The Effect of Perceived Organizational Support, Role Related Aspects and Work Involvement on Work-Life Balance: Self Efficacy as a Moderator

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Abstract- The boundaries of two most dominant spheres of life viz. personal and professional are getting blurred as there is a constant encroachment from one onto the other. Consequently, work-life balance has become a prominent issue for organizations and employees alike despite various organizational interventions.

The present study investigates the effect of perceived organizational support, role related aspects (overload, distance and stagnation) and work involvement on work-life balance. The sample comprises 96 employees from a multi-national company. Standardized questionnaires were used for data collection. Result of the direct effects indicated a) a positive correlation between perceived organizational support and work life balance b) a negative correlation between role related aspects (overload, distance, stagnation) and work life balance c) a non-significant correlation between work involvement and work life balance. Direct effect from step-wise regression analyses suggested that perceived organizational support and role related aspects emerged as significant predictors of work-life balance.

Further, moderating effect of self-efficacy was examined by median-split method. Step-wise regression analyses results of both groups indicated that self-efficacy played role of a significant moderator between the relationship of a) perceived organizational support and work life balance (b) role related aspects and work-life balance The findings of the study suggest that employees with low self-efficacy may seek more organizational support in comparison to high self-efficacious employees. However, role related aspects determined work life balance for high self-efficacy group only. Implications of the study for organizations would be providing customized support, redesigning the roles according to individual abilities and implementing amendable work life balance policies.

Index Terms- Perceived Organizational Support, Role Overload, Role Distance, Role Stagnation, Work-Life Balance, Self-Efficacy.

I. INTRODUCTION

Work and family according to the ecological systems theory are the microsystems consisting of patterns of activities, roles and interpersonal relationships experienced in networks of face-to-face relationships (Bronfenbrenner, 1989). The linkages and processes occurring between two or more microsystems comprise a mesosystem. When the boundaries between the work and family microsystems are sufficiently permeable and flexible, processes occur through which characteristics associated with the work and family domains influence each other (Voydanoff, 2004). Consequently, work-life balance has been the prominent challenge for employees and organizations alike. Sverko et al (2002) attribute the growing relevance of work-life balance in industrialized societies to changing technology, changing values and changing demographic trends. Other factors include increasing complexity of work and family roles, the increased prevalence of dual income households and the expanded number of women entering the workforce.

Work–life balance is defined as an individual’s ability to meet both, their work and family commitments, as well as other non-work responsibilities and activities (Hill et al. 2001). Work–life balance is sometimes characterized by ‘the absence of unacceptable levels of conflict between work and non-work demands (Greenblatt, 2002). Work life balance has been found to be of the top concern for employees in India as compared to other nations (cf. Work-Life News, WFC Resources Newsbrief, 2008). Work domain, hours/time pressure, role stressors, work social support, and organizational climate/practices have been found to be consistent predictors of work balance while in the family domain, positive family attitudes and family/friend social support were linked to family balance (Shaffer, Joplin & Hsu, 2011). The organizations today have devised various mechanisms to deal with the matter such as flex-time, telecommuting, third place of work etc. However, perception of an employee also matters in assessing the utility of such mechanisms. A balanced life conceives of work and family as mutually reinforcing with family experiences as part of what workers bring to enrich their contributions to work and organizations (Gallos, 1989), and vice versa (Aryee, Srinivas, Tan, 2005).

According to Job Demand Resource Model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001), working conditions can be divided into two broad categories viz. Job Demand & Job Resources. Each of the two has different outcomes. Job demands refers to those physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort and are therefore associated with physiological and psychological costs such as work pressure, emotional demands whereas job resources refer to those physical, psychological, social or organizational aspects of the job that may do any of the following: a) be functional in achieving work goals; b) reduce job demands at the associated physiological and psychological costs; c) stimulate personal growth and development such as role-clarity, supervisor coaching, autonomy etc. Richter and
Hacker (1998) distinguished resources into two categories namely a) external resources such as organizational and social b) internal resources such as cognitive features and action patterns. Internal resources lack general agreement regarding which resource is considered stable across situations and which can be changed by adequate job design and hence is not included in the study. Organizational resources (external resource) include job control, participation in decision making, task variety etc. Social resource refers to support from colleagues, family and peer group (Richter and Hacker, 1998).

Shaffer et al. (2011) proposed universal model to study work-family interface based on Job Demand-Resource (JD-R) model due to two reasons: 1) JD-R provides for an integration of both work–family conflict and work–family facilitation. According to the JD-R, strain (i.e. conflict) and motivational (i.e. facilitation) processes are separate yet interrelated, with demands contributing directly to strain and resources contributing directly to motivation. Demands and resources are also conceptualized as interactive influences on both strain and motivation. 2) JD-R is portable. It is applicable to a variety of occupations and jobs, and also in different cultural contexts.

The current study aims to establish the role of perceived organizational support as a potential organizational resource in maintaining work-life balance and role of role related factors such as role overload, distance, stagnation as a potential demand imposed on the employee disrupting the work-life balance initiatives by the organizations using JD-R model.

The study’s contribution to literature is threefold. First, in the wake of current importance of work-life balance the organizations can design the work-life balance policies which will be helpful in generating the feeling of “being cared for by the organization” amongst employees. Second, this study emphasizes the need for organizations to not only provide with organizational support but also restructure the role requirements complementing work-life balance initiatives. Third, since this study is based on the findings of India operations of an MNC, it highlights the impact of socio-cultural variable to understand work-family issues as there has been dearth of such representations in the work and family literature (Aryee, Srinivas, Tan, 2005).

Perceived Organizational Support and Work-life balance

An employee perception of support at work has become increasingly important for HRM research along with examining the HR policies (Kossek et al. 2011). Organizational support theory holds that individuals personify organizations by attributing human-like characteristics to them and that they develop positive social exchanges with organizations that are supportive (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001).

Perceived Organizational Support (POS) (Eisenberger et al., 1986) refers to employees’ overall beliefs regarding the degree to which an employer values employees, cares about their wellbeing, and supports their socio-emotional needs by providing resources to assist with managing a demand or role. Research suggests that employees develop global beliefs about the extent to which their employing organization both values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986).

Level of organizational support for employees’ efforts to coordinate work and family obligations and activities is seen as a boundary-spanning resource (Resources that directly addresses how work and family connect with each other) (Voydanoff, 2004). Boundary-spanning resources may reduce work-family conflict and increase work-family facilitation through interrelated processes that enhance workers’ perceived control over managing the work-family boundary and legitimize the use of work-family policies (Voydanoff, 2004). Many organizations still see them as individual not organizational concerns. Some organizations resonate the sentiment ‘work is work and family is family—and basically, the two do not mix’ (Bailyn et al, 1997). Organizational support counters the dominant view that suggests work must automatically take priority over family needs and activities. It legitimizes the use of available policies that gives importance to help employees meet work and family needs and thus helps in reducing strain experienced due to lack of organizational support. Examples are a work–family supportive climate (indirect support) where workers feel they do not have to sacrifice effectiveness in the family role to perform their jobs and can share work–family concerns (Kossek, Colquitt, & Noe, 2001), and perceived access to useful work–family policies (direct support) (Kossek et al. 2011).

A key proposition of the JD–R model is that interactions between job demands and resources are important, such that certain resources (e.g., social support) can mitigate the negative psychological effects (e.g., burnout) of stress (Kossek et al. 2011). Thus organizational support can act as a resource to mitigate the demands imposed by two most dominant spheres viz. work and life. Individuals with greater access to organizational support garner additional job psychological resources (Bakker & Demorouit, 2007) that provide a stress buffer to manage strain. When individuals feel supported at work, they feel cared for by others and feel that they have access to help (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Hobfoll, 1989). As individuals perceive more support, their emotional and psychological supplies for coping with daily stressors increase and perceptual appraisals of stressors decrease (Jex, 1998).

Hypothesis 1: Perceived Organizational Support would be positively related to work life balance

Role Related Aspects and Work-Life Balance

Katz and Kahn (1966) defined an organization as a ‘system of roles’. For the purpose of the present study, role is defined as ‘any position one holds in an organization as defined by the expectations various significant persons, including oneself, have for that position’ (Pareek, 2003). Harris et al. (2005) suggest that it is necessary to examine not only variables related to an individual, but also aspects of an organization, for example, perceived organizational support, perceived politics, organizational climate and workplace cooperation. Demands are structural or psychological claims associated with role requirements, expectations, and norms to which individuals must respond or adapt by exerting physical or mental effort. Resources are structural or psychological assets that may be used to facilitate performance, reduce demands, or generate additional resources (Voydanoff, 2005). Greenblatt (2002) identified the three types of resources most frequently discussed in
deliberations on WLB as temporal, financial, and control, with a fourth, less frequently discussed group of resources necessary for WLB being personal resources, including the physical, psychological, emotional, and social resources available to an individual.

Strain is considered a psychological reaction to a stressor and can include depression, anxiety, frustration and other physical symptoms (Beehr, 1995). Role Strain theory (Goode, 1960) proposes that individual faces a wide variety of conflicting, distracting roles. The demands each role brings along with it compete for time, physical energy and psychological resources (Goode, 1960; Mathis & Brown, 2008) of an individual. Thus, due to improper distribution of resources among multiple roles, individuals face strain for the finite resources they have. Also, resource drain approach (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000) refers to the transfer of finite personal resources, such as time, attention, and energy, from one domain to another (Eckenrode & Gore, 1990; Piotrkowski, 1979; Small & Riley, 1990; Staines, 1980; Tenbrunsel, Brett, Maoz, Stroh, & Reilly, 1995). A negative direct relationship exists between work and family resources i.e. if resources allocated to one sphere are more, the resources available to the other will be reduced (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). However, the decisions made regarding resource allocation are dependent on the person and therefore intentional (Edward & Rothbard, 2000). Sometimes, such decisions are unintentional e.g. evening shift work makes it physically impossible for an individual to physically spend time with children during their normal working hours (Burke & McKeen, 1993; Shamir, 1983).

Role overload refers to too many expectations from significant roles in the ‘role set’ in quantitative and qualitative terms (Pareek, 1983). Role overload describes a perception of having too many things to do and not enough time to do them (Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, & Pinneau, 1975). Role overload is negatively related to work-life balance. Role overload leads to a psychological preoccupation with uncompleted tasks even while one is responding to the demands of other roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Aryee, Srinivas & Tan, 2005). Furthermore, role overload may cause exhaustion or fatigue, which may negatively influence one’s motivation to respond to the demands of other domains. Role overload undermines an individual’s ability to integrate his or her work and family roles. This is because the fatigue and role-related dissatisfaction that role overload precipitates will spill over from work (family) to family (work), thereby preventing an individual from enjoying his or her participation in that role (Aryee, Srinivas & Tan, 2005).

Role distance refers to the stress arising out of a mismatch between the person’s self-concept and his/her role (Pareek, 1983). Role stagnation refers to feeling of being stuck in the same role with no opportunity for the furthering or progress of one’s career (Sharma, 2007). Role Stagnation arises when there are difficulties in taking over the new role responsibilities due to lack of preparedness. The role occupant keeps on stagnating in the old one, which is secure, familiar and comfortable (Pareek, 1983). Organizations hardly own the responsibility of role related factors such as role overload, role stagnation and role distance etc causing burnout (Sharma, 2005), fatigue, stress etc as they have the tendency to locate the problem of burnout in the individual and overlook the role of the organization. JD-R model also suggests that job demand might act as a stressor as it might require higher effort from which an employee might fail to recover adequately (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011).

Hence a negative direct relationship between might exist between role related factors and work-life balance

**Hypothesis 2:** Role related factors such as Role Overload, Distance & Stagnation would be negatively related to Work Life Balance.

**Work Involvement and Work-Life Balance**

Work involvement refers to the extent to which an individual is generally interested in, identifies with, and is pre-occupied with one’s work in comparison to other aspects of one’s life (Kanungo, 1982). Involvement with work in general or the centrality of work in one's life is a normative belief about the value of work in one's life, and it is more a function of one's past cultural conditioning or socialization (Kanungo, 1982). It reflects the significance individuals attach to having and performing work (Elloy & Terpening, 1992). Therefore, work involvement constitutes an important motivational variable that is of interest to organizations, especially in the new economy, which imposes the need for full mobilization of the human resources (Gore, 2001; Bozionelos, 2004). Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1999) argued that involvement in a role provides an opportunity to learn new skills that could be used in another role. Furthermore, individuals who are involved in a role (family) may be able to obtain support from members of that role set that will facilitate the integration of the focal role with that individual’s other role (work) (Aryee, Srinivas & Tan, 2005). Work involvement, according to JD-R model, can act as a potential resource having motivational potential to have a high work engagement, low level of cynicism and excellent performance (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). Work involvement will therefore motivate individuals to acquire the necessary resources, such as skills and support that will enhance not only work role performance but also family role performance.

**Hypothesis 3:** Work involvement would be positively related to work-life balance

**Self Efficacy as a moderator**

Given that workers may be unable to avoid the challenges involved in their work and life roles, this research draws on the findings of previous studies to examine how the consequences of this conflict may be lessened. A key factor that may mitigate the impact of conflict experienced by employees is their sense of self-efficacy, or the worker’s feeling of effectiveness in her work role. Empirical research lends support to the positive effects of self-efficacy on workers.

Self-efficacy is defined as people’s judgement of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performance (Bandura, 1986).

General Self-Efficacy (GSE) is the belief in one’s competence to tackle novel tasks and to cope with adversity in a broad range of stressful or challenging encounters, as opposed to specific self-efficacy, which is constrained to a particular task at hand(Schwarzer et al, 1995). GSE aims at a broad and stable
sense of personal competence to deal effectively with a variety of stressful situations. It might reflect a generalization across various domains of functioning in which people judge how efficacious they are (Luszczynska, Gutierrez-Dona & Schwarzer, 2005).

Demerouti & Bakker (2011) based on JD-R model suggested that employees may be particularly at risk for burnout if confronted with high job demands and low job resources and if their personal resources such as self-efficacy are low. In addition, employees may be particularly engaged in their work and flourish if job demands and job resources are high, and if their personal resources such as self-efficacy are high.

Hypothesis 4: Self efficacy will moderate the relationship between perceived organizational support and work-life balance such that the positive relationship between perceived organizational support and WLB will be strong for employees with high self efficacy.

Hypothesis 5: Self efficacy will moderate the relationship between role related factors and WLB such that negative relationship between role-related factors and WLB will be strong for employees with high self efficacy.

Hypothesis 6: Self efficacy will moderate the relationship between work involvement and work-life balance such that the positive relationship between work involvement and WLB will be strong for employees with high self efficacy.

Method
Sample and procedure
The data was collected from India operations of a leading MNC belonging to a manufacturing industry. Out of 150 questionnaires distributed, 104 employees completed the questionnaire making the response rate to be 69.3%. From the total of 104 questionnaires obtained, 96 (N= 96) where taken for the purpose of analysis. An exclusion criterion was kept as 10% missing data/unanswered questions from the total of 85 questions. The sample was 77% male, with an average age of 33 years and an average organizational tenure of 7 years. Total work experience that employees had was around 10 years on an average. With respect to marriage 57% were married. 65% of the employees were permanent employees of the organization. In terms of educational qualification, 43% had obtained graduation degree, 35% had post-graduation and 22% had a polytechnic or technical college diploma.

Attached to each questionnaire was a cover letter that contained researcher’s brief introduction and explained the objective of the survey, assured respondents of the confidentiality of their responses, and informed them of the voluntary nature of participation in the survey. The survey instrument was in English because it is an official language and widely used in the Indian economy. Two weeks after the distribution of the questionnaires, a reminder was sent to respondents. Completed questionnaires were returned to a designated box in the human resource department.

Measures
Perceived Organizational Support Scale (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986)
An eight-item version was used to measure perceived organizational support. Response options ranged from 0 (Strongly Disagree) to 6 (Strongly Agree). The items used were the same as those as used in Shanock and Eisenberger (2006). Sample items are “The organization values my contribution to its well-being”, “The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work”. Respondents indicated the frequency with which they had experienced each of the items. Cronbach Alpha of scale is 0.88
RODS Scale (Pareek and Purohit, 2010)

Role related Aspects: Role Overload, Distance and Stagnation were measured using a 30 item scale of Pareek and Purohit (2010). The scale has 30 items; 10 for each of the 3 role stresses Response options ranged from 1 (Not at all true) to 5 (Very true). Sample items are “My self-image matches the image of my organizational role”, “I have such a wide range of things to do that I find it difficult to cope with them”, “I hardly learn anything in my role”. Cronbach Alpha of the scale is 0.77

Work Involvement Scale (Kanungo, 1982)

A six-item scale was used to measure work involvement. Response options ranged from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). Sample Items are “The most important things that happen in life involve work”, “Work should be considered central to life”. Cronbach Alpha of the scale is 0.81.

General Self-efficacy Scale (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995)

A ten-item scale was used to measure self-efficacy. Response options ranged from 1 (Not at all true) to 4 (Exactly true). Sample items are “I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events”, “When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions”. Cronbach Alpha of the scale is 0.80

Work Life Balance Scale (Gallop, 2003)

A thirty-six item scale was used to work life balance. Responses options ranged from 0 (Not true) to 4 (Definitely true). Sample items are “I do not find enough time to spend with my family and friends”, “I do not do overtime to complete my work”. Cronbach Alpha of the scale is 0.72

II. DATA ANALYSIS

Analysis of the data gathered was done using SPSS Version 20. The data was fed into the format. The hypotheses were tested using descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation), correlation. After establishing causal relationship, step-wise regression analysis was done for the variables having significant correlation.

III. RESULTS

Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, correlations of all studied variables.

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations between variables Perceived Organizational Support (POS), Role Related Aspects (RODS), Work Involvement (WI) and Work Life Balance (WLB)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>POS</th>
<th>RODS</th>
<th>WI</th>
<th>WLB</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>POS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RODS</td>
<td>-.37**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WI</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WLB</td>
<td>.61**</td>
<td>-.48**</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>30.08</td>
<td>69.50</td>
<td>20.57</td>
<td>94.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>7.37</td>
<td>12.19</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>19.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p < .01

From Table 1 it can be seen that there exists a positive correlation (r = .61, p < .01) between Perceived Organizational Support (POS) and Work Life Balance (WLB). Further, direct effect from step-wise regression analysis (Table 2) suggests that POS is a significant predictor (β = .50, p < .01) of WLB. Thus, Hypothesis 1 which stated that POS will be positively related to WLB is accepted.

Hypothesis 2 stated that Role related factors such as Role Overload, Distance & Stagnation (RODS) will be negatively related to WLB. Table 1 shows the negative correlation (r = -.48, p < .01) between RODS and WLB. Also, results of step-wise regression analysis (Table 2) confirms that RODS will predict (β = -.30, p < .01) WLB. Hence, Hypothesis 2 is accepted.

The relationship between Work Involvement (WI) and WLB is positive but non-significant (r = .13, p < .20) as shown in Table 1. Step-wise regression analysis was not carried out. Thus, Hypothesis 3 which states, Work Involvement (WI) will be positively related to Work Life Balance, is rejected. And Hypothesis 6 which states that WI will predict WLB is also rejected.

Table 2: Regression analysis with Independent Variables (IVs) -Perceived Organizational Support (POS), Role Related Aspects (RODS) as a predictor of Dependent Variable (DV) - Work Life Balance (WLB)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WLB</td>
<td>POS</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>5.97</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RODS</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Regression analysis with Independent Variables (IVs) -Perceived Organizational Support (POS), Role Related Aspects (RODS) as a predictor of Dependent Variable (DV) - Work Life Balance (WLB) when Self-efficacy is a moderator

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WLB</td>
<td>POS</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RODS</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Self-efficacy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WLB</td>
<td>POS</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Moderating effect of self efficacy was examined by median-split method. Two groups formed based on median value were: High self efficacy group and Low self efficacy group. Step-wise regression analyses results (Table 3) of both groups
indicated that self-efficacy played role of a significant moderator between the relationship of a) perceived organizational support and work life balance ([high self-efficacy group, $\beta = .49, p < .01$); (low self-efficacy group, $\beta = .63, p < .01$]) b) role related aspects and work-life balance ([high self-efficacy group only, $\beta = -.34, p < .01$]). Thus Hypothesis 4 which states Self efficacy will moderate the relationship between perceived organizational support and work-life balance such that the positive relationship between POS and WLB will be strong for employees with high self efficacy is accepted. However, Hypothesis 5 which states Self efficacy will moderate the relationship between Role related factors (RODS) and WLB such that negative relationship between role-related factors and WLB will be strong for employees with high self efficacy is partially accepted as stepwise regression analysis didn’t predict the causal relationship between RODS and WLB for employees with low self efficacy.

IV. DISCUSSION

The positive relationship between POS and WLB is indicative of the fact that organizations should meticulously attempt to make employees feel cared for. If employees attribute integration of their work and family roles to a demonstration of the organization’s care and concern for their well-being (POS), then they will feel an obligation to reciprocate with commitment to the organization (Aryee, Tan, & Debrah, 2003; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). POS and its underlying principle of reciprocity have been noted to influence work outcomes across cultures (Aryee et al., 2003; Yoon & Thye, 2002).

Role related factors (Role Overload, Distance, Stagnation) have a negative impact on Work-Life balance as found in earlier studies (Sharma, 2002). Role overload and Distance are critical determinants of burn-out and lowered performance. The organisations should make an effort not to overload executives with work as it would, in the long run, boomerang and will adversely affect not only the individual executive but also the organisational productivity. (Sharma, 2002) Also, the findings signify the importance of minimizing the gap between what executives like to do and what they are expected to do. The role related difficulties in maintaining Work-Life Balance can be reduced through proper planning, job allocation, delegation, decentralisation/automation etc.

Work involvement reflects values and attitudes. Values are predominantly the product of cultural learning (Hofstede, 1980, 1981; Schein, 1992); hence, work involvement may be more the product of culture. Non-significant correlation between WI and WLB would be due to the fact that in a collectivistic society like India, where the family role takes precedence over the work role, family involvement may lead individuals to limit involvement in the work role, resulting in work–family facilitation (Aryee, Srinivas & Tan, 2005). In this sense, accommodation (Lambert, 1990) serves as a strategy for ensuring work–family balance in India. Thus, though relationship between WI and WLB is positive, it is non-significant.

According to theory and research (Bandura, 1995), self-efficacy makes a difference in how people feel, think, and act. In terms of feeling, a low sense of self-efficacy is associated with depression, anxiety, and helplessness. Such individuals also have low self-esteem and harbour pessimistic thoughts about their accomplishments and personal development. In terms of thinking, a strong sense of competence facilitates cognitive processes and performance in a variety of settings, including quality of decision-making and academic achievement. When it comes to preparing action, self-related cognitions are a major ingredient of the motivation process. Self-efficacy levels can enhance or impede motivation. People with high self-efficacy choose to perform more challenging tasks. They set themselves higher goals and stick to them. Actions are preshaped in thought, and people anticipate either optimistic or pessimistic scenarios in line with their level of self-efficacy. Once an action has been taken, high self-efficacious persons invest more effort and persist longer than those who are low in self-efficacy (Schwarzer et al. 1997). When setbacks occur, they recover more quickly and maintain the commitment to their goals. Self-efficacy also allows people to select challenging settings, explore their environments, or create new environments. Thus, the characteristics of high efficacious and low efficacious person is indicative of the fact that low efficacious person requires more support from the organization’s end. The findings between POS and WLB also indicate that the causal relationship between the two variables is moderated by Self-Efficacy of the employee. Low self-efficacy employees require higher organizational support so as to balance their work and life well. The negative relationship between RODS and WLB was found only for employees with high self-efficacy. This would be because the helplessness, anxiety, pessimistic beliefs, low need for achievement (Bandura, 1995) of low self-efficacy employees that would compel them to surrender. Their performance is unaffected by the role environment present in the organization.

V. IMPLICATION FOR MANAGEMENT

Organizations, who want their workers to achieve a more enduring sense of balance, should focus on the personal needs, wants, resources, and demands of an individual in his or her environment. They would need to adopt a definition of balance that was situationally based (Reiter, 2007). Situationist (Kofodimos, 1993) defined balance as finding the allocation of time and energy that fits your values and needs, making conscious choices about how to structure your life and integrating inner needs and outer demands and involves honoring and living by your deepest personal qualities, values, and goals. Using a situationist definition of balance, people could be grouped according to their values and situational variables such as family structure, life stage, gender, career, or income level with varying definitions of WLB for different segments. This would need to reflect the variability of circumstances of a new intern without family responsibilities from that of a 40-something female specialist with a baby and toddler at home from that of a 55-year-old obstetrician who has been working weekends for the past 30 years. It involves making optimum choices for each individual. It is employers who facilitate this outcome that will truly be employers of choice.

High perceived organizational support (POS) would (a) meet needs for approval, esteem, and social identity and (b) produce the expectation that superior conventional performance and extrarole behavior, carried out for the organization, will be recognized and rewarded. On the basis of the norm of
reciprocity, POS would strengthen affective commitment to the organization and increase efforts made on its behalf (Eisenberger et al., 1986). POS has strong relationships in the predicted direction with affective commitment, job satisfaction, positive mood at work, desire to remain with the organization, and turnover intentions.

The recognition and importance of role related factors affecting work life balance will help organizations to revisit roles formed time and again through integration of preventive measures into organizational processes (Sharma, 2005).

Greenblatt (2002) identified the three types of resources most frequently discussed in deliberations on WLB as temporal, financial, and control, with a fourth, less frequently discussed group of resources necessary for WLB being personal resources, including the physical, psychological, emotional, and social resources available to an individual. However, focussing on personal resources is important. This will help in developing theories and programs to help organizations reap the benefits of WLB because focusing on the individual will result in the person achieving his or her personal WLB, and the benefits to the organization will flow from this.

WLB is about much more than flex time, part-time, and work from home. It is about assisting people to match their behavior to their values (Gurvis & Patterson, 2005). Clutterbuck (2004) suggested that organizations need to examine how they divide up work responsibilities and HR systems such as appraisal, succession planning, and access to training to facilitate this cultural change. As an example, an outcome of defining WLB as achieving satisfying experiences in all life domains to a level consistent with the salience of each role for the individual means putting in place tailored programs to help people achieve this. This means that if work is important to your self-concept, WLB programs will need to help you to achieve satisfaction—not reduced hours, not flexible delivery, but actual satisfaction. Hence, WLB should be framed according to the need of the employee. This will not only help in generating perception of support amongst employees and modify role environment but it will also help the organizations to handle dynamic set of employees with diverse set of personal dispositions effectively and build a winning workforce that will help organizations to leverage competitive advantage over others.

VI. LIMITATIONS

The use of self-report data has implications for method variance and consistency bias. However, alternative methods of data collection, such as an interview, in an area as sensitive as the work–family interface are likely to be problematic (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991). But, if possible, it should be used to reduce the biases of self-reporting method.

The present study was conducted on 96 employees but such studies would need further exploration on a large sample for the purpose of generalization. Also, the number of female employees included in the study was limited.

The sample drawn was from a manufacturing industry. The findings might differ when the industry type changes to IT, human services etc.

REFERENCES


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