and organisation engagement or the psychological contract influence the employee's work-life balance?

2. What relationship does the psychological contract have with work-life balance?

3. How does perceived organisational support or job and organisation engagement influence the psychological contract that employees have with their employers?

Error! Reference source not found. provides a visual representation of the conceptual model. Table 16 provides a summary of the quantitative results from analyses undertaken to respond to each of the

study's hypotheses. Nine of the hypothesised relationships were found to be significant. Three of these nine were significant but not in the expected direction. These were the relationship between job engagement and perception of balance, the relationship between job engagement and respect for private life and the relationship between PC (job content) and perception of balance. These were expected to be positive, with higher levels of job engagement resulting in better of balance and better expectations in terms of practices that respect private life, respectively. The relationship with job engagement and perception of balance as well as respect for private life are related and it is reasonable that employees that are engaged in their job may neglect other domain responsibilities and therefore embody a pessimistic view in terms of their perception of balance and expecting that their organisation will cater to these balance needs. These will be discussed further in the qualitative section (Section 4.3).

Additionally, all the POS hypotheses yielded significant results. This is in line with social exchange theory on the importance that POS has as an antecedent to work behaviour and attitudes. Conversely, all the EE_OE elements did not yield significant results.

Figure 3: Model
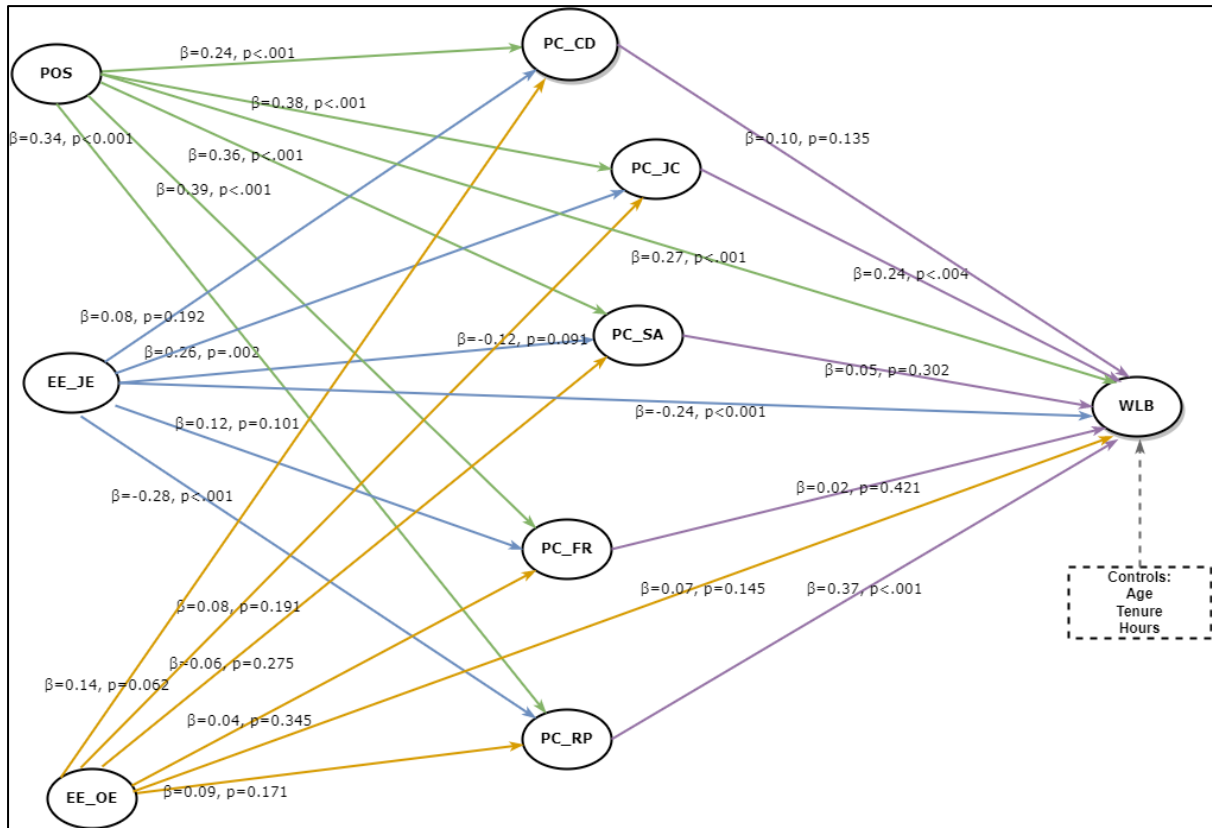
Table 16: Summary of Support for Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Path coefficient (β)	P value	Supported?
H1: POS is positively associated with (Work-Life Balance) WLB	**0.27**	**<0.001**	**Yes**
H2: JE is positively associated with WLB	-0.24	<0.001	No*
H3: OE is positively related with WLB	0.07	0.145	No
H4a: Career Development (PC_CD) is positively associated with WLB	0.10	0.135	No

Hypothesis	Path coefficient (β)	P value	Supported?
H4b: Job Content (PC_JC) is positively associated with WLB	-0.24	0.004	No*
H4c: Social Atmosphere (PC_SA) is positively associated with WLB	0.05	0.302	No
H4d: Financial Rewards (PC_FR) is negatively associated with WLB	0.02	0.421	No
H4e: Respect for Private Life (PC_RP) is positively associated with WLB	**0.37**	**<0.001**	**Yes**
H5a: POS is positively associated with PC_CD	**0.24**	**0.004**	**Yes**
H5b: POS is positively associated with PC_JC	**0.38**	**<0.001**	**Yes**
H5c: POS is positively associated with PC_SA	**0.36**	**<0.001**	**Yes**
H5d: POS is positively associated with PC_FR	**0.39**	**<0.001**	**Yes**
H5e: POS is positively associated with PC_RP	**0.34**	**<0.001**	**Yes**
H6a: JE is positively associated with PC_CD	0.08	0.192	No
H6b: JE is positively associated with PC_JC	**0.26**	**0.002**	**Yes***
H6c: JE is positively associated with PC_SA	-0.12	0.091	No
H6d: JE is positively associated with PC_FR	0.12	0.101	No
H6e: JE is positively associated with PC_RP	-0.28	<0.001	No*
H7a: OE is positively associated with PC_CD	0.14	0.062	No
H7b: OE is positively associated with PC_JC	0.08	0.191	No
H7c: OE is positively associated with PC_SA	0.06	0.275	No
H7d: OE is positively associated with PC_FR	0.04	0.345	No
H7e: OE is positively associated with PC_RP	0.09	0.171	No

*Significant but not in direction hypothesised.

Hypothesis 1 proposed that POS has a significant positive relationship with WLB. As the perception of organisational support increases, the employees' perception of balance increases as well. As expected, and in line with social exchange theory, which says that employees will reciprocate positive investment by their employer with positive attitudes, this relationship was supported (β = 0.27, p<0.01).

Hypothesis 2 stated that EE_JE has a significant positive relationship with WLB. This implies that that as job engagement increases the perception of balance increases. EE_JE did have a significant (p<0.01) relationship; however, it was negative (β = -0.24). Therefore, as job engagement increases the perception of balance decreases and vice versa. The hypothesis was not supported. Further discussion on why the relationship is negative will be provided in the sections that follow.

Hypothesis 3 stated that EE_OE has a significant positive relationship with WLB. This implies that as organisation engagement increases the perception of balance increases. EE_JE did have a significant (p=0.23) positive relationship (β = 0.07) with WLB. This adds support to the view that job and organisation engagement are two different constructs and do not affect employees in the same was, as a negative significant relationship should have been found as with hypothesis 2.

Hypotheses 4 investigated the relationship between the five PC dimensions and WLB. Hypothesis 4a stated that PC_CD has a positive significant relationship with WLB. This hypothesis was not supported. PC_CD was found to have a positive (β =0.10) but not significant (p = 0.13) relationship with WLB. Hypothesis 4b stated that PC_JC has a negative significant relationship with WLB. This hypothesis was supported. PC_JC had a negative (β = -0.24) and significant (p<0.01) relationship with WLB. Hypothesis 4c stated that PC_SA has a positive significant relationship with WLB. PC_SA had a positive (β = 0.05) but not significant (p = 0.30) relationship with WLB. The hypothesis was not supported. Hypothesis 4d stated that PC_FR has a negative significant relationship with WLB. This hypothesis was not supported. PC_FR had a positive (β = 0.02) relationship that was not significant (p = 0.42). Hypothesis 4e stated that PC_RP has a positive significant relationship with WLB. PC_RP has a positive (β = 0.37) and significant (p<0.01) relationship with WLB. Two of the PC dimensions had significant relationships with the perception of balance.

The hypotheses that address the relationship between POS and various dimensions of the PC were all found to be significant. Hypothesis 5a stated that POS has a significant positive relationship with PC_CD. This hypothesis was supported, with β = 0.24 and p<.0.01. As employees perceive that they

are supported by their organisation, their expectations for career development inducements increase. Hypothesis 5b stated that POS has a significant positive relationship with PC_JC. POS did have a significant ($p<0.01$) and positive ($\beta = 0.38$) effect on PC_JC. This hypothesis was supported. Hypothesis 5c stated that POS has a significant positive relationship with PC_SA. POS was found to have a positive ($\beta = 0.36$) and significant ($p<0.01$) relationship with PC_SA. Employees with higher POS levels have higher expectations from their employer in terms of social atmosphere. The hypothesis was supported. Hypothesis 5d stated that POS has a significant positive relationship with PC_FR. This hypothesis was supported. POS had a positive ($\beta = 0.39$) and significant ($p<0.01$) relationship with PC_FR. Hypothesis 5e stated that POS has a significant positive relationship with PC_RP. The results demonstrated that POS does have a positive ($\beta = 0.34$) and significant ($p<0.01$) relationship with PC_RP, supporting the hypothesis. Overall, employees that view their organisations as supportive have higher expectations in terms of the PC dimensions measured.

Hypothesis 6 examines at the relationship between EE_JE and the PC dimensions. It is expected that EE_JE will have a positive relationship with all the five dimensions. Hypothesis 6a stated that EE_JE has a significant positive relationship with PC_CD. EE_JE did have a positive ($\beta = 0.08$) relationship; however, it was not significant ($p = 0.19$). This hypothesis was not supported. Hypothesis 6b stated that EE_JE has a significant positive relationship with PC_JC. This was supported; EE_JE was found to have a positive ($\beta = 0.26$) and significant ($p<.0.01$) relationship with PC_JC. Hypothesis 6c stated that EE_JE has a significant positive with PC_SA. EE_JE was found to have a negative ($\beta =-0.12$) relationship, although it was not significant ($p = 0.09$). This hypothesis was not supported. Hypothesis 6d stated that EE has a significant positive with PC_FR. This hypothesis was not supported. EE_JE had a positive ($\beta = 0.12$) relationship that was not significant ($p = 0.10$). Hypothesis 6e stated that EE has a significant positive relationship with PC_RP. EE_JE was found to have a negative ($\beta = -0.28$) relationship that was significant ($p<0.01$). This is contrary to what was hypothesised. Employees that are more engaged in their job are likely to report lower levels of perception of balance.

None of the hypotheses that theorised on the relationship between EE_OE and the PC dimensions were found to be significant. It was expected that as with EE_JE, EE_OE will have a positive relationship with all the five dimensions. Hypothesis 7a stated that EE_OE has a significant positive relationship with PC_CD. EE_OE did have a positive ($\beta = 0.14$) relationship. However, it was not significant ($p = 0.06$). This hypothesis was not supported. Hypothesis 7b stated that EE_OE has a significant positive relationship with PC_JC. This was not supported; EE was found to have a positive ($\beta = 0.08$), but it was not significant ($p=0.19$) relationship with PC_JC. Hypothesis 7c stated that EE_JE has a significant positive with PC_SA. EE_OE was found to have a positive ($\beta = 0.06$) relationship, although it was not significant ($p = 0.28$). This hypothesis was not supported. Hypothesis 7d stated that EE_OE has a significant positive with PC_FR. This hypothesis was not supported. EE_OE had a positive ($\beta = 0.04$) relationship that was not significant ($p = 0.35$). Hypothesis 7e stated that EE_OE has a significant positive relationship with PC_RP. EE_OE was found to have a positive ($\beta = 0.09$) relationship that was not significant ($p=0.13$). Organisational engagement did not seem to have an influence on any of the PC dimensions.

The model below presents these findings, considering only the significant relationships.

Figure 4: Model after Findings
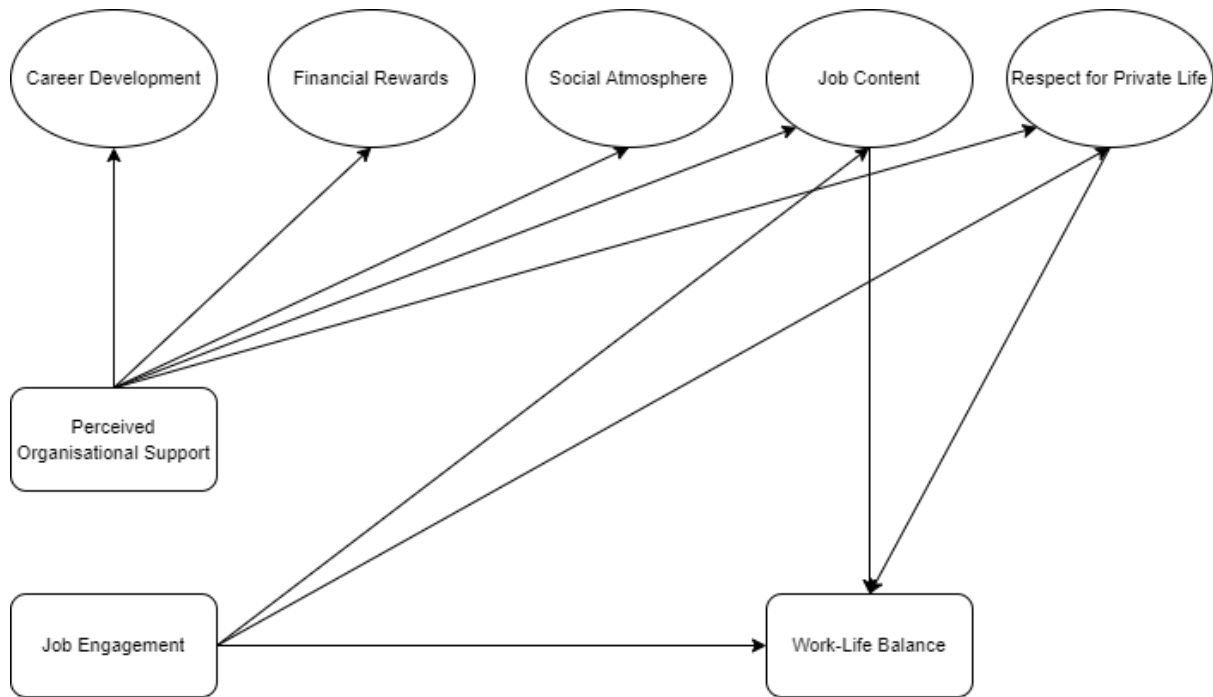
4.3 Qualitative Findings

Several themes emerged from the key informant interviews that were used to supplement the results from the quantitative phase. The interviews began with a general conversation around the SET and its application in the labour market (see Appendix E for the interview guide). The relevance of SET in today's environment received mixed responses. One participant (a diversity expert) noted that SET is still a relevant approach to understanding the relationship dynamics in the current landscape. However, they also acknowledged that there is a desire for organisations to move away from such a transactional nature:

"There is always the attempt to enrich the employee-employer relationship with a more personal approach but that ultimately the return that employers get from the employees is based on what they feel the value it is that they are getting from the organisation…I would caveat that in saying that there

is a massive ambition/drive for organisations to enrich that relationship beyond a pure transactional exchange."

This participant also noted that the relationship is not static; as employees and employers continue to engage in the relationship, adjustments are made in line with how the relationship has shifted:

"...so, as the relationship beyond the contract grows, so does the investment from both sides...and I think if the investment on the employer's side in terms of balance is lacking, you would see an equivalent response in the employees."

This is supported by the human resource professional who noted that while SET is foundationally sound, the employment relationship has shifted greatly and that, as employees become more discerning and critical of employment choices, the relationship is likely to change: "they go into an employment relationship with a relatively uniformed view about what is fundamentally important to them." Another theme that emerged from the informants is that the relationship is skewed as most of the power is in the hand of the organisation. Thus, the strength of the exchange dynamics is in their favour.

The discussion also covered employee expectations and their role in the exchange relationship. The consistent theme with all three participants was that employee expectations are largely personal in that what they would like to receive from their employer is dependent on elements such as their life cycle, culture, and family dynamics. In terms of culture, the diversity expert noted:

"...we have found that certain cultures need more from a care perspective so one would find in certain cultures there is a bigger reliance on extended whanau to help with support, to help care for elders, to help with bereavement arrangements and so forth."

The subjective nature of expectations was also discussed in terms of considerations such as financial rewards, "I think people will put money in different rankings according to their needs and where they are in their lives" (human resource professional). This was noted especially with respect to younger

employees who were said to be more open to negotiation in their early years as they seek to enter the labour market, and then become more discerning as they gain experience and tenure.

The human resource academic brought up the role of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in the exchange relationship as another factor that could affect how each of the variables interacts with others and explained why not all the expected elements provided significant relationships to the outcomes. They referred to Adams' (1963) equity theory in commenting that employees seek fair compensation for their input and thus several conditions can be at play for them to perceive that there is a fair exchange between inputs and outputs. Although this is a different construct, the PC dimensions were largely meant to reflect this; with the more transactional elements of the PC relating to extrinsic motivation and the relational aspects relating to intrinsic motivation. The hypothesis was that the transactional expectations would have an inverse relationship with balance, while the more relational expectations like PC_RP would have a positive relationship. This was only relevant for PC_RP and PC_JC, the other PC expectations did not seem to have a significant.

The interviews also explored the impact of EE and balance. One of the elements that were unexpected from the quantitative phase was the job engagement had a negative relationship with the perception of balance. One participant (human resource academic) noted that there is a trade-off in terms of well-being and engagement in that the more people are engaged, the more likely they are to immerse themselves in their job and therefore as a long-term result would perceive lower levels of balance. Their other priorities may be neglected knowingly or unknowingly, and since the notion of job engagement is focusing on the job, they may place an unequal weight on this aspect and thus the scale is tipped on that end. This was supported by the diversity expert who said, "The more engaged people are the more they are happy to work and the more hours they put in…" This implies that it is the employee that is responsible for this as the organisation may or may not provide incentives that promote balance, but as the employee is so preoccupied with their job, they are not able to use these incentives.

The human resource professional also mentioned that the relationship between job engagement and perception of balance could also be a result of greater demands from the side of the employee for flexibility and so, while they may still be focused on their job, employees are also placing greater demands on the organisation and when these are not met then their perception of balance is affected, despite their engagement levels. However, this is not supported by the quantitative results as job engagement was found to have a significant relationship on the PC dimension of respect for private life. That is, the higher the engagement levels, the lower the expectations in terms of respect for private life. The human resource academic also expressed that sometimes perception is not reality, and employees may perceive that they do not have balance but that they may not be the case. Although this is possible, the rationale for using a self-report perception measure, as discussed in the Methodology chapter, is that, for the individual experiencing it, perception does become reality. Additionally, it would be difficult to identify physical or physiological elements to match their perception as the nature of balance is complex and how it is experienced by everyone is different. This provided further evidence of the complex nature of the employment relationship and how a one size fits all approach is unlikely to remain effective.

It is worth noting that, since these interviews were conducted during a pandemic, the conversation naturally covered the impact of a lockdown on employment relationship dynamics. This provided insights into what employers may opt to do moving forward; and while the initial data collection was done prior the pandemic and its results would not have been affected by it, this discussion is still relevant. All the expert informants agreed that the pandemic opened a few avenues for employers to explore in terms of being able to function and remain productive with a remote workforce. They asserted that both employers and employees now know that it is possible to maintain a workforce that does not have to be in the office on all days, depending on the type of work being done. This impacts on the expectations that employees have as, where previously flexible options may not have seemed feasible, when accommodations were made for flexing working conditions during the lockdown, many employees would now see this an alternative working method. From the informants' shared perspective,

it has also affected the trust element in that where employers were not willing to allow flexible working arrangements because they did not feel their employees could be productive may have found otherwise. For instance, the diversity expert explained:

"We've heard a lot of very good feedback coming from the COVID experience in terms of how people experienced work from home, both from a personal satisfaction perspective and a productivity perspective and it's anecdotal feedback that employers are using and looking at how can we make that work better for us."

With an eye to the future, the interviews concluded with a general question on what some of the essential factors that are necessary for these relationships to be sustainable. A few different concepts were raised that are key elements that organisations and employees need to consider. Psychological safety was mentioned wherein employees perceive that they can voice their needs and will not be reprimanded for doing so. Providing a psychologically safe work environment encourages learning (Edmondson, 1999). Psychological safety deals with how groups view the perceived norm and is improved by supportive work practices (Newman, Donohue, & Eva, 2017). This is in line with the POS concept and the quantitative results attached to POS for this study where, when employees perceive that their organisation is supportive, they then express higher levels of both balance and have higher expectations. In terms of psychological safety, May et al. (2004) suggests that positive co-worker and supervisory relations give employees the confidence that they can deploy their true selves at work. Rich et al. (2010) take a broader view and defines psychological safety as POS in the form of supportive management as well as interpersonal relations and provide evidence for a significant relationship between perceived organisational support and engagement. This implies that providing an environment that is open and conducive to the employee is an element that organisations should continue to develop. A second important consideration was seen to be job design and allowing employees the flexibility to adjust their jobs to suit their needs. Job content was one of two PC dimensions with a significant relationship to the perception of balance. This relates to job design as some of the elements in this scale looked at the opportunity to be able to make decisions; these might be in terms of how, when, and where to work.

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Another element identified was role modelling and its positive impact on the employment relationship. This can also be tied to POS, as when managers and leaders are able to use work-life friendly practices, this signals to employees that the organisation is receptive to this, and they are more likely to follow suit.

4.4   Chapter Summary

This chapter covered the quantitative and qualitative phases of the research. The necessary measures and tests were conducted on the data to ensure that it met the requirements in terms of being used for statistical analysis. An EFA and CFA were conducted on the measurement model; and all criteria were met. The structural model was then examined where the hypotheses were tested, with nine found to be significant. They key findings in relation to the research questions provided several insights. POS was found to have an influence on all the PC dimensions and the perception of balance. Organisational engagement did not have any influence on either the PC dimensions or on the perception of balance. Job engagement had an influence on the perception of balance; and the only PC dimensions with an influence on POS, job engagement and the perception of balance were those related to job content and the respect for private life.

Some of these aspects were further investigated through the key informant interviews. The main themes that arose from these conversations concerned the importance of a supportive work environment, the subjective nature of expectations and the employment relationship and the power that organisations have in the employment relationship to affect outcomes.

The following chapter provides more theoretical backing and explanation for the findings and other concepts that might have impacted the results obtained.

CHAPTER 5 - DISCUSSION

5.0   Introduction

Chapter 4 presented the findings from the quantitative and supplementary qualitative research fieldwork in response to the following research questions:

1. How does perceived organisational support, job and organisation engagement, the psychological contract influence the employee's work-life balance?

2. What relationship does the psychological contract have with work-life balance? and

3. How does perceived organisational support, job and organisation engagement influence the psychological contract that employees have with their employers?

This chapter reflects on the findings and their place within and contribution to extant literature. Section 5.1 provides an overview of the research questions and the hypotheses that address them. Section 5.2 discusses the relationship between Perceived Organisational Support (POS) and Work-Life Balance (WLB). Section 5.3 covers the relationship between Job Engagement (JE) and Organisation Engagement (OE) and WLB. The relationship between the PC and WLB is provided in Section 5.4. Section 5.5 discusses the relationship between POS and employee expectations as measured by the Psychological Contract (PC) followed by a discussion of the relationship between JE, OE, and the PC in Section 5.6.. Section 5.7 presents the conceptual model that arises from the findings. Sections 5.8 and 5.9 deal with the implications and the limitations of the research respectively and finally, a summary of key discussion points in the chapter is provided in Section 5.10.

5.1   Overview of Research Questions and Hypotheses

The section reiterates the research questions and their corresponding hypotheses. Research Question 1 (RQ1) investigates the relationship between POS, JE, and OE with WLB. This question is addressed by Hypotheses 1 – 3. Hypothesis 1 theorises that there is a positive relationship between POS and WLB,

hypothesis 2 claims there is a positive relationship between JE and WLB, and hypothesis 3 claims there is a positive relationship between OE and WLB. These form the first level of analysis, that is, the impact that organisational context in terms of POS, JE and OE has on the employee's perception of balance. The aim is to identify the conditions that contribute to positive perceptions of balance, so employers may be able to provide an environment that is conducive to their expected outcomes. Research Question 2 (RQ2) deals with the relationship between PC and WLB. This is addressed by hypothesis 4a – 4e. Specifically, this investigates how employee expectations impact perceptions of balance. Each of the different PC dimensions is expected to have a positive relationship with WLB, except for the one related to financial rewards. The intention here is to identify whether what employees expect affects how they perceive their balance. If organisations are then able to pinpoint early on what employees expect, they can act accordingly to maintain balance perceptions based on the relationship dynamics. Research Question 3 (RQ3) investigates the influence of POS, JE, and OE on the PC of the employee. This is addressed by hypotheses 5 – 7. Hypothesis 5 suggests a positive relationship between POS and the PC. Hypothesis 6 theorises a positive relationship between JE and the PC and finally hypothesis 7 assumes a positive relationship between OE and the PC. This seeks to identify whether there is an indication that the organisational context can influence the expectations that employees have in different areas. This assists organisations in acknowledging their responsibility in shaping the expectations of the employees and would perhaps encourage them to adjust their environments to promote the expectations they desire to communicate to employees. The sections that follow provide a discussion on each of these questions and hypotheses.

5.2   Perceived Organisational Support and Work-Life Balance

As mentioned above RQ1 is partially addressed under hypothesis 1 by examining the relationship between POS and WLB. Organisations are sometimes guilty of introducing certain practices with the intention of appearing more attractive to employees than competitors. However, when this is done, employees are unable to gain from use of these practices as the infrastructure (culture, messaging, and

support) within the organisation may not sustain it. Heikkinen, Lämsä, and Niemistö (2020) discussed that when organisations provide work-family practices based on business case arguments and not due to the individual needs of the employees, they can create an agency gap in relation to who uses the practices and their employee's perceptions of availability of those practices. Ensuring that the proper foundation is in place is crucial. The results from this empirical study confirmed the expected relationship: POS has a significant positive relationship with WLB (see Chapter 4, section 4.2.2). Indeed, organisational support has been known to be beneficial to employee well-being (McCarthy, Darcy, & Grady, 2010). When organisations are deemed to be supportive, this encourages employees to partake in policies that are conducive to maintaining their balance, thereby improving their perceptions of balance. If the culture is unsupportive, the policies in place are unlikely to alleviate work demands (T. D. Allen, 2001), putting more strain on the employee and leading to perceptions of imbalance. POS is borne of the need for employees to determine whether their organisation will recognise and reward them for their efforts (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). This is a prominent construct in the Social Exchange Theory (SET). Individuals who work in workplace climates that are friendlier in terms of their human resources practices reported less imbalance (Guest, 2002b). WLB practices can lead to improved productivity and reduced turnover (Beauregard & Henry, 2009). Conversely, this implies that those that viewed their organisation as unsupportive would have a negative perception of balance, supporting the SET narrative. This research seeks to contribute to the growing body of literature that acknowledges the organisational context, but even more so in an area that is not as extensively studied – broader WLB and not just the work-family or the conflict discourse.

While some research has focused on support in terms of offering family-friendly practices (Aryee et al., 2005; S. J. Lambert, 2000), this research drew on the notion of 'general' support, indicating that support may not need to be geared towards specific practices to impact on an employee's perception of balance. Ghislieri and Colombo (2014) addressed the term family-friendly which denotes the organisation's support to cater to the employees' work and family responsibilities. Like other early research on WLB, this excludes employees who may not have similar family responsibilities. Condensing the support

feature to only policies that are WLB friendly may be counterproductive. For instance, if employers are only supportive in this regard but are not supportive in other areas such as career development, the sentiment may permeate and taint the overall perception. In seeking explanations for the provision-utilisation gap for family-friendly policies, P. McDonald et al. (2005) noted that some employees viewed these policies as "fringe benefits" and feared the impact they would face to their career progression if they utilised them. As noted in Chapter 2, POS provides a foundation for the culture that is set in an organisation; consistent messaging in terms of support is essential to ensure that employees perceive the overall culture as supportive, with the effects of such trickling down to all the practices in place. As employees feel appreciated, they are more likely to engage in extra role behaviours (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001). The overall atmosphere that is established is thus far more important than focusing support on specific arenas.

Additionally, previous research measured the impact of POS on WLB in terms of either conflict or enrichment. Work-family Conflict (WFC) looks at when employees experience incompatible demands that cause them distress, whereas Work-Family Enrichment (WFE) looks at how experiences in one role can improve experiences in another. Literature in this area found that POS has a negative relationship with WFC (Gurbuz, Turunc, & Celik, 2013) or that POS has a positive relationship with WFE (McNall, Masuda, Shanock, & Nicklin, 2011). Each of these only provides a limited contribution to the broader concept of WLB. The issues with using these two concepts are discussed in Chapter 2; this research moves towards incorporating the concept of WLB into the literature. The findings are consistent with what was expected given extant scholarship, even when comparing to WFC and WFE terms. Job demands is seen as a determinant of WFC (Molino, Cortese, Bakker, & Ghislieri, 2015); when the demands of any role are more than the employee can manage, there is a conflict that can affect other areas. Additionally, high levels of demand can also lead to lower enrichment (Ghislieri et al., 2017). The concept of WLB used here incorporates both aspects; looking at how far they perceive that they can maintain a sense of balance. This implies their ability to manage the various demands of their work and non-work roles. A positive perception incorporates WFE while a negative one reflects WFC.

Therefore, the finding that employees with high POS will experience high perceptions of WLB indicates that they may be able to experience positive engagement with different areas of their life is in line with WFE thinking (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Those with low POS will experience low WLB and may experience greater conflict between their roles is in line with WFC logic. Indeed, the distinction between the two (WFC and WFE) has caused great debate in the literature, and perceptions of balance may be an appropriate way to incorporate a broader and simpler measure (Powell & Greenhaus, 2006; Wayne, Matthews, Crawford, & Casper, 2020). Carlson et al. (2009) explained that the concept of WFB explains variance beyond that offered by WFC and WFE. This research has therefore expanded the term to include other aspects of life beyond the family sphere.

5.3   Job and Organisation Engagement and Perception of Balance

This section covers the remaining hypotheses under RQ1. While investigating the relationship between employee engagement and perception of balance, this research divided EE into two dimensions: JE and OE. The relationship between JE and WLB (Hypothesis 2) was expected to be positive and significant. However, in this study, it was shown to be negatively associated. In addition, the relationship between OE and WLB (Hypothesis 3) was found to be insignificant. According to extant work, overall, engagement is meant to have a positive impact on WLB (Parkes & Langford, 2008; Westman, Brough, & Kalliath, 2009). The negative relationship can be examined using the Job-Demand Resources model (Demerouti, Bakker Arnold, de Jonge, Janssen Peter, & Schaufeli Wilmar, 2001) that posits that when there is a mismatch between the demands of the job and the resources of the employee to meet these demands, psychological strain can arise. When employees are engaged, they are focused on their work and therefore may be more likely to work longer hours or may be less likely to notice the level of their resources expended in their work. This may carry over into their non-work roles in terms of not having sufficient energy or time for other activities, resulting in a perception of imbalance.

Indeed, a balance in engagement in work and non-work roles is expected to enhance WLB as it helps individuals to develop routines that allow them to manage the demands of the different spheres

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(Greenhaus et al., 2003). This implies that while they may enjoy their work and may voluntarily spent more time on it, it does not necessarily translate to perceptions of balance. It is difficult to manage time and resources for work and non-work roles when one area overshadows the other. Balance is an individual's perception of different life roles in line with current priorities (Kalliath & Brough, 2008), and if areas that are deemed important are neglected, are employee may still perceive it in a negative manner. Drawing from this, one can assume that this has implications for measures such as job satisfaction where employees may seem happy in their job but still have negative perceptions of balance. If the level of engagement placed on the work role overtakes the current need for more investment in other areas, then regardless of their satisfaction with their work, this may still negatively impact their balance perceptions. It also places the responsibility of balance on both the organisation and the individual; Shankar and Bhatnagar (2010) discussed that in the WLB discourse the two threads that exist are that WLB is for the individual to achieve and maintain or that it is the employer's responsibility. They asserted that in line with research developments, the advancement of this discourse and practice requires an integration of both. While many initiatives have called for organisations to offer more work-life friendly practices (Chou & Cheung, 2013), if the individual is unaware of when to use them, it is not helpful. However, when employees are engaged, this might cause an imbalance in that they may be more focused on work roles that they neglect other aspect of their life. Sirgy and Lee (2018) conceptualised WLB as the tendency to be fully engaged in every role in one's total role system. Engagement in the job may interfere with that ability, and thus affect perceptions of balance.

JE may further blur the boundaries between work and non-work. In their study of the psychological dynamics involved when individuals transition between various roles, Ashforth, Kreiner, and Fugate (2000) proposed that individuals set boundaries between work and non-work and the strength of these boundaries influences outcomes of the interaction between work and non-work. Individuals who are heavily immersed in their work may have weaker boundaries than others. Clark (2000) stated that weaker boundaries are established to facilitate ease of interaction between different domains. This is similar with entrepreneurs – in addressing the gap of the work-family interface within this arena,

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Jennings and McDougald (2007) observed that entrepreneurs identify with their ventures strongly which can lead to greater investment to them over activities in their other spheres of life. WLB is thus a considerable challenge for many entrepreneurs (Ezzedeen & Zikic, 2017) as they prioritise work over life, and their work is characterised with longer working hours. This phenomenon was corroborated by the key informants, with one noting that individuals who are more engaged are likely to place a heavier weight on their work, neglecting other aspects of their lives in the process. Furthermore, Guest (2002b) claimed that an imbalance was more likely to be reported by those working longer hours. The fluidity of the role boundaries may cause a tension that employees are not able to notice at first because they are so engaged in their roles. However, their perceptions of balance are affected. Sun et al. (2020) found that an individual's psychological border affects their perception of WLB. A psychological border is the rule created by the individual that distinguish the elements that may be appropriate for one border and not the other (Clark, 2000). Blurred boundaries do not allow the employee to recover adequately for other role responsibilities. Employees who are so engrossed in their work may not be able to properly recoup and less recovery activities may in turn lead to less WLB (Wepfer, Allen, Brauchli, Jenny, & Bauer, 2018).

Furthermore, while individuals may enjoy their work, this cannot be used as a substitute for leisure activities (S. Lewis, Rhona, & Gambles, 2003). An important aspect that was brought up during the key informant interviews is the idea of a trade-off between engagement and well-being. Danna and Griffin (1999) described well-being in the workplace as comprising work-related satisfactions, non-work satisfactions and general health. These are closely related to aspects of WLB. The idea that enhanced engagement is at odds with employee well-being is consistent with the discussion provided in the previous paragraph. Employees can be so engaged that they neglect their own well-being in favour of their work. Grant, Christianson, and Price (2007) identified that trade-offs cause some unintended consequences from practices that are expected to yield positive results. However, other research has found evidence to the contrary. Shuck and Reio Jr (2014) discovered that high engagement led to higher psychological well-being whereas low engagement led to higher emotional exhaustion. This could mean

that, while engagement may have benefits psychologically, the physical toll that it takes on the individual may at times override the psychological benefits. Over time, that physical exhaustion may manifest into lower perceptions of balance. Wood et al. (2020) theorised that the negative relationship between engagement and WFB is rooted in role strain, where the various demands the employees face cause detrimental outcomes. While Macey and Schneider (2008) concluded that engagement is a desirable condition, the findings in this study bring that assumption into question. It may be simplistic to deem engagement to be a positive variable without deeper consideration of the levels at which a trade-off may occur or without regard for other factors that might influence its outcome.

The concept of psychological detachment can also be applied to the trade-off that may exist between engagement and perceptions of balance. Fritz and Taylor (2020) referred to psychological detachment as refraining from job-related activities during non-work time. Detachment allows the employee to take a mental break and engage in activities that will enhance their overall well-being. Being able to detach from work demands alleviates the negative effects of those demands (Fritz & Taylor, 2020). Sonnentag et al. (2008) hypothesised that psychological detachment from work during non-work periods is important, especially when work engagement is high. This was investigated further by Skurak, Malinen, Näswall, and Kuntz (2021) who drew from the Job Demands-Resources model and found that engagement and working overtime were indirectly related to work-life conflict through the lack of psychological detachment from work. They recommended that for organisations to benefit from an engaged workforce, they must allow and facilitate detachment from work.

Another feature that helps to explain the relationship between JE and WLB is that employees who are more engaged tend to have longer working hours. Valcour (2007) studied the effect of three variables, including working hours on the WLB satisfaction, and found that there is an adverse impact of long working hours on satisfaction, which disturbs the employee's WLB. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) initially identified three types of conflicts: time-based conflict, resulting out of the time required to fulfil the roles of both domains (work and family); strain-based conflict, resulting out of negative emotions and fatigue due to roles being performed in family and work domain; and behaviour-based conflict,

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resulting from the expectations and required behaviour in one role which influences the other domain of an individual. Indeed, time-based conflict has been the centre-point of research as the working hours interfere with the time left for family and leisure for an individual (Crompton & Lyonette, 2006). While conflict is not a measure of balance, it can help to inform the relationship as employees who experience conflict are likely to have negative perceptions of WLB. This raises the idea that employers should seek to limit the total number of working hours that employees spend on their job, regardless of whether they perform them voluntarily or not.

As outlined earlier, the relationship between OE and WLB was not shown to be significant.

This validates Saks (2006) claims (discussed in Chapter 2) that the two are different constructs and should be measured differently. While investigating the relationship between JE and OE on job satisfaction, Farndale, Beijer, Van Veldhoven, Kelliher, and Hope-Hailey (2014) hypothesised that job satisfaction would have a stronger association to JE than OE due to the target outcomes being at the same (job) level. Their results were contrary with OE explaining a larger variance in job satisfaction. They implied that the finding was due to job satisfaction being more perceived as a state-of-mind like OE as opposed to a behaviour-focused outcome like JE. Even with this line of thinking, this research contrasts with that assumption. WLB is based on perception and is therefore a state-of-mind outcome and therefore should yield a signification association with OE. However, this was not shown to be the case. Cropanzano et al. (2017) also noted that with SET, the most common response is to match as well as one can. Thus, while OE could trigger a response in terms of loyalty which is more related to the organisation, it may not be very effective with WLB. The employee's view of membership in an organisation may not impact their perception of balance. This could be due to the active or passive nature of each of the elements. JE is more active as it deals with the employee's work directly and OE is more passive as it looks at an external referent and given that WLB is also more personal to the employee. This contrasts with what other researchers would suggest; Mishra and Bhatnagar (2019) sought to determine the relationship between different antecedents - individual (family role salience), organisational (work-family culture) and social (community support) on work-to-family enrichment.

They identified that each were directly related to work-to-family enrichment. Additionally, Carlson, Bozeman, Kacmar, Wright, and McMahan (2000) noted that achievement motivation does not affect the employee's attitude towards training because training was only viewed as a necessary achievement These arguments, although not directly investigating the same variables provide an indication that the relationship between OE and WLB could offer a more complex dynamic than was considered in this study. Further research would need to be undertaken to investigate the level analysis elements revealed in this discussion.

5.4   Psychological Contract and Perception of Balance

In addressing RQ2, hypotheses 4a-4e investigated the relationship between the five dimensions of the PC and WLB. Only two of the dimensions - Job Content and Respect for Private Life - were found to be significant. Job Content was negatively associated with WLB, and Respect for Private Life was positively associate with WLB. Significantly, the latter findings on job content are contrary to what was expected, given extant scholarship (Ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). When viewing the PC in terms of transactional versus relational elements, the observed relationship makes more sense, however. it is largely theorised that transactional elements such as job content would have a negative association with the perception of balance based on the nature of these types of contracts. S. Lewis and Smithson (2001) identified that transactional contracts may expect less organisational security and may not feel entitled to family-friendly practices. The element of job content as described earlier (Section 2.62) deals with the control over work and responsibilities. As employees expect their responsibilities to increase, it is likely that their perceptions of balance will decrease as they anticipate more workload and work intensity. Dilmaghani (2021) acknowledged that flexible working arrangements can lead to increased work intensification. Flexible working arrangements usually entail those employees have a level of control over timing or place of work. While this form of control is expected to yield positive benefits, in their study of home based telework within the IT industry in India Bathini and Kandathil (2019) discovered that it can be used to coerce employees to complete office-based intensified work at home.

Therefore, while the employees may rightfully expect more control, it pushes them to become more involved with their work and thus experience lower perceptions of balance. Additionally, the expected increase in job content is likely to interfere with non-work activities. J. C. Williams et al. (2013) proposed that 'flexibility stigma' has a significant impact on perceptions of balance. Even when employees have the increased accessibility of flexible working arrangements, they were not found to be utilised despite the strong desire of employees to use them. Therefore, as employees expect that they will have greater autonomy in terms of their job, they are unlikely to make any use of this in relation to their WLB. These employees are also seen as deviants from the 'ideal worker norm' Thébaud and Pedulla (2016), which is still prevalent in today's workplaces despite the improvements, even in the NZ context (Chowdhury & Gibson, 2019; D. Smith, Spronken-Smith, Stringer, & Wilson, 2016).

In this study, Respect for Private Life was shown to be positively related to WLB, meaning that the higher the expectation that the organisation will have a respect for their private life, the higher the employee's perception of balance. This expectation sets a positive outlook for the organisation as PC expectations are developed from cues given by the organisation. Using signalling theory, Suazo, Martínez, and Sandoval (2009) found suggested that managers should be aware of the cues that their messages in terms of human resource practices send to employees. They caution that organisations may be unknowingly creating both psychological and legal contracts. Conversely, when employees have low expectations, their perception of balance is likely to be low as well. In both instances, their expectation seems to influence their perception. De Lange, Heilbron, and Kok (2018) noted that there are several ways expectations can influence perception and that the biasing effects of expectations can occur indirectly. Moreover, Rosen (2012) classified humans as anticipatory systems that make sense and adapt to information. This means that organisations need to be aware of the nature of the expectations that they set with their employees as they inform subsequent attitudes and likely behaviour.

The other dimensions of the PC (financial rewards, career development and social atmosphere) did not yield significant results. This could be because these elements do not have direct links to the concept of WLB, and therefore are not critical when looking at the perception of balance that employees have.

Gallucci and Perugini (2003) found that an individual's reciprocity preferences affected their behavioural choices. This implies that the nature of the exchange relationship is more subjective than most research would suggest. This could extend to the outcome as well; certain actions may lead to responses in outcomes while other actions may lead to another outcome. 'Tit-for-tat' exchanges are not always possible (Cooper-Thomas & Morrison, 2018). In their review of SET, Cropanzano et al. (2017) noted that certain situational constraints such as abusive supervisions and differences in power dynamics can stop employees from reacting in the expected manner in relation to reciprocity. They noted that employees may choose not to respond if their preferred option is not viable to them. Situational constraints thus tend to make behaviour more inactive. Therefore, employees who have high expectations for financial rewards may not experience an effect on their perceptions of WLB as those elements may not be connected. Low et al. (2016) revealed that the PC focusing on employee career development influences the effective commitment of employees. These two are linked and imply that each of the other PC dimensions that were not significantly related to WLB could be associated with other outcomes. The type of expectations that employees have affects how they will respond to different work elements.

5.5   Perceived Organisational Support and the Psychological Contract

Hypotheses 5a – 5e investigated the relationship between POS and the five dimensions of the PC: career development, job content, social atmosphere, financial rewards, and respect for private life as provided in RQ3. Each of these hypotheses were found to have a significant positive relationship. These results were in line with what was expected according to the literature (Ten Brummelhuis & van der Lippe, 2010). POS creates a climate for the organisation, and this can affect the expectations that an employee develops. If an organisation is viewed as supportive, this gives the employee the confidence to have high expectations in terms of what inducements they may receive from their employer. POS strengthens the positive assessment made by employees (Ristig, 2009) and so it is reasonable that an employee that thinks highly of their employer will expect more from them as well. As POS impacts the overall culture

of the organisation, it impacts on all the types of expectations, financial or relational. Indeed, environmental factors significantly affect the PCs of employees (Ho & Levesque, 2005). In researching the construction industry Newaz, Davis, Jefferies, and Pillay (2019) discovered that the perceived levels of safety climate factors have a significant positive relationship with the PC of safety. This implies that as employees acknowledge that their employer was cognisant and provided for their safety, they have higher expectations in terms of their safety. The employee believes that the organisation values them and will therefore be expectant of treatment that reflects this. This is evident even when the organisation is viewed negatively; M. S. Kim and Choi (2010)) found that organisations that conducted mass layoffs put doubts in the PCs of their employees. Additionally, these employees carried on these feelings of distrust to other organisations. Therefore, since the employees had already encountered unmet expectations, these shaped their future expectations and their subsequent PCs. As this research notes, employee expectations are a critical component for organisations to consider, in terms of WLB and other outcomes.

5.6   Job and Organisation Engagement and the Psychological Contract

This section addresses the remaining hypotheses under RQ3. Hypotheses 6a – 6e investigated the relationship between JE and the five dimensions of the PC. Hypotheses 7a – 7e looked at the relationship between OE and the five dimensions of the PC. The only significant relationships were that between JE and job content and JE and respect for private life. JE was positively associated with job content while it was negatively associated with respect for private life. The latter relationship was not as expected, JE was meant to be positively associated to all elements of the PC. Malik and Khalid (2016) observed a relationship between engagement and the PC; in reference to the relationship between JE and job content, it is reasonable that when employees are engaged, they would expect more autonomy in terms of the content of their work. Job content looks at the level of control they have in their job as well as the ability to use their skills. As individuals immerse themselves into their work, they can be more productive and, as a result, are likely to expect more autonomy in how they carry out their role.

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Autonomy is defined as the extent to which the employee has freedom and discretion in their work role (Hackman, 1980). In their longitudinal study of the work engagement experiences of Finnish health care personnel, Mauno, Kinnunen, and Ruokolainen (2007) found that autonomy and work engagement are positively related. As employees have more freedom and discretion in how they do their work, the more investment of energy and focus they put into it. As this investment continues to increase, the more they expect that they would be able to continue to have a certain level of control over their work. Employees that are engaged are aware that they are trusted by the organisation and are expectant of more challenging work as they have proven that they can manage it. This continues to fuel the circle of autonomy and engagement and eventually results in positive work outcomes for the organisation.

Additionally, it was expected in this study that, as employees become more engaged, they would have higher expectations in terms of the Respect for Private Life dimension. However, the quantitative findings contradicted this expectation as a significant negative association between the two was found. Perhaps as employees become more engaged, they are expectant that their role will increase in terms of responsibilities giving them less time for their non-work activities and therefore they lower their expectations in terms of their private life. The first half of this proposition was also demonstrated in the earlier paragraph of this section where the employees had high expectations in terms of job content, so this could explain this inverse relationship. As work engagement is characterised by employees working long hours exceeding requirements and strong dedication to work, they may be aware that this necessitates that work take precedence over other roles and therefore expect an imbalance between the two.

OE was not found to be significant with any of the five dimensions. This implies that as with WLB, OE is not a good indicator in terms of employee expectations. This is surprising given the significance of POS (which has similar yet different factors) on the dimensions. Research on OE specifically is scarce as many authors have taken engagement to mean employee or job/work engagement. Farndale et al. (2014) noted that, while JE has been the focus of academics, OE has been the focus of practitioners. This finding might suggest that OE, while being different from JE, is not a useful antecedent for this

model. The key informants were also not able to provide concrete reasoning to why this concept would yield insignificant results compared to POS.

5.7 Conceptual Model

The figure below presents the findings as a conceptual model, aiming to integrate the significant relationships to understand the dynamics at play.

Figure 5: Conceptual Model
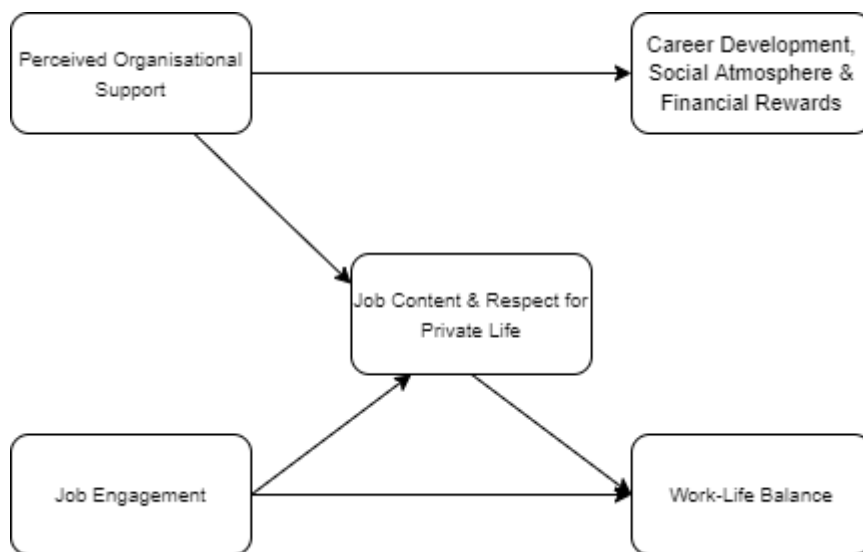
5.8 Implications of the Research

This research contributes to the work-life literature in the following ways. Theoretically, the area of the PC is well researched, however, most of the research is focused on breach or violation of the contracts. Measures and relationships that rely on the content of the PC are scarce. This research looked at the content of the PC in terms of the five dimensions that encompass most employer inducements: career development, job content, social atmosphere, financial rewards, and respect for private life. Looking at the dimensions independently allows researchers to pinpoint which expectations have the biggest impact on outcomes. In relation to this study, job content and respect for private life had the only

impacts on WLB. Without this breakdown, researchers are unable to further investigate whether this would be consistent with other work outcomes or if the impact of expectations are even more nuanced than previously imagined. Additionally, stepping away from the traditional classification of the PC as transactional or relational also provides more insight into the concept. The transactional-relational typology works more as a continuum, and it is difficult to classify any contract exclusively as one or the other. Using the five dimensions eliminates this issue.

Past researchers (Kossek & Lautsch, 2012; Ollier-Malaterre, Valcour, Den Dulk, & Kossek, 2013) have argued that the inclusion of context would help to expand the understanding of the interdependence between the work and life domains. Contextual factors are likely to influence the work and life experiences of individuals and, thus, complement existing theoretical frameworks in explaining employee decision-making or actual behaviours and interactions between work-life variables. The context could be the societal or national culture (Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2013), the organisational culture and climate in which employees work (Kossek & Lautsch, 2012), personal context (e.g., worker in the context of other family members' schedules) (Kossek & Michel, 2011) or the life and career stage an employee is at (Demerouti, Peeters, & van der Heijden, 2012). This research has sought to incorporate both organisational climate (POS and engagement) and personal differences (PC) within the framework.

The addition of key informant interviews also provides a strength to the research. The key informants served to provide additional insights on areas that were unexpected. In the situations, where there was no feasible explanation found, as was the case for the explanation of the non-significance of OE, it opens a new avenue for research. If findings go beyond research and academia, further investigation is warranted. The expertise afforded by the interviewees helped to put the quantitative findings into perspective, and while this method is common in healthcare and nursing literature, it should gain popularity within the organisational behaviour and human resources fields.

This research has provided insights on the variables used for measurement that provide some practical implications for organisations. In terms of engagement the results imply that engagement with the

organisation may not be as important as engagement with the job itself. Additionally, the PC elements that yielded significant results related to job content and respect for private life, both when they were measured with JE as an antecedent and WLB as an outcome. This implies that these two aspects may be more important than the other expectations in the employment relationship. The research is clear in that policies or practices that are not beneficial to the employee serve little purpose. Therefore, organisations may then wish to focus on those aspects that are relevant; however, without further investigation the suggestion to disregard OE in relation to WLB cannot be made conclusively.

5.9 Limitations and Future Research

One limitation of the study concerned the use of a cross-sectional design. Podsakoff et al. (2003) indicate that the use of cross-sectional data can lead to common method bias. As discussed in Section 3.3.2, while there are no concerns with the CMV measure, it is worth noting that future research could benefit from using a different approach. Given that the constructs observed such as the PC and the WLB are ever-changing states, further research employing other techniques that take this into account could be warranted. With the use of cross-sectional data, it is difficult to determine whether other factors that could bias the measures played a role in the outcome of the model (Spector, 2019). For example, the current mood of the participant completing the survey might produce misleading results. As the concepts measured rely on employee perceptions which are subject to influence, it is reasonable that employees in a pleasant mood might respond more favourably in that moment than those in an unpleasant one. To combat this, subsequent studies may look to introducing a temporal separation where data is gathered at different times. Such a time-lagged approach would further validate that the results obtained are consistent within the individual, offering a more representative and dynamic picture of their perceptions.

Future research could also seek to investigate how the relationships shift in different circumstances. A longitudinal approach would help to provide an indication of how employers can adapt with the changes in their employees' expectations and perceptions. Combining a longitudinal approach with a case study,

for instance, would also allow for certain measures like POS to be further tested in terms of whether employees of the same organisation can have different perceptions and bring to the forefront other factors that might this perception. To be more useful, the longitudinal timeframe would need to be long enough to encompass the different life, career, and development stages of the participant. This level of investment was not possible within the scope of this research. The cross-sectional approach sets the foundation for the relationships, with more ease than a longitudinal approach. Future research should look to develop a comprehensive study with individuals from the same organisation and follow them on their career and life journey to develop a framework that is more accurate to the dynamic nature of the concepts measured in this research.

Finally, as noted in Section 5.3, it would be interesting to see if OE would provide any significant association with organisation level outcomes like commitment or loyalty to further test its inclusion in subsequent models. OE was not found to yield any significant relationships with the PC or WLB, and since it is normally grouped together with JE to form an overall engagement view, this finding offers room for some significant strides to be made in the engagement field. The assumption that this variable was not significant due to its nature can be tested to further develop theoretical and practical implications. Future research could then explore whether the level of analysis for OE plays a role in different outcomes.

5.10   Summary

This chapter provided a discussion of the research findings. Overall, in relation to the research questions, it also noted the study's results in relation to extant scholarship, demonstrating where it makes contributions to knowledge. POS and JE were seen to have a positive influence on WLB; OE was found not to have any influence on WLB. POS and JE were also found to have an influence on two employee expectations (job content and respect for private life); again, OE was not found to have an influence. Finally, only expectations relating to job content and respect for private life were found to have an influence on the perception of balance. While the research does not serve as conclusive, it does

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raise the question of the use of OE as none of the expected relationships relating to it were significant. The nature of the construct and the outcomes measured might play a part in this, but it is too early to dismiss its relevance. However, what was noted from this discussion is that employees take account of their organisations culture and their perception of how the organisation views them goes on to shape their expectations of the organisation. As these expectations form, they have direct impacts on the areas they cover. Additionally, the level at which employees immerse themselves into their work is not always beneficial for the employee, specifically in terms of their perception of balance. Social exchanges are more complicated than originally thought and organisations need to recognise this to provide a conducive work environment for their employees. The following chapter will provide a conclusion as well as the theoretical and practical contributions of the study.

CHAPTER 6 - CONCLUDING REMARKS

This study studied the relationship between organisational context and work-life balance (WLB). Specifically, perceived organisational support (POS), the psychological contract (PC) and job and organisation engagement (JE & OE respectively) served as the organisational context. Social exchange theory (SET) was used as the basis for this research because it adequately explains the relationship between all the variables involved. It is also a fundamental theory in terms of the employee-employer relationship and the dynamics therein. Recognising that employment relationships have become more complicated as time goes on, it was important to investigate a concept that has gained popularity in recent times – WLB. While previous research on this area has largely focused on family responsibilities, this study was unique in expanding the concept to consider other non-work domains in the conceptualisation of the term and the deployment of the measure. Another reason for this focus is the fact that the identity of the individual is no longer tied solely to work. Thomas et al. (2016) highlighted the benefit for employers such as attractiveness to the firm, commitment, and retention, from considering employees' different value propositions when catering to them.

Based on a review of mostly human resource and organisational behaviour scholarship, this study sought to address research gaps by seeking to understand the various factors that may influence employees' perceptions of balance. It thus posed the following research questions:

1. How does perceived organisational support, job and organisation engagement or the psychological contract influence the employee's work-life balance?

2. What relationship does the psychological contract have with work-life balance? and

3. How does perceived organisational support or job and organisation engagement influence the psychological contract that employees have with their employers?

A national questionnaire was undertaken to investigate the relationships. Subsequently, key informant interviews were then undertaken with a human resource professional, academic and a diversity expert

to explore the quantitative findings in more depth. The main findings of the study were that POS and JE exhibited a relationship with two dimension of the PC (job content and respect for private life) and WLB. POS additionally also had a relationship with the other PC dimensions (social atmosphere, financial rewards, and career development). OE was not found to have a significant relationship with any of the other variables. In the preceding chapter, their key implications for theory and practice were outlined.

Clearly, this is an area of study where there is scope for further investigation. In the NZ context, for instance several demographic changes have shifted the employment landscape and organisations must adapt with these developments. As shifting priorities move people towards pursuing more non-work-related activities, employers also proceed towards catering for those needs to maintain a sustainable workforce. However, the phenomena under examination are not exclusive to workers in Aotearoa; they are of central importance to workers in other national contexts, highlighting this study as a steppingstone to comparative inquiry, for instance (and so on).

At the time of writing, it is difficult to adjudge whether COVID will recede or continue for some time. This, and other factors such as the rise of 4-day work weeks, and other flexible working arrangements highlight the significance of continuing to better our understanding of employee perceptions of WLB as well account for the differences in priorities that exist, such that they, their workplaces, and society may function more effectively and responsibly.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A – Questionnaire

Introduction

This research project is conducted by Josephine Malenga, a Doctoral student at the School of Management in Massey University, supervised by Professor Jane Parker and Professor Tim Bentley.

This research aims to investigate whether specific employee needs influence the effectiveness of work-life balance policies offered. It builds on the idea that employee expectations are different and therefore organisations need to provide differing work-life balance policies to satisfy those needs, and the satisfaction of those needs is what leads to positive outcomes. This questionnaire will explore your experiences and opinions about several aspects to do with work-life balance policies that are important for responding to the study's aim(s).

The questionnaire is expected to take 15 – 20 minutes to complete. We appreciate you taking the time to complete the questionnaire. Your participation is entirely voluntary and there will be no negative effects should you decide not to take part or choose not to complete the questionnaire.

This research will focus on individuals employed in New Zealand institutions, whether on a part-time or full-time basis, permanent or fixed term. This will also include those who work in more than one organisation.

More information on this project can be found on the information sheet attached (Information Sheet), please have a look at the document before proceeding.

All the information collected will be kept confidential – you will not be able to be identified in any report or publications.

Project Contacts

Josephine Malenga (Researcher) - j.malenga@massey.ac.nz

Prof. Jane Parker (Supervisor) - j.parker@massey.ac.nz

Prof. Tim Bentley (Co-Supervisor) - t.a.bentley@massey.ac.nz

If you have any questions regarding this project, please contact any of the above contacts.

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Northern, Application NOR 18/55. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Associate Professor David Tappin (Committee Chair), Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Northern, email humanethicsnorth@massey.ac.nz .

By clicking the button below, you acknowledge that your participation in the study is voluntary, you are 18 years of age, and that you are aware that you may choose to terminate your participation in the study at any time and for any reason.

O I consent, begin the study

O I do not consent, I do not wish to participate

Section A: Demographic Information

Currently, how many paid jobs do you have?

[dropdown]

What was the total number of hours worked (on average) across all of your jobs, in the past week?

[text box]

Which industry sector do you work in (in your main job)?

O Agriculture & Forestry

O Mining

O Manufacturing

O Retail Trade

O Construction

O Accommodation and Food Services

O Information Media and Telecommunications

O Transport, Postal and Warehousing

O Rental, Hiring and Real Estate Services

O Professional, Scientific and Technical Services

O Arts and Recreation Services

O Public Administration and Safety

O Financial and Insurance Services

O Administrative and Support Services

O Health care and Social Assistance

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○ Wholesale Trade   ○ Education and Training   ○ Other Services (Please Specify)

○ Electricity, Gas, Water and Waste Services

How long have you been working in your current organisation (main job) Select the closest number in the drop down menu.

[▼]

How would you describe your relationship with your main employer?

○ Permanent employee

○ Temporary/fixed term employee

○ Other (Please Specify) [   ]

Do you have any dependent care responsibilities?

○ Child care

○ Elder care

○ Both

○ Neither

How many dependents (child care/elder care) do you have?

○ None

○ 1 - 2

○ 3 - 4

○ More than 4

How old are you?

○ 16 - 20 years old   ○ 41 - 50 years old

○ 21 - 30 years old   ○ 51 - 60 years old

○ 31 - 40 years old   ○ Over 60 years old

Gender

○ Male

○ Female

○ Other (Please Specify) [   ]

O Do not wish to specify

What is your ethnicity?

O European   O Asian
O Maori   O Middle Eastern/Latin American/African
O Pacific peoples   O Other (Please Specify)

[   ]

Section B: Work-Life Balance Policies

Does your organisation offer any of the following programs or benefits? Please select the response that best represents your view for each item.

	Yes	No	Not Sure
Flexible hours	O	O	O
Part-time work	O	O	O
Job sharing (two people sharing a full-time position)	O	O	O
Telecommuting/working from home	O	O	O
Compressed work week (reduced number of days in a work week)	O	O	O
Paid maternity leave	O	O	O
Paid paternity leave	O	O	O
Paid leave for adoptive parents	O	O	O
Career breaks	O	O	O
Use of employee sick days to attend to family commitments	O	O	O
On-site or near-site childcare facilities	O	O	O
School holiday care	O	O	O
After school care	O	O	O
Childcare information and referral services	O	O	O

	Yes	No	Not Sure
Emergency, back-up or sick childcare	O	O	O
Nursing mother rooms	O	O	O
Employee assistance programme	O	O	O
Relocation services	O	O	O
Support groups for employees with family issues	O	O	O
Seminars for employees with family issues	O	O	O

Section C: Perceived Organisational Support

Below are statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about working at your organisation. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly agree
The organisation values my contribution to its well-being	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
If the organisation could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary it would do so	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
The organisation fails to appreciate any extra effort from me	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
The organisation strongly considers my goals and values	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly agree
The organisation would ignore any complaint from me	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
The organisation disregards my best interests when it makes decisions that affect me	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Help is available from the organisation when I have a problem	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
The organisation really cares about my well-being	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
Even if I did the best job possible, the organisation would fail to notice	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
The organisation is willing to help me when I need a special favor	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
The organisation cares about my general satisfaction at work	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
If given the opportunity, the organisation would take advantage of me	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
The organisation shows very little concern for me	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
The organisation cares about my opinions	O	O	O	O	O	O	O
The organisation takes pride in my accomplishments at work	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly agree
The organisation tries to make my job as interesting as possible	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Section D: Perception of Balance

When you reflect over your work and non-work activities (your regular activities outside of work such as family, friends, sports, study, etc.), over the past three months, you can conclude that:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I currently have a good balance between the time I spend at work and the time I have available for non-work activities	○	○	○	○	○
I have difficulty balancing my work and non-work activities	○	○	○	○	○
I feel that the balance between my work demands and non-work activities is currently about right	○	○	○	○	○
Overall, I believe that my work and non-work life are balanced	○	○	○	○	○

Section E: Psychological Contract

To what extent did your organisation make the following promises to you, either implicitly or explicitly?

	Not promised at all	Slightly	Somewhat	Moderately	Promised to a very great extent
Opportunities for promotion	O	O	O	O	O
Opportunities for career development within the organisation	O	O	O	O	O
Opportunities to grow	O	O	O	O	O
A job in which you can make decisions by yourself	O	O	O	O	O
Opportunities to show what you can do	O	O	O	O	O
A job with responsibilities	O	O	O	O	O
Opportunities to use your skills and capabilities	O	O	O	O	O
A good atmosphere at work	O	O	O	O	O
Positive relationships between colleagues	O	O	O	O	O
A good mutual cooperation	O	O	O	O	O
A good communication among colleagues	O	O	O	O	O
Financial rewards for exceptional performance	O	O	O	O	O
Wage increases based on your performance	O	O	O	O	O
An attractive pay and benefits package	O	O	O	O	O
Regular benefits and extras	O	O	O	O	O
Respect for your personal situation	O	O	O	O	O
Opportunities for flexible working hours depending on your personal needs	O	O	O	O	O

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	Not promised at all	Slightly	Somewhat	Moderately	Promised to a very great extent
The opportunity to decide for yourself when you take your vacation	O	O	O	O	O
A flexible attitude concerning the correspondence between your work and private life	O	O	O	O	O

Section F: Employee Engagement

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I really "throw" myself into my job	O	O	O	O	O
Sometimes I am so into my job that I lose track of time	O	O	O	O	O
This job is all consuming	O	O	O	O	O
I am totally into my job	O	O	O	O	O
My mind often wanders and I think of other things when doing my job	O	O	O	O	O
I am highly engaged in this job	O	O	O	O	O
Being a member of this organisation is very captivating	O	O	O	O	O
One of the most exciting things for me is getting involved with things happening in this organisation	O	O	O	O	O

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am really not into the "goings-on" in this organisation	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Being a member of this organisation make me come "alive"	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Being a member of this organisation is exhilarating for me	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I am highly engaged in this organisation	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Section G: Leader-Member Exchange

For each of the items, indicate the degree to which you think the item is true for you by selecting one of the responses that appear below the item.

Do you know where you stand with your leader, and do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do?	Rarely	Occassionally	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Very Often
	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?	Not a bit	A little	A fair amount	Quite a bit	A great deal
	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
How well does your leader recognize your potential?	Not at all	A little	Moderately	Mostly	Fully
	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Regardless of how much formal authority your leader has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your leader would use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?	None	Small	Moderate	High	Very High
	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he or she would "bail you out" at his or her expense?	None	Small	Moderate	High	Very High
	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
How would you characterize your	Extremely	Worse than	Average	Better	Extremely

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working relationship with your leader? ineffective   average   than   effective
                                                                                                         average

	ineffective	average		than average	effective
	○	○	○	○	○

Section H: Affective Commitment

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation	○	○	○	○	○
I enjoy discussing about my organisation with people outside it	○	○	○	○	○
I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own	○	○	○	○	○
I think that I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one	○	○	○	○	○
I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organisation	○	○	○	○	○
I do not feel emotionally attached to this organisation	○	○	○	○	○
This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning to me	○	○	○	○	○
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation	○	○	○	○	○

Section I: Job Satisfaction

For the item below, indicate the degree to which you think the item is true for you by selecting one of the responses that appear below.

	Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
All in all, how satisfied are you with your job?	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with your present job when you compare it to jobs in other organisations?	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with the progress you are making toward the goals you set for yourself in your present position?	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with the chance your job gives you to do what you are best at?	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with your present job when you consider the expectations you has when you took the job?	○	○	○	○	○
How satisfied are you with your present job in light of your career expectations?	○	○	○	○	○

Final Comments

Is there anything else about Work-Life Balance (Policies) that you would like to add?

Results

Would you like to receive a brief summary of the findings once they are available? If you select yes, the survey will redirect you to a separate link that will collect your email address. Your contact details are separate to your responses.

O Yes

O No

Powered by Qualtrics

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Appendix B – Information Sheet

The Relationship between Work-Life Balance Policies and the Perception of Balance

INFORMATION SHEET

This research project is conducted by Josephine Malenga, a Doctoral student in Management at the School of Management in Massey University, supervised by Professor Jane Parker and Professor Tim Bentley.

You are invited to take part in this research. Your participation is entirely voluntary and there will be no negative effects should you decide not to take part or choose not to complete the questionnaire.

The following information sheet describes the purpose of the research, what your participation will involve, as well as what will happen after the research is completed. Please make sure you have read and understood all the information provided.

Research aim
This research aims to investigate whether specific employee needs influence the effectiveness of work-life balance policies offered. It builds on the idea that employee expectations are different and therefore organisations need to provide differing work-life balance policies to satisfy those needs, and the satisfaction of those needs is what leads to positive outcomes. This questionnaire will explore your experiences and opinions about several aspects to do with work-life balance policies that are important for responding to the study's aim(s). The specific objectives are as follows:
* *To examine whether the work-life balance policies offered have an independent impact on the perception of balance;*
* *To determine whether the support of organisations has an impact on the perception of balance;*
* *To understand whether the type of psychological contract an employee has will moderate the relationship between the work-life balance policies and the perception of balance; and*
* *To examine the effect of perception of balance on employee engagement.*

Research contribution
This research aims to provide a case for the use of more personalized employment conditions in terms of work-life balance, allowing employers to cater to the needs of their employees in a more effective manner. The overall objective is to move away from a "one size fits all" approach to work-life balance policies and allow employees a greater role in determining the work-life benefits they are able to enjoy.

This research will focus on individuals employed in New Zealand institutions, whether on a part-time or full-time basis, permanent or fixed term. This will also include those that are employed in more than one organisation.

You will be required to complete an online questionnaire. The questionnaire is expected to take 15 – 20 minutes to complete.

All the information collected will be kept confidential – you will not be able to be identified in any report or publications. Any information will be stored in a password-protected environment. Data will only be accessible to the researcher and supervisors. Any aggregated data used in research outputs ill not reveal participant identities. If you wish to be informed of the results once the research is completed, at the end of the questionnaire you will be asked to provide your email address. This will only be accessible by the researcher and supervisors.

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:
* *decline to answer any particular question;*
* *withdraw from the study;*
* *ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;*
* *provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher;*
* *be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded.*

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UNIVERSITY OF NEW ZEALAND

Completion and return of the questionnaire implies consent. *You have the right to decline to answer any particular question.*

Project Contacts

Josephine Malenga	*Prof. Jane Parker*	*Prof. Tim Bentley*
Researcher	*Supervisor*	*Co-Supervisor*
j.malenga@massey.ac.nz	*j.parker@massey.ac.nz*	*t.a.bentley@massey.ac.nz*

If you have any questions regarding this project, please contact any of the above contacts.

Appendix C – Ethics Approval (Quantitative Study)

MASSEY UNIVERSITY
TE KUNENGA KI PŪREHUROA
UNIVERSITY OF NEW ZEALAND

Date: 28 November 2018

Dear Josephine Malenga

Re: Ethics Notification - **NOR 18/55 - The Relationship between Work-Life Balance Policies and the Perception of Balance**

Thank you for the above application that was considered by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: **Human Ethics Northern Committee** at their meeting held on **Wednesday, 28 November,**

Approval is for three years. If this project has not been completed within three years from the date of this letter, reapproval must be requested.

If the nature, content, location, procedures or personnel of your approved application change, please advise the Secretary of the Committee.

Yours sincerely

Associate Professor Tracy Riley, Dean Research
Acting Director (Research Ethics)

Appendix D - Ethics Approval (Qualitative Study)

MASSEY UNIVERSITY
TE KUNENGA KI PŪREHUROA
UNIVERSITY OF NEW ZEALAND

Date: 19 September 2020

Dear Josephine Malenga

Re: Ethics Notification - **4000023399** - **The relationship between organisation context and the perception of balance**

Thank you for your notification which you have assessed as Low Risk.

Your project has been recorded in our system which is reported in the Annual Report of the Massey University Human Ethics Committee.

The low risk notification for this project is valid for a maximum of three years.

If situations subsequently occur which cause you to reconsider your ethical analysis, please contact a Research Ethics Administrator.

Please note that travel undertaken by students must be approved by the supervisor and the relevant Pro Vice-Chancellor and be in accordance with the Policy and Procedures for Course-Related Student Travel Overseas. In addition, the supervisor must advise the University's Insurance Officer.

A reminder to include the following statement on all public documents:
"This project has been evaluated by peer review and judged to be low risk. Consequently, it has not been reviewed by one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. The researcher(s) named in this document are responsible for the ethical conduct of this research.

If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research that you want to raise with someone other than the researcher(s), please contact Professor Craig Johnson, Director - Ethics, telephone 06 3569099 ext 85271, email humanethics@massey.ac.nz."

Please note, if a sponsoring organisation, funding authority or a journal in which you wish to publish requires evidence of committee approval (with an approval number), you will have to complete the application form again, answering "yes" to the publication question to provide more information for one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. You should also note that such an approval can only be provided prior to the commencement of the research.

Yours sincerely

Professor Craig Johnson
Chair. Human Ethics Chairs' Committee and Director (Research Ethics)

Appendix E – Semi-structured Interview Guide

Section 1: Participant Demographics

1. Could you please give me a bit of background on your role and expertise?

Section 2: Background on topic

2. Please describe your experience with either human resources practice or academics?
3. Specifically, could you describe your experience with work-life balance in practice or in theory?
4. Do you have any knowledge on the Social Exchange Theory? And if so, do you believe that it is still relevant and applicable to the modern environment?

Section 3: Quantitative Findings

5. How you describe the relationship between employee engagement and work-life balance?
   a. What (theories) do you think would explain this relationship?
6. How would you describe the relationship between job content and work-life balance?
   a. What (theories) do you think would explain this relationship?
7. How do you think employee expectations shape their perception of work-life balance?

Section 4: Context on pandemic

8. How do you think the pandemic will impact these relationships?