Work-Life Balance: A Psychological Perspective

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Memorandum

The research for this dissertation was conducted at the Department of Psychology, University of Kent, Canterbury. For the first two years, the author was a part-time postgraduate research student holding a full-time research post. For the third and fourth years the author received a Departmental Studentship. For the final six months, the author held a full-time teaching post at Canterbury Christ Church University.

The theoretical and empirical work herein is the independent work of the author. Intellectual debts are acknowledged in the text. The execution of the studies reported in this thesis required some limited assistance from other people. Their role was limited to assisting in aspects of procedure, such as distributing experimental materials.

The author has not been awarded a degree by this, or any other university, for the work included in this thesis.

Dedication

Unless I had tried to do something beyond that which I had already mastered, I would not have grown. I have discovered that in wanting what I have never had, I had to do what I had never before done. Though my journey has been full of highs and lows, I have remained totally inspired to reach my goal. Sometimes I have had to dig deep, really deep, but I have never lost belief in myself to get where I wanted to go. To have this self-belief can change your life and bring extraordinary results. I know…

This thesis is dedicated to my parents, Ann and Les Waumsley, with my love…

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Abstract

The aims of this thesis are to overview the work-family literature; to examine factors influencing work and life outside work in the UK; to produce more generic work-life conflict and life-work conflict scales than have currently been available; to examine the effects on conflicts, turnover intention and psychological health of control and support in the workplace; to investigate attitudes in the UK about flexible working and long hours; and to examine different work orientations and ways in which flexible working might be synonymous with success at work.

Chapter one reviews the work-life balance research and examines the position on work-life balance, flexible working and the long hours culture in the UK. Chapter two reviews the literature on antecedents and consequences of work-family conflict and examines factors that influence the working and non-working lives of individuals in the UK. Chapter three adapts existing work-family and family-work conflict scales in order to develop a more generic measure of work-life and life-work conflict. Drawing on role theory (Kahn, et al., 1964), these first three chapters highlight the conflict experienced between work and non-working roles. Chapter four builds on the findings of chapters two and three by examining the effects of control and support on psychological health, turnover intention and work-life conflict, reflecting the salience of social support theory (Cobb, 1976; Cohen & Wills, 1985; Thoits, 1982). Chapter five examines the attitudes of undergraduate students - 'tomorrow's managers' - towards flexible working and personal responsibilities. Chapter six looks to generalise the findings of the previous chapter to a working population and extends these findings by examining explanations for attitudes towards long hours and flexible working. Chapter seven examines work orientations and the role of the psychological contract in attitudes towards alternative working arrangements, drawing on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960) in explanation of the findings. Chapter eight summarises the findings from the reported studies and offers theoretical, applied and policy implications.

The results of six empirical studies are presented and hypotheses are considered within each chapter. In summary, the findings show that although people hold positive attitudes towards obtaining work-life balance, a long hours culture prevails in the UK. People are anxious about working flexible hours for fear of impingement on career success and because they are seen as less reliable or committed than others who work long and regular hours. Developing an organisational culture where the positive effects of control and support are understood, and encouraging a psychological contract involving mutuality and reciprocity between managers and staff, is suggested in terms of application of the findings in order that attitudes may begin to change and lead to less conflict between working and non-working lives.

Thesis Contents

Chapter 1

Work-Life Balance

The traditional model of the family, with men working outside the home to provide financial stability and women working in the home on domestic tasks and providing childcare, is, in many societies, 'becoming a vestige of the past' (Ayree, 1993, p. 1441). The last two decades have seen a departure from the traditional male breadwinner model to an increase in dual-career couples and a rise in single parent families. With the composition of the workforce now reflecting rising numbers of working mothers with young children, the 'normal situation' for working age couples in Britain is the dual-earner arrangement with the man working long paid hours and the woman working short paid hours while retaining the major role in housework and childcare (White, 2004). Work participation of women with preschool children almost doubled from 28 per cent in 1980 to 53 per cent in 1999 (McRae, 2003), a trend that appears to have stabilised in the last five years. Labour Force Survey figures for 2004 show the percentage of women with preschool children in employment has remained at 53 per cent (Clegg, 2004). Furthermore, there has been a rapid growth in recent years of single parent families who hold full-time careers and jobs, with one-parent households increasing in the UK from 9 per cent in 1971 to 25 per cent in 2001. Twenty-two per cent of lone parents are predominantly mothers, with just three per cent being lone fathers (Dench, et al., 2002). These striking changes in the nature of families and the composition of the workforce have increased the likelihood that employees of both genders have substantial household duties in addition to their paid work duties, although it is still the case that women assume the majority of family responsibilities (White, 2004).

The UK is traditionally seen as having a long hours culture but since the introduction of the Working Time Regulations in 1998 and the Government's subsequent Work-life Balance Campaign in 2000, statistics show that the proportion of employees usually working in excess of 48 hours per week has fallen (DTI, Working Time – Widening the Debate, 2004). This reduction has been sustained for five consecutive years between 1999 and 2003 and follows a period of time when the proportion had been increasing. In spring 2003, 20.4 per cent of full-time employees usually worked more than 48 hours, compared to 23.3 per cent in spring 1998. This decline has been driven by a reduction in the number of full-time men reporting long hours working. However, between 1998 and 2003, there has not been a fall in the proportion of women working over 48 hours (DTI, Working Time – Widening the Debate, 2004). Despite these trends, evidence from the DTI shows the UK to have the longest working hours in Europe (Kodz, et al., 2002). This long hours culture has been highlighted by

several researchers (e.g. Cooper, Dewe & O'Driscoll, 2001; Hyman, Baldry & Bunzel, 2001; Hyman, Baldry, Scholarios & Bunzel, 2003) and with this acknowledgement has developed a debate about work intensification and increasing work pressures. This debate has focused on time spent at work versus effort applied to the job, the first of which is easier to measure than the more subjective nature of the second (see Green 2001, for a summary). Whilst some authors celebrate the growth in work intensity, (e.g. Reeves, 2001), others, such as Green (2001) suggest, "the rise in effort is associated with increased perceived stress" (p. 76). Hyman, et al., (2001) argue that not only can work explicitly extend beyond the boundaries of a working day but intrudes "into people's private space through exhaustion, sleeplessness and its conscious omnipresence" (p. 13). Hyman et al., (2003) later suggested, "long working hours coupled with intensive work can intrude into workers' domestic lives through feelings of exhaustion, stress and sickness and an inability to detach from thinking about work" (p. 3). Guest (2002) argues that technological developments over the past two decades, such as portable computers and mobile phones, have helped blur the boundaries between work and non-work, have caused, in some cases, information overload, and have increased the need for speed of response. Further, the importance attached to quality of customer service has meant demands for constant availability for access to goods and services twenty-four hours a day. It has been argued that, in the UK, intensification of work has reached a point where there is very little slack in the working day (e.g. Green, 2001). This pressured work ethic is supported by subjective evidence of working effort from the CIPD survey (Guest & Conway, 2000) where 30 per cent of respondents said 'they were working as hard as they could and couldn't imagine working any harder'. A further 45 per cent said 'they worked very hard'. Evidence from the Department of Trade and Industry shows the UK's workforce to endure some of the longest working hours in Europe (Kodz, et al., 2002). In a recent DTI survey about working time in the UK, the most common reason provided for working long hours mentioned by 42 per cent of employees was because they had too much work to do in their normal working day. Twenty-one per cent said it was to make money, with 11 per cent admitting that their employer expected them to work overtime. Fifty-six per cent of all full-time employees wanted to work fewer hours, a figure that increases to 69 per cent when limited to those who usually work in excess of 48 hours per week (DTI, Working Time – Widening the Debate, 2004).

Societal changes and the culture of long working hours in the UK appear to have impacted on people's attitudes and values towards work; there is a contemporary familiarity about the phrase 'work-life balance' – a cohort of workers for whom work-life balance is important and who give greater priority to seeking it (Sturgess, Guest & Mackenzie Davey, 2000). This has been brought about by a combination of several issues, including changes in family

structures and orientations toward parenthood, greater participation by women in the workforce, increasing connections between people's jobs/careers and their family lives, increasing working hours and changing work schedules. The UK government has highlighted work-life balance as an issue to be addressed in contemporary society where the proportion of women in paid employment has increased from around 56 per cent in 1971 to around 70 per cent in 2004. The proportion of women with children who work has also risen from 57 per cent in 1994 to around 64 per cent in 2004. By 2004, 54 per cent of mothers with children under the age of six years old were working, compared with only 46 per cent ten years earlier. Forty-four per cent of women in the labour market work part-time compared to ten per cent of men (DTI, Choice & Flexibility, 2005). The increasing numbers of women in work has given rise to governmental and legislative policy changes in areas such as parental leave, recognition of the importance of providing facilities for the care of dependents and more flexible work schedules to accommodate the needs of employees with family responsibilities. Whilst many of these changes have occurred in reaction to societal demands, they have also encouraged changes in societal attitudes about the role of paid employment in people's lives and the desirability of maintaining a balance between work responsibilities and demands, commitments and interests in the non-work domain.

The changing demographic trends witnessed throughout recent decades, coupled with a heightened interest in employers' and employees' quality of life, have prompted a proliferation of research on the relationship between the work and family interface. This chapter aims to provide a context for the areas of work-life balance in the chapters that follow. Each subsequent chapter will review specific areas in the literature relevant to the particular empirical work of the chapter. First though, the starting point will be to provide some definition of work-life balance and to explore the history of the subject. This first chapter is therefore concerned more with exploring the work-life balance literature to provide a sense of orientation.

Several ways of organising the literature on work-life balance present themselves, given the span of disciplines it crosses. In order to provide a complete picture of the current status of work-life balance in the UK today, this chapter will first begin by defining work-life balance. It will then explore the history of the literature from a theoretical perspective, and follow this with an examination of work-life balance in the UK. Following this, the organisational context for work-life balance and flexible working, and the UK long hours working culture will be investigated, as well as research findings on work-life balance and flexible working.

What is Work-life Balance?

A definitive definition of work-life balance eludes the literature. Guest (2002) suggests such a definition might read as "sufficient time to meet commitments at both home and work" (p. 263). Clark (2000) defines balance as 'satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home with a minimum of role conflict'. A further definition, acknowledging the subjective nature of work-life balance, can be proposed for this thesis:

> "Work-life balance is about being able to achieve an equilibrium between working life and life away from work that is acceptable to the individual; a balance which allows the successful fulfilment of potential in both domains with minimal stress".

Research (e.g. Kababoff, 1980; Kanter, 1977; Zedeck, 1992) has debated whether 'work' is restricted to tasks associated with paid employment or also includes task-related activities that are not associated with financial gain, such as volunteer work and housework. Because the interest of this thesis lies in the interface between paid employment and life away from paid employment, work domain variables are those associated with paid employment. Life domain variables are those associated with life outside work, whether they are variables associated with 'family' life or other aspects of life outside work.

Much of the literature that focuses on work-life balance is, in fact, concerned with work-life conflict; focusing on sources of conflict between the work and non-work domains (e.g. Carlson, Kacmar & Williams, 2000; Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1992a, 1992b; Hartmann, Lovell & Werschkul, 2004). Balance is then usually inferred from the amount of, or lack of, conflict between roles and domains. As a noun in the English language, balance is described as "an equal distribution of weight or amount" (Oxford English Dictionary, 2004). When referring to work and non-work, however, there may not be equal weight on both sides, but this may not necessarily imply lack of work-life balance. As a verb in the English language, balance is "to off-set or compare; to equal or neutralise, to bring or come into equilibrium" (Oxford English Dictionary, 2004). In this there is an implicit assumption that balance is a positive state. It can have both an objective and subjective meaning and measurement, which will vary both according to circumstances and to individual differences. It may be easier to define balance by its absence, which would explain why much of the literature concentrates on conflict. People may be more likely to be subjectively aware of their state when there is imbalance.

Models and Reviews of Work-life Balance

The changing social and economic climate in the UK over the past two decades has challenged the conceptualisation of the work-family interface. Studies in the 1970s and before (see Marshall, 1992a; 1992b for a review) show that men's hourly contribution to housework has almost doubled in recent years and in dual earner families one-third of the total time spent shopping and in childcare is now done by men. Fifteen per cent of the time spent doing household tasks is now taken by men, as compared to two to five per cent in the 1970s and before (UK Time Use Survey, 2003). Nonetheless, in contemporary society, women still do the majority of family work (UK Time Use Survey, 2003; White, 2004). Pleck's (1977) influential model of the work-family role system holds that men are socialised to give priority to the breadwinning role, whereas women are socialised to give priority to home and caring roles. The separate worlds of male dominated employment and female dominated family of the 1970s have given way to research by sociologists, psychologists and human resource specialists that examine the impact of work on family life and family life on work. Contemporary models of the work-family interface take a more comprehensive, bi-directional approach that gives equal emphasis to the impact of work on family and the impact of family on work (e.g. Allen, Herst, Bruck & Sutton, 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Frone, Yardley & Markel, 1997; Senécal, Vallerand & Guay, 2001).

Over the past few decades, several reviews, both quantitative and qualitative, of the work-family literature have been conducted. When work-family research was in its infancy, Near, Rice and Hunt (1980) reviewed early empirical studies that examined the ways in which work related to non-work. They concluded that research "supports the finding that moderate correlations exist between both pairs of variables...but further research is needed to assess the strength, direction and nature of these relationships" (p. 415). Role theory has impacted on the work-family interface as a way of explaining conflict between working and non-working roles. Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rowenthal, (1964) defined role conflict as the "simultaneous occurrence of two (or more) sets of pressures such that compliance with one would make more difficult compliance with the other" (p. 19). A few years later, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) wrote an influential review outlining the major sources of conflict between work and family roles. Based on the work of Kahn et al., (1964) they described work-family conflict as "a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) suggested three distinct forms of work-family conflict, with distinct predictors of each: Time based conflict, strain-based conflict and behaviour-based conflict. Time based conflict refers to when time devoted to the requirements of one role makes it difficult to fulfil requirements of another. In other words, there are incompatible time

demands between work and family. Strain-based conflict refers to when strain from participation in one role spills over from one domain to the other, making it difficult to fulfil the requirements of the other role. Behaviour-based conflict means that specific behaviours required by one role are incompatible with role behaviour in the other domain. According to role theory (Kahn, et al., 1964) cumulative demands of multiple roles can result in role strain, but equally, available resources may prevent or reduce role strain by enabling individuals to cope with these demands.

Moving into the 1990s, Zedeck and Mosier (1990) reviewed five main models used to explain the work-life interface: Spillover theory, compensation theory, segmentation theory, instrumental theory and conflict theory. The models all focus on the individual rather than on the family unit. Generally, they assume that work has an impact on family, or, to a much lesser degree, that family has an impact on work. Spillover theory asserts that there is a similarity between what occurs in the work environment and what occurs in the family environment (Staines, 1980). For example, happiness at work leads to happiness at home. In addition, a person's work experiences are assumed to influence what he or she does away from work (Champoux, 1978). It is also assumed that attitudes at work are carried over into home life (Kando & Summers, 1971), or that work attitudes affect a basic orientation toward the self, others and children (Mortimer, Lorence & Kumka, 1986). According to this theory, the boundaries between what occurs in the work environment and what occurs in the family environment are permeable, that is, there are no behaviour boundaries between work and home (Parker, 1967).

According to Zedeck and Mossier (1990), most research in the work-family domain has focussed on the spillover theory and has resulted in some refinements and extensions, such as those of Payton-Miyazaki and Brayfield (1976). These authors suggest the notion of work is 'additive', that is, satisfaction at work increases life satisfaction, whilst dissatisfaction with the job lessens general satisfaction. These authors also suggest the view that work can lead to 'alienation', where negative feelings about a job directly influence feelings about life in general, and a 'cognitive-behavioural' view of work that states that a job is a socialising opportunity whereby individuals are able to learn skills, values, expectancies, self-concepts, and social philosophies that carry over into family interactions. Job stress can negatively affect family interactions, whilst at the same time requiring family personal resources to support the stressed individual. Alternatively, spillover from work situations where work is boring can result in an 'energy deficit' making it difficult for the individual to carry out things at home or with family members (Piotrkowski, 1978). Spillover has gained more acceptance in recent years (Lambert, 1990) and become the focus of research on both positive and

negative spillover from one domain to the other (Crouter, 1984; Kirchmeyer, 1992; Hyman, Scholarios & Baldry, 2005)

The second theory asserted by Zedeck and Mosier (1990) is the compensation theory, which postulates an inverse relationship between work and family such that work and non-work experiences tend to contrast with each other. Staines (1980) contrasted spillover theory, where employee emotions and behaviours in one domain carry over to the other, to compensation theory, where involvement in one domain is increased in order to find satisfaction that is absent in the other. Compensation was thought to be typical of industrial male workers (Dubin, 1967; Piotskowski, 1979) where individuals make differential investments of themselves in the two settings (Champoux, 1978) and make up in one for what is missing in the other (Evans & Bartolome, 1984). Compensation theory has also been discussed in terms of the components of supplemental compensation and reactive compensation (Kando & Summers, 1971). 'Supplemental compensation' occurs when desirable experiences, behaviours, and psychological states that are lacking in the work situation are pursued in family activities. 'Reactive compensation' occurs because deprivations experienced at work are compensated for in non-work activities, such as seeking leisure activities after a sedentary day at work, or resting after a demanding day at work. According to Crosby (1984), events at home provide "shock absorbers" for disappointments at work and vice versa.

Segmentation theory (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990) postulates that work and family environments are distinct and that an individual can function successfully in one without any influence on the other (Evans & Bartolome, 1984; Payton-Miyazaki & Brayfield, 1976; Piotrkowski, 1978). The two environments exist side by side with separation in time, space and function allowing the individual to compartmentalise his or her life. The family is seen as the domain for affectivity, intimacy and significant relationships, whereas the world of work is seen as impersonal, competitive, and instrumental rather than expressive (Piotrkowski, 1978).

In contrast to both the segmentation and compensation views, the instrumental theory holds that resources and skills from one role can enrich functioning in the other domain. Resources can either be materialistic, in that income from work is used to sustain and enhance family functioning, or emotional, in that support from family can enhance life at work (Evans & Bartolome, 1984; Payton-Miyazaki & Brayfield, 1976).

The final model suggested by Zedeck & Mosier, (1990) is conflict theory. In essence, this perspective suggests that engagement in multiple roles involves some form of interrole

conflict, either because of time constraints, or because the competing roles may be incompatible in some way (Evans & Bartolome, 1984; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Payton-Miyazaki & Brayfield, 1976).

The five dominant models of the connections between work and home life posed questions about ways in which adults might achieve balance between the work and home domains. Zedeck & Mosier (1990) therefore went on to discuss the ways in which changing workplace trends influenced work-family research and noted the role of organisational policies in helping employees balance work and family. The authors concluded that: "Management, employees, unions and legislatures need to be responsive to the fact that an individual's involvement in a particular environment impacts (a) on the individual, (b) on his or her role in several environments and, (c) on others in the environment" (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990, p. 249).

Lambert (1990) examined the general theoretical frameworks of spillover, compensation, segmentation and conflict to explain work-family linkages, presenting path diagrams of relationships between work and family constructs. This author labelled each path positively or negatively, not to specify the direction of the relationship, but to convey whether the relationship yielded "positive or negative results" (Lambert, 1990, p. 248). This makes translation difficult, since causal models invariably use positive and negative signs to represent the statistical relationship, as opposed to depicting the benefit or harm resulting from the relationship.

In the 1990s, studies began to make the distinction between the extent to which work interferes with family life (work-family conflict) and the extent to which family life interferes with work (family-work conflict). Perhaps the best known model in the work-family literature is that of Frone, et al., (1992a), who depicted a direct reciprocal relationship between work-family conflict and family-work conflict. Extending this work, Frone, et al., (1997) developed and tested a model of the work-family interface suggesting family-work conflict had an indirect influence on work-family conflict via the mediating variables of work distress and work overload. Similarly, work-family conflict has an indirect impact on family-work conflict via increased parental overload. Frone, et al., (1997) extended prior research by showing distress, overload and time commitment to be the three closest role predictors within each type of conflict. By doing so, the researchers clarified the mediating processes linking more distal predictors of work-family conflict. Thus, work-related support may reduce work-family conflict by reducing work distress and work overload, and family-related support may reduce family-work conflict by reducing family distress and parental overload.

Prior research has typically related a single measure of work-family conflict to both job and family satisfaction as outcomes (e.g. Higgins, Duxbury, & Irving, 1992; Rice, Frone, & McFarlin, 1992). In contrast, Frone, et al., (1992a) hypothesised that work-family conflict would only predict family distress and that family-work conflict would only predict work distress. Frone, et al., (1997) found family distress to be a predictor of family-work conflict with work distress an outcome. This finding is consistent with prior models proposed by Frone, et al., (1992a), Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), and Williams and Alliger (1994). Although Frone, et al., (1997) did not find work distress to be a predictor of work-family conflict with family distress an outcome, prior research does support this relationship (Frone, Barnes, & Farrell, 1994; O'Driscoll, Ilgen, & Hildreth, 1992). Frone, et al., (1997) further extended prior research on the behavioural outcomes of work-family conflict, indicating that family-work conflict was negatively related to work performance, and work-family conflict was negatively related to family performance. Role theory postulates that frequent interference from one role to another may have a negative effect on the second role, which may explain these findings. This is also consistent with the findings of MacEwen and Barling (1994) who suggest that family-work conflict was positively related to work withdrawal and work-family conflict was positively related to family withdrawal.

Despite the plethora of research and reviews in the work-family domains throughout the 1980s and 1990s, Barnett (1998) provided a general review of the work-family literature discussing lack of progress in this research area and proposing a cross-disciplinary model to guide future research. Also in 1998, a meta-analytic review by Kossek and Ozeki, (1998) examined the relationship among work-family conflict, policies, and job and life satisfaction. It showed a consistent negative relationship to exist among all types of work-family conflict and job-life satisfaction. This relationship was slightly less strong for family-work conflict. The following year, in a review of twenty-seven studies, Kossek and Ozeki (1999) examined the relationship between work-family conflict and six work outcomes: Performance, turnover, absenteeism, organisational commitment, job involvement, and burnout. Results showed that while work-family conflict was not necessarily related to job productivity and attitudes, family-work conflict was. In addition, the review showed that greater conflict between work and family roles was associated with higher turnover intentions, care-related absences, and lower commitment to organisations and careers. Furthermore, greater job involvement and conflict were related, probably because dedicated employees are more likely to experience conflict as they try to excel at multiple roles. Moreover, conflict between work and family was strongly associated with burnout.

The same review showed that family supportive policies do reduce such negative effects (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999). Higher levels of individual job productivity and favourable attitudes appeared to be related to more flexible schedules and a sense that the organisation cares about workers' families. Flexibility and dependent care benefits also appeared to reduce turnover and increase commitment (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999). These findings were supported by the meta-analysis of Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright and Neuman (1999) which showed that the effects of flexible working and compressed working on the outcomes of productivity/performance, job satisfaction, absenteeism and satisfaction with working schedule related positively to productivity and job satisfaction, and related negatively to absenteeism.

The Frone et al., (1992a) model of the work family interface was tested with a sample of U.S. employees. In 1999, Ayree, Fields and Luk examined the cross-cultural generalisability of this model using married Hong Kong employees. Results of their analysis suggested that many of the relationships among work and family constructs were similar across the two cultures, but that the nature and effects of the cross-over between family and work domains on overall employee well-being may differ. Consistent with the Frone et al., (1992a) finding, Ayree et al., (1999) revealed a positive reciprocal relationship and a negative covariation between work-family and family-work conflict. This finding provides some evidence for the view that the reciprocal relationship between work-family and family-work conflict may not be culture-specific. However, work-family conflict more strongly influenced family-work conflict for Hong Kong employees and work-family conflict was directly related to life satisfaction and indirectly through family satisfaction. Family-work conflict, on the other hand, was only indirectly related to life satisfaction through job satisfaction. That is, besides directly affecting life satisfaction of Hong Kong employees, it appears that not spending enough time with the family because of work responsibilities reduces satisfaction with family life. This, in turn, further reduces overall employee well-being. Thus, life satisfaction for Hong Kong employees is influenced primarily by work-family conflict, while that of American employees is influenced primarily by family-work conflict.

Carlson and Kacmar (2000) extended previous research in the interface between work and family domains by adding the dimension of the life role values of individuals to examine whether these make a difference in the way work-family conflict is experienced. Their results showed that the sources, levels and outcomes of conflict were found to differ depending on the life role values held by the individuals when expressed in terms of centrality and importance. However, differences were not found for individuals whose values were expressed in terms of priority or family centrality. Carlson and Kacmar (2000) suggest the

value of broadening the domain of elements that are included in the study of the intricate interface between work and family.

Using another perspective, Dollard, Winefield, Winefield and de Jonge (2000) tested the demand-control-support model when examining levels of strain in terms of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and job dissatisfaction, and feelings of personal accomplishment in terms of productivity and competency in human service workers. Using structural equation modelling and controlling for demographics and negative affectivity, the authors showed that jobs combining high demands, low control and low support produced the lowest levels of satisfaction in workers. High demands and low support only were associated with high depersonalisation and high emotional exhaustion. Jobs combining high demands and high control produced the highest levels of personal accomplishment. The major implication from this study was that a reduction in levels of strain and an increase in productivity might be achieved with job redesign, not necessarily by decreasing work demands but by increasing the levels of control and support.

A comprehensive review of the consequences of work-family conflict was conducted in another meta-analysis by Allen, et al., (2000). These authors presented a typology that grouped outcomes of work-family conflict into three categories: Work related, non-work related, and stress related. Results showed work-family conflict to be associated with various work-related (e.g. job satisfaction), family related (e.g. life satisfaction) and stress-related (e.g. burnout) outcomes. Whilst the authors acknowledged that the majority of studies referenced in their meta-analysis were based on self-report and non-experimental designs that preclude confirmation of causality, the results they obtained were also based on many types of participants and settings and include samples from a variety of countries. They concluded that work-family conflict is associated with job, family and life attitudes, work behaviours, and a variety of stress-related variables.

In 1997, Frone, et al. presented a model of the work-family interface that includes work and family time, behaviour, and satisfaction but they did not link these constructs across domains. Nor, from the correlational data used, could causal inferences among relationships be drawn. In 2000, Edwards and Rothbard translated work-family linking mechanisms into causal relationships between work and family constructs by drawing on the basic principles of role theory (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Kahn et al., 1964). Specifically, they worked on the premise that both work and family have demands that involve multiple roles. Extrinsic rewards, such as pay from work, and approval from work colleagues and family members, and intrinsic rewards, such as self-fulfilment, are gained when roles are successfully

performed. Both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards result in positive mood, such as satisfaction, whereas lack of rewards produce negative mood, such as disappointment (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000).

Using the concepts of the spillover hypothesis (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990) and the notion of time-based conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), a model was developed by Edwards and Rothbard (2000) that showed mood spillover affected role performance, both directly and indirectly, through time allocation in both the work and family domains. For example, negative mood carried over from work may negatively affect performance in a family role, but time may also be reallocated from work to family, which in turn, would enhance family role performance (Edwards and Rothbard, 2000). Added to the model are two moderator variables, one that depicts time allocation decisions, and the other that suppresses mood. The overall model depicts the individual as having an active part to play in managing the work-family interface, emphasising that personal intent moderates relationships that link work and family constructs (Edwards and Rothbard, 2000). Whilst this model explains why linking mechanisms occur, it does not identify the specific conditions under which different links will occur. It is therefore important to identify person and situation factors that promote certain linking mechanisms and inhibit others.

The psychological model proposed by Senécal, et al., (2001) on work-family conflict used Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991) and the Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation (Vallerand, 1997). According to Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991), individuals who perform an activity out of choice and pleasure regulate their behaviour in a self-determined manner. In contrast, individuals who participate in activities out of internal and/or external pressures regulate their behaviour in a non-self-determined fashion. With regard to work and home life, individuals who show high levels of self-determined motivation toward work may be perceived as more successful than employees who display high levels of self-determined motivation toward home life. The latter may be shown through the use of family friendly policies. The Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation (Vallerand, 1997) posits that outcomes in a given life domain should mainly be the result of motivation in that specific domain. Thus, if employees use flexible working options because they are motivated to fulfil family commitments over work, their perceived lack of motivation and ambition for self-fulfilment in the work domain may restrict their success in that domain.

The model suggested by Senécal, et al., (2001) posits that an individual's self-determined motivation towards family activities is influenced by the interpersonal behaviour of an

individual's spouse in the home, whilst the individual's self-determined motivation towards work is influenced by the interpersonal behaviour of an individual's employer. Low levels of self-determined motivation towards work and family leads to family alienation, which in turn, leads to work-family conflict. This then leads to emotional exhaustion. Their findings supported the model, with specific results extending the literature on the work-family interface. The degree to which individuals experienced their employer as autonomy-supportive was a significant predictor of self-determined motivation at work. Similarly, an individual's motivation towards family activities is enhanced or otherwise by the way in which their partner in the family domain evaluates that individual. The model also supported the prediction that motivation toward work and family activities are relatively independent, and that factors pertaining to specific life contexts related to motivation in this context rather than to any other; for example, the perception of an employer affected work motivation rather than family motivation. Self-determined motivation toward family activities negatively predicted family alienation, suggesting that engaging in family activities out of choice prevents individuals from feeling alienated toward such activities.

Relationships among outcome variables, family alienation, work-family conflict, and emotional exhaustion, have been examined by previous research (e.g. Coverman, 1989; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kandel, Davies & Raveis, 1985), but the Hierarchical Model (Senécal, et al., 2001) posits that emotional exhaustion takes place through a process which originates from work-family conflict, which itself is derived from family alienation. The same psychological processes depicted in the model operated for men and women. The findings of Senécal, et al., (2001) provide support for the motivation model of work-family conflict and also provide a framework for the study of factors that can contribute to the experience of work-family conflict in the lives of professionals, although the model was not extended to workers from non-professional groups. The findings of Senécal, et al., (2001) also provide support for Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991) and the Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation (Vallerand, 1997).

Concentrating on the work domain, de Jong, et al., (2001) tested and evaluated the direction of relationships between job characteristics and employee psychological well-being. Using structural equation modelling, their results, after controlling for gender, age and negative affectivity, showed job demands and workplace social support to be the dominant causes of job satisfaction. However, given the weak evidence suggesting emotional exhaustion to be the causally dominant factor with respect to (perceived) job demands, the authors acknowledge that (perceived) job characteristics and psychological well-being influence each

other reciprocally rather than unidirectionally, as was previously suggested by Edwards (1998).

Again, concentrating on the work domain, a comprehensive qualitative and quantitative review of the job satisfaction-job performance relationship was conducted by Judge, Thoresen, Bono and Patton (2001). Given the vast number of studies examining this relationship across the decades, 25 per cent fewer studies were published in the 1990s compared with the 1980s. Judge et al., (2001) suggest this decline in interest was, at least in part, due to the impact of the Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) meta-analysis, results of which described the job satisfaction-job performance relationship as an "illusionary correlation" (p. 269) that represented a "management fad" (p.269), reporting it at .17. In the Judge et al., (2001) review, the authors argue that although researchers have used the .17 value to characterise the satisfaction-performance relationship, it is not an accurate estimate of the true relationship between overall job satisfaction and job performance. When Judge et al, (2001) critically examined the Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) meta-analysis and sought to remedy the limitations, they were confident that the true correlation of the satisfaction-performance relationship was close to .30. Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) based their corrections on internal consistency estimates of reliability of performance ratings, as opposed to the corrections based on interrater reliability. As Judge et al., (2001) note, because internal consistency estimates of reliability are generally higher than interrater estimates, this is one likely source of differences in the correlations. They go on to encourage a resurgence of research in the satisfaction-performance relationship.

The research in the work-family arena is brought up to date by a recent comprehensive review of the literature by Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux and Brinley (2005). Their monograph reviews 190 work-family studies published in industrial organisational and organisational behaviour journals from 1980 to 2002. The authors present a narrative review of past research, organised into the topical areas of work-life conflict, work role stress, work-family assistance, work schedules, job-related relocation, career and job-related outcomes, gender and the relationship between work and family domains, dual-earner couples and relationships among life domains. Rather surprisingly, Eby et al., (2005) suggest that little attention has been paid to developing or testing theoretical models of the work-family interface. They go on to acknowledge that most work-family studies rely on previous research findings to develop hypotheses or discuss various theories to frame study predictions without testing specific theories. According to Eby et al., (2005), this has resulted in a great deal of knowledge being available about work and family research but a lack of comprehensive theory building or model testing. Although this chapter reviews a number of

models, the literature does lack one comprehensive model. It might therefore be concluded that the work-family literature lacks one dominant overall theory to guide research. This may be linked to the arguably disparate conceptualisation of the work-family interface. Given the vast array of variables used to test different antecedents and outcomes in the work and family domains, with no comprehensive model integrating all aspects of work-life balance, it might, indeed, be reasonable to support the contention postulated by Allen et al., (2000) that work-family research is fractionalised.

In addition to the dominant reviews and models in the work-life balance literature, there has been a plethora of empirical studies examining issues specific to the work and family domains and, in particular, to work-life conflict. In addition, methodological issues are relevant. Before reviewing these areas, though, it is important to acknowledge that Scandinavian countries took the lead in promoting the issue of work-life balance in the 1960s and 1970s and have become the bastion of work-life balance policy since. In Scandinavia, work-life balance policy was designed to promote gender equality and to support families. Strong left wing policy has driven promotion of family life by implementing policies on leave entitlements and flexible working. In Denmark, the 1987 agreement on working time has led to 45 per cent of all employees reporting working 37 hours per week, whilst the Swedish Working Hours Act of 1996 sets a standard working week of 40 hours and, as a result, as many as 52 per cent of all workers report 40 usual working hours (Bishop, 2004). Scandinavian parental leave programmes include wage compensation during maternity leave, which varies from 64 weeks in Sweden, 50 weeks in Finland and Denmark and 26 weeks in Iceland (Nousiainen & Pylkkanen, 2003). Fathers are in general entitled to a share of the parental leave, but very few of them actually use this benefit. Care of children under the age of three at home is subsidized in all countries. In Finland, parents can choose between kindergarten and subsidized care at home. All children under school age are entitled to full-time day care irrespective of their family status or parents' employment situation. In all Scandinavian countries, between half and 80 per cent of children aged three to six are enrolled in some type of day care (Nousiainen & Pylkkanen, 2003).

In the USA, gender equality is promoted through affirmative action, which is designed to increase the opportunities for women and ethnic minority groups in work. Social policy in relation to working hours and holiday entitlement is very limited, with entitlement generally depending upon 'good practice' by employers. While it could be argued that both the USA and Scandinavia promote gender equality, the legislative approach differs. In all Scandinavian countries, the rate of women's employment is about 80 per cent. In Finland and Denmark, the vast majority of women in waged labour (80 to 90 per cent) work full-time

(Nousiainen & Pylkkanen, 2003). In Norway, Sweden and Iceland, the average percentage of women working full-time and part-time is more evenly balanced with both at between 40 and 50 per cent. In the USA, the employment rate for women is 58.6 per cent, with 63 per cent of these in full-time employment and 37 per cent in part-time employment (US Department of Labor, 2003). Given the differences in the percentages of women in full-time employment in Finland and Denmark and the USA, there are strong reasons to argue that the positive discrimination of the USA does not facilitate women's participation in work as much as family-friendly policies in terms of women in full-time employment. Perhaps because of the contrasts in the non-regulatory labour market of the USA and the legislative backed labour market in Scandinavia, work-life balance and work-family research has been dominated by North American and North European academics.

Within the last five years, a series of measures have been introduced in the UK, in a limited way, to emulate the work-family policies seen in Scandinavia. The UK government initiative on work-life balance has seen increasing backing by legislation of the rights of working parents. Although UK policy is explained later in this chapter, examples of legislation are that maternity leave has increased to 52 weeks with 26 of those being paid at £100 per week. Two weeks paid paternity leave has been introduced, and parents with children under the age of six years old, and 18 in the case of a disabled child, have the right to request flexible working. However, these family-friendly policies do not appear to have dramatically increased women's full or part-time participation in the workforce. In 2004, the employment rate for women was 69.5 per cent. Of these, 57 per cent of women employees worked full-time, compared to 56 per cent working full-time in 1997 (DTI, Interim Update of Key Indicators of Women's Position in Britain, 2004). In 2004, 57 per cent of women with a child of pre-school age were economically active compared with 55 per cent in 1997. There is little change in the proportion of women working part-time since 1997. In 1997, 42 per cent of women worked part-time compared to 43 per cent in 2004 (DTI, Interim Update of Key Indicators of Women's Position in Britain, 2004).

In addition to women's position in the labour market, the interest in balancing work and life outside work may also reflect the fact that the contemporary work-life balance debate is partly about affluence and its consequences due to the rising numbers of dual-earner couples (Guest, 2002). As noted at the beginning of this chapter, sociological and psychological research initially tended to address issues about work and family separately, with organisational psychology examining stress in the workplace as a separate issue. Journal articles were dominated by research from the USA until the 1990s and whilst text books on the subject of balancing work and home life began to appear in the USA in the

1980s and in the UK in the early 1990s (e.g. Cooper & Lewis, 1994), it is only relatively recently that work-life balance and flexible working have been given page space in specific organisational texts (e.g. Arnold, Cooper & Robertson, 2005).

Literature Review of Work-family Conflict

The area most concentrated upon with regard to the work-family interface is that of work-family conflict. By providing an overview of outcomes of work-family conflict, its widespread negative effects are underscored. A review of the conflict literature suggests that the outcomes associated with work-family conflict can be organised into two categories: organisational outcomes of conflict and personal outcomes of conflict.

Organisational Outcomes of Conflict

Of the varied attitudinal and behavioural work-related outcomes associated with work-family conflict examined, a review by Allen, et al., (2000) suggests that job satisfaction is the outcome variable that has attracted the most research attention. Although results have been mixed, the majority of studies have found that as work-family conflict increases, job satisfaction decreases. The meta-analytic review by Kossek and Ozeki (1998), which examined the relationship among work-family conflict, policies, and job and life satisfaction, showed a consistent negative relationship to exist among all types of work-family conflict and job-life satisfaction. This relationship was slightly less strong for family-work conflict.

Several authors have shown a relationship between work-family conflict and lower job satisfaction (e.g. Bruck, Allen, & Spector, 2002; Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Parasurman & Simmers, 2001; Perrewe, Hochwarter, & Kiewitz, 1999) and less career satisfaction and work-family conflict (Martins, Eddleston, & Veiga, 2002; Parasurman & Simmers, 2001). More specifically, research suggests that a high level of psychological involvement with an individual's job has been associated with higher job satisfaction but increased work-family conflict, which in turn, results in lower levels of life satisfaction (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Eagle, 1995; Frone, et al., 1992a; Greenhaus, Parasuraman, Granrose, Rabinowitz, & Beutell, 1989; Parasuraman, Greenhaus, & Granrose, 1992). It has been asserted by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) that high levels of psychological involvement with a job reduce family involvement because of limited time available to enact roles of other domains. The same authors suggest this is due to people remaining preoccupied with their job expectations even when they are with their families.

In contrast, Parasuraman, et al., (1992) found work-family conflict to be unrelated to job or family satisfaction for either men or women. In their study of male executives Judge, et al.,

(1994) also found the effect of family-work conflict on job satisfaction was not supported. One explanation for this may be that the extent to which family life interferes with the job is not relevant to the 'actual' job when male executives form judgements on job satisfaction. Alternatively, it is possible that male executives may have more flexibility than most workers to adjust their work schedules in order to accommodate family responsibilities without them encroaching on the job. It is also possible that a different result would be obtained from female executives, whose spouse may not be at home, or from lower level managers who may be more likely to have younger children, or to have lower incomes and thus be less able to manage the responsibilities accompanying small children. However, the findings of Judge, et al., (1994) did support the effect of work-family conflict on life satisfaction, highlighting that whilst family life was rated second in importance to work, it was, nonetheless, an important element in the lives of most executives. In the Judge et al., (1994) study, hours worked per week were significantly correlated with work-family conflict, indicating that significant commitment to one role interferes with successful performance in the other. In another study of male executives, Lyness and Thompson (1997) found a non-significant relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction. Likewise, Thompson and Blau (1993) obtained non-significant results with a sample of female employees and Ayree, Luk, Leung and Lo (1999) also observed a non-significant relationship among employed parents in dual-earner families in Hong Kong. Mixed results within studies have also been reported. Using a one-item measure of job satisfaction and a sample of dual-career parents with children attending day-care centres, Wiersma and Van den Berg (1991) found a significant relationship for women but not for men.

Although job satisfaction is the outcome variable that has received the most attention by researchers (Allen, et al., 2000), turnover intention appears to be the variable most highly related to work-family conflict (Allen, et al., 2000). This finding suggests that a common response to a high degree of work-family conflict may be a desire to leave the situation. Several researchers have found turnover intention to be related to work-family conflict (e.g. Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Collins, 2001; Houston & Waumsley, 2003; Kelloway, Gottlieb & Barham, 1999). This, along with decreased productivity and increased absenteeism, has serious consequences for employers and for the financial stability of employees and their families. It is often mothers more than fathers who leave work or change from full to part-time working, resulting in a decrease in occupational attainment for many women (Sigala, 2005). For the organisation, significant administrative and training costs are created when these employees have to be replaced (DTI, 2000). Greenhaus, et al., (2001) found that the relationship between work-family conflict and both turnover intentions and actual turnover is weaker among those less involved in their careers. Career satisfaction moderated the

relationship between family-work conflict and turnover intentions. Among those low in career involvement, a weak positive relationship was found between family-work conflict and turnover intentions, whereas the opposite was found among those high in career involvement.

A longitudinal study by Stroh, Brett and Reilly (1996) investigated differential turnover rates between 615 male and female managers in 500 corporations. Results of this study showed that female managers leave their organisations more often than male managers, but that their intentions to leave were not due to family structure, but to lack of career opportunities. Female managers were no more likely to leave for family reasons than male managers, but results showed strong evidence for the glass ceiling explanation of female managers' turnover.

Other studies have shown that organizations also suffer through absenteeism and lower productivity when employees find it difficult to balance work and family life (Spilerman & Schrank, 1991; Goff, et al., 1990; Raabe, 1990). Absenteeism costs UK employers £567 per employee every year, with home and family responsibilities ranking amongst the main causes of absence (CIPD, 2003). However, using a sample of health care workers, Thomas and Ganster (1995) found no relationship between work-family conflict and self-reports of absenteeism.

Personal Outcomes of Conflict

Allen, et al's., (2000) review of the consequences resulting from work-family conflict suggest that life satisfaction is the variable most often associated with work-family conflict in the non-work domain. In general, several studies have reported that greater levels of work-family conflict are associated with lower levels of reported life satisfaction (e.g. Aryee, et al., 1999; Chiu, 1998; Eagle, 1995; Frone, et al., 1992a; Higgins & Duxbury, 1992; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Netemeyer, Boles & McMurrian, 1996; Perrewe, et al., 1999; Rice, et al., 1992).

Research has also shown that there are links between work-family conflict and physical and psychological health. Using the General Health Questionnaire (Goldberg & Hillier, 1979), O'Driscoll, et al., (1992) found that the more work interfered with non-work activities, the more psychological strain increased. Beatty (1996) found that increased levels of work-family conflict were associated with increased levels of anxiety and irritability. In two studies, Parasuraman, et al., (1992) and Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshalk and Beutell (1996) found that general life stress, such as feeling upset, frustrated, or tense, significantly related to work-family conflict. Burke and Greenglass (1999) found that work-family conflict related to

greater psychological distress, whilst Frone, Russell, and Cooper (1993) reported work-family conflict to be directly related to alcohol problems. More specifically, Frone, Russell and Cooper (1994) demonstrated a link between lack of family time and compulsive drinking and smoking in employed mothers. In a later study, Frone, Russell and Cooper (1997) differentiated between work-family and family-work conflict, finding that work-family conflict predicted greater depression, physical health complaints, and hypertension, whereas family-work conflict predicted greater alcohol consumption. More recently, Frone (2000) found that both work-family conflict and family-work conflict positively related to anxiety disorders, mood disorders, and substance abuse disorders. Moreover, the relationship between family-work conflict and anxiety disorders was stronger among men than women (Frone, 2000). Frone (1999) also suggested that for some employees there is a strong relationship between job stressors and substance abuse but, later, failed to support this finding (Frone, 2003).

Depression has also been related to work-family conflict, indicating that increased work-family conflict is related to increased depression (e.g. Frone, et al., 1992a; Frone, Russell & Barnes 1996; Netemeyer, et al., 1996; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). In another study, Beatty (1996) separated her sample of female managers and professionals into those with children and those without. Depression was significantly related to work-family conflict for women with children but was not for women without children. However, it should be noted that Frone, et al., (1997) found no relationship between depression and work-family conflict over time.

In their review of work-family conflict outcomes, Allen, et al., (2000) found that one of the most consistent and strongest findings in the literature was the significant relationship between work-family conflict and stress related outcomes. In a study of male executives, Judge, et al., (1994) found both work-family and family-work conflict to significantly influence job stress. Kelloway, et al., (1999) and Parasurman and Simmers (2001) have also linked work-family conflict to greater stress. Specifically, this relationship means that job dissatisfaction and job stress are related to individual strain, which, in turn, mediates the effect on parent-child interactions and marital relationships (Kinnunen & Gerris, 1996). In the UK, stress costs the health service two billion pounds and industry a further five billion pounds a year (Department of Health, 2002). High levels of fatigue and psychological strain have been found to increase the duration of absences (Eagle, Icenogle, Maes & Miles, 1998). Some studies have specifically focused on work-family conflict and job burnout (e.g. Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998; Netemeyer, et al., 1996) finding that increased work-family conflict was related to increased job burnout.

A number of studies have found a relationship between increased work-family conflict and increased physical symptoms or somatic complaints such as poor appetite, fatigue, and nervous tension (e.g. Adams & Jex, 1999; Kinnunen & Mauno, 1998, Netemeyer, et al., 1996; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). In two independent samples, Frone, et al., (1996) found that increased work-family conflict was related to a single-item measure of overall physical health, and research has also shown work-family conflict to be related to general health and energy (e.g. Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999). However, in their longitudinal study, Frone, et al., (1997) found no relationship between work-family conflict and overall health or between work-family conflict and hypertension.

Whilst most research assumes that conflict is caused primarily by the demands of work, increasing attention is being given to the consequences of high demands in life outside work. Hochschild (1997) suggests that policies and practices at work can make it more appealing than being at home, where modern day pressures of transporting children and constantly meeting specific needs in order to set aside 'quality family time' are considered more and more necessary. This is an interesting perspective, illustrating the pressures of balancing time demands between work and non-working roles. Exploring the impact of a range of work stressors, including work-family conflict, on marital satisfaction, Mauno and Kinnunen (1999) carried out a study of 215 Finnish dual-earning couples. Using structural equation modelling, their results showed most of the stressors affect marital satisfaction via job exhaustion and its impact on health, with work-family conflict and time pressures yielding the strongest effects. An example of research that examines the effects of both work and family stressors is that of Vinokur, Pierce and Buck (1999), which partly replicates an earlier study by Frone, et al., (1992a). Again using structural equation modelling, the study examines the impact of work and family conflicts on the mental health and functioning of women in the US Air Force. Results showed that both marital distress and family-work conflict had adverse effects on mental health. High involvement in both job and family increased work-family conflict.

Kossek, Colquitt and Noe (2001), building on earlier work (e.g. Kossek & Ozeki, 1999) examined the effects of work and family on work-life balance. Their focus was on decisions about when, and by whom, caring for children and elderly family members should take place. Results showed that a climate of support at work and of sharing caring responsibilities at home had a positive impact on performance and well-being. Caring for an elderly relative in the home where the climate is not one of sharing and support had a negative association with performance both at work and at home.

Antecedents to, and Outcomes of, Conflict

Other studies have linked specific antecedents to, and outcomes of, work-family conflict. In their study of public accountants, Greenhaus, Collins, Singh and Parasuraman (1997) found employees with greater work and family overload reported more work-family conflict, which led to greater stress and higher turnover intentions. Research has also shown that higher job demands lead to greater work-family conflict that, in turn, lead to greater psychological strain (Major, Klein & Ehrhart, 2002). Parasuraman, et al., (1996) also found that employees who spent more time at work, had high work overload, greater parental demands and less family involvement, had high work-family conflict, which then was related to increased life stress. In addition, employees with high job involvement, less job autonomy, and less emotional support, reported more family-work conflict, which was related to greater life stress and lower career satisfaction.

Similarly, Adams, King and King (1996) found the effects of job involvement on both job and life satisfaction were mediated by work-family conflict. Adams and Jex (1999) also found, with respect to work-family conflict, that workers who set priorities and had a preference for being organised also reported greater perceived control. This perceived control led to lower family-work conflict. In turn, family-work conflict related negatively to job satisfaction and health.

In longitudinal work by Grandey and Cropanzano (1999), work role stress was found to be related to work-family conflict, which, five months later, was related to increased turnover intention, life distress and health complaints. Greater family role stress related to family-work conflict, which, five months later, related positively to family distress. Family-work conflict has also been shown to mediate the relationship between family stress and depression (Frone, et al., 1992a). Specifically, family stress led to higher family-work conflict, which led to more depression. In contrast, a study conducted with Chinese workers in Hong Kong, which examined the cross-cultural generalisability of the Frone, et al (1992a) model, found that job conflict led to higher work-family conflict which, in turn, lowered life satisfaction (Aryee, et al., 1999). In a later study, Frone, et al., (1997) found those workers reporting greater family time commitments, higher family distress and greater family overload reported more family-work conflict and, as a result, exhibited poorer job performance. They also found that workers with greater work time commitments, higher work distress and greater work overload reported higher levels of work-family conflict, which led to lower performance in the family domain.

Carlson and Kacmar (2000) examined the moderating role of life role values on work-family and family-work conflicts. Significant differences were found between those with high work

role values as well as between individuals placing more or less importance on work and family roles. For those who place more value on the family role, greater time and involvement at work negatively impacted on job satisfaction. In contrast, if work was more salient than family, family sources of conflict had greater impact on outcomes. The relationship between family role conflict and family interfering with work, as well as job involvement and job satisfaction, was stronger for individuals with a high value on work and a low value on family, compared to those who highly value both work and family. For those highly valuing work and family, work role conflict had a stronger effect on job satisfaction, with job involvement having a stronger effect on life satisfaction, compared to those who did not value both domains. A stronger value was also found between work stress and job satisfaction for those with low work and high family values compared to those with low work and family values.

Linking support to conflict, Thomas and Ganster (1985) found supervisor support reduced work-family conflict among health care workers, which in turn, led to greater job satisfaction, less depression, and fewer somatic complaints. A study by Anderson, Coffey and Byerly (2002) showed that less flexibility in work schedules, lower managerial support and the perception that family pressures had negative career consequences, predicted work-family conflict. In turn, greater work-family conflict related to lower job satisfaction, stronger turnover intentions, and greater stress. Family-work conflict was predicted by family responsibilities, which in turn related to higher absenteeism.

Methodological Inconsistencies

Within the work-life conflict research, there are several methodological inconsistencies. Whilst some studies have assessed bi-directional conflict between the work domain and the family domain (e.g. Frone, et al., 1992a, 1992b; Frone, et al., 1997; Gutek, Searle & Klepa, 1991; O'Driscoll, et al., 1992; Williams & Alliger, 1994), others have measured either uni-directional conflict (e.g. Aryee, 1993; Small & Riley, 1990; Kirchmeyer, 1992) or non-directional conflict (e.g. Goff, et al., 1990; Wiersma & van den Berg, 1991). The differences in methodology and measurements used limits the extent to which specific generalisations can be made.

The work and family research arena is fractionalised because of diverse types of individuals working within it (Allen, et al., 2000). For example, individuals working in disciplines such as psychology, sociology, business, and social work have contributed to work and family research. This tends to lead to an emphasis on different issues (e.g. sociologists are more concerned with family-related outcomes, whereas organisational psychologists are more concerned with work-related outcomes) without an examination of similar work in other

disciplines. As noted by Russell (1991), implications associated with fractionalisation and isolation are that progress in research and practice is not systematic or integrated. Separate, disjointed theories may develop across fields as a result. This limits the progress that could be made by taking a broader, more integrative perspective that builds on previous research.

Researchers have identified numerous variables that link work and family (e.g. Burke & Greenglass, 1987; Frone, et al., 1992a; Frone, et al., 1997; Lambert, 1990; Senécal, et al., 2001; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Zedeck, 1992). Whilst this has provided a rich base to the work-family interface there are shortcomings. Firstly, as Zedeck (1992) suggested, some of the variables identified are similar but couched in different terms. Not only does this make it difficult to identify a core set of linking variables, but, as postulated by Edwards and Rothbard, (2000), implies distinctions among the variables that are not conceptually meaningful. Secondly, given the descriptive nature of variables identified, some researchers (e.g. Frone, et al., 1994; Lambert, 1990) point to the difficulties in denoting causal relationships between specific work and family constructs. As noted by Netemeyer, et al., (1996) the lack of consistency with which the work-family conflict construct has been operationalised makes it difficult to argue that all measures are associated with a core construct.

The most important difficulty with conceptualisations of the variables that link work and family concerns the direction of the relationships. For example, researchers often describe 'positive' spillover as work satisfaction that enhances family functioning and 'negative' spillover as work dissatisfaction that hinders family functioning (e.g. Eckenrode & Gore, 1990; Voydanoff, 1989). Although the terms positive and negative suggest a difference in direction, both these forms of spillover represent a single statistically positive relationship between work satisfaction and family functioning (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Lambert (1990) illustrates this by presenting path diagrams of relationships between work and family constructs with positive or negative indicators that do not specify the direction of the relationship but describe a positive or negative outcome of the relationship.

As highlighted by Frone, et al., (1994) and Lambert (1990), a second difficulty concerns the causal relationship between work and family constructs. Because the vast majority of studies have assessed bivariate links between work and family, a third variable, almost always overlooked, often confounds these causal links. For example, various authors (e.g. Gutek, Repetti & Silver, 1988; Judge & Watanabe, 1994; Rice, Near & Hunt, 1980; Staines, 1980) have described emotional spillover as a positive correlation between job and family satisfaction. However, as Frone, et al., (1994) suggest, it may be that rather than a causal

relationship between emotion in the two domains, this correlation may be due to disposition. Similarly, an individual's intent, the behaviour of others both at work and in the family, and policies and practices in operation, are all processes that will have some mediating effect on the relationship between two variables.

Research on Work-life Balance in the UK

Little was known about work-life balance in the UK before the end of the 1990s, when two large projects came to fruition; the Work and Family Life Programme, funded by the Joseph Rowntree Foundation, and the Future of Work Programme, funded by the ESRC. At the beginning of the 21st century, the subject of work-life balance became a significant aspect of the UK government's agenda. On the 9th March 2000, Tony Blair conducted a business breakfast at 10 Downing Street to launch the government's own campaign to promote better work-life balance in the UK. The overall aim of this was to increase employers' awareness and take-up of employment policies and practices for the mutual benefit of their businesses and their employees (DTI, 2000). Its specific aims are to encourage employers to introduce flexible working practices, and has three key elements: 1) The setting up of Employers for Work-Life Balance, a group of 22 employers who are committed to promoting good practice. 2) The publication of 'Changing Patterns in a Changing World', a DfEE discussion document. 3) The creation of a new £1.5 million challenge fund to help employers explore how work-life balance policies can help them. Thus, the overall aim of the Work-Life Balance campaign is to increase employers' awareness and take-up of employment policies and practices that benefit their businesses and help their employees achieve a better balance in their lives. By the end of 2000, the first Baseline Study of Work-life Balance (WLB 1) (Hogarth, Hasluck, Pierre, Winterbotham, & Vivan, (2000) was published, informing on work-life balance and the culture of UK working. This was followed up in 2003 by the second work-life balance (WLB 2) employer (Woodland, Simmonds, Thornby, Fitzgerald & McGee, 2003) and employee survey (Stevens, Brown & Lee, 2004). In the meantime, the Joseph Rowntree Foundation and the Economic and Social Research Council were conducting programmes of research examining the work-family interface in the UK. This chapter will therefore now go on to examine these major UK contributors to the work-life balance literature.

The Joseph Rowntree Foundation

An initial report from the Joseph Rowntree Foundation (Purcell, Hogarth & Simm, 1999) examined the costs and benefits of flexible working arrangements. The report highlighted that flexible working means very different things for different occupational groups and concluded that a useful definition of what 'employment flexibility' encompasses was found to be problematic to construct. Terms such as 'contingent employment', 'non-standard

employment' and 'flexible employment' were found to be just some terms used in the literature to cover a plethora of working arrangements, degrees of flexibility and objective levels of security or insecurity (Purcell, et al., 1999). While flexible working did facilitate labour market participation for certain groups, such as students combining work with study, for many, flexible working resulted in greater job insecurity. In administrative, technical and professional occupations, informal types of flexibility were often found to develop, with tacit agreement between employers and employees of reciprocal working time flexibility. These arrangements relied on a measure of trust between employee and management, rather than any formalised policies, and many flexible contracts involved poor terms and conditions of employment. At both professional and unskilled levels, many flexible working arrangements were far from family-friendly and resulted in workers having to extend their working hours with no notice (Purcell, et al., 1999) The flexibility for employees to vary their hours of work seems dependent on occupational groups with considerably greater provision of this working practice in the public sector, and less in the production sector of work.

In 1997, the JRF launched a programme of research entitled 'Families and work in the twenty-first century'. This examined three main themes: the effects of work on family life; the employer's perspective on work-family relations and social responsibility; and the relationship of work and family to community resources. This programme of research was set against changes in families' involvement in the labour force, and particularly the rise in working mothers. Findings suggest that, more than other workers, employed parents work outside the 9 to 5 structure with 53 per cent of mothers, 54 per cent of lone mothers and 79 per cent of fathers frequently working atypical hours (La Ville, Arthur, Millward, Scott, & Clayden, 2002). Moreover, the same authors found that over half of fathers and 13 per cent of mothers regularly work over 40 hours per week, with 30 per cent of fathers and 6 per cent of mothers regularly working over 48 hours per week, above the limit of the Working Hours Directive (La Ville et al., 2000). Self-employed parents were more likely than other parents to work long hours, with 14 per cent of self-employed mothers and 49 per cent of self employed fathers working more than a 48 hour week (Bell & La Ville, 2003).

Findings from various researchers (e.g. Backett-Milburn, Cunningham-Burley, & Kemmer, 2001; La Ville, et al., 2002; Reynolds, Callender & Edwards, 2003) showed that aside from the extra income, many working mothers enjoyed the higher status they felt working gave them over staying at home, and found working outside the home satisfying and stimulating. Stress in family life from having two earners was most evident in employed mothers, many of whom indicated that they would give up work if they could afford to (Bell & La Ville, 2003).

Work was also found to affect family life in terms of the quality and quantity of work. Bad days, a feeling of a lack of autonomy and long hours were all found to have a negative effect on family life (Baines, Wheelock & Gelder, 2003; La Ville et al., 2002; Reynolds et al., 2003). Irritability with the family, impatience with children, stress, lack of energy, and time with spouse and children squeezed due to length of time at work were all evident. When facing competing demands, mothers put children and work before time for self or partner (La Ville et al., 2002; Reynolds et al., 2003). Family life was found to be as central to fathers as it was for mothers and some fathers saw themselves as having an emotional role in the family as well as their main breadwinning role. However, fathers who worked long hours tended to rely on their spouse to provide the necessary time and support to their children (Baines, et al., 2003; La Ville et al., 2002; Mauthner, McKee, & Strell, 2001; Reynolds et al., 2003). Childcare provision was found to be problematic for employed parents, especially in families with more than one young child (Skinner, 2003). Some one-parent families found co-ordinating childcare arrangements so difficult that they could not consider employment options. Informal childcare was found to be the main form of care while mothers were at work (Skinner, 2003).

At the beginning of the JRF programme, the DTI was estimating costs to the workplace from changes in family circumstances. The economic costs of employee absence, taken to cope with family crises, were put at £11 billion in 1999, an average of £500 per employee. Stress and ill health were estimated to have lost between 4.4 and 8.5 million days and to have cost £360 million in the same year (DTI, 2000). This suggested that organisations could not afford to ignore these difficulties and surveys analysed within the JRF programme did suggest that employers, especially in larger workplaces, were adapting to changes in family life and employee responsibilities by offering various work-place policies (Dex & Smith, 2002). Analysis of the Workplace Employee Relations Survey found that flexible working arrangements could be associated with business performance (Dex & Smith, 2002). In contrast to the findings in this survey, in-depth case studies also found that smaller businesses could be highly innovative in their response to employee requests for flexible working (Dex & Scheibl, 2002). In an examination of the promotion and career prospects of those who take up offers of flexible work (Crompton, Dennett & Wigfield, 2003), there were encouraging signs that career prospects were not penalised if employees made use of flexible working arrangements. Flexibility was found to be popular with employees and even offered a good business case for some arrangements. However, it appears that whether or not flexible working arrangements are considered advantageous depends on the perspective adopted. Whilst the best scenario is to benefit both employee and employer, it may be that practices such as flexible and annualised hours may benefit the employer by avoiding overtime costs, but may be detrimental to the employee both by having to work long hours at

peak times, and doing without vital overtime payments. Houston and Waumsley (2003) conducted a study about attitudes to flexible working and family life with the Amalgamated Engineering and Electrical Union. This comprised 1,500 male and female managerial, skilled and semi-skilled workers and used a questionnaire survey and interview methodology. Semi-structured interviews with 40 trade union shop stewards provided a unique insight into their (mis)perceptions of flexible working. The study highlighted that as recently as 2002, electrical and engineering employees understood flexible working to be something that benefited the employer not the employee:

"The employers argument with flexible working is that everyone would turn in in the morning and they'd turn round and say, 'Right, we don't need you, you, or you, you go home and come back tonight'…That's their flexible working." (Male shop steward, 37 yrs, engineering technician)

"My understanding of flexible working is that if you're working and orders are good, then obviously they want all hands to the pump. However, the employer wants flexibility when things are not so good to give him the scope to keep costs down for the employer, to be competitive in the market place. It affects people's income because most of the time people work 40 hours a week. With flexibility, they can work 20 if the work drops off, and then the wages reduce by half. At the end of the day, they've still got a family to maintain, they've still got overheads; their bills won't decrease – it's very difficult." (Male shop steward, 31 yrs, process operator).

In the same study the authors developed a model of orientation to work and personal life, which showed that although, in their sample of full-time workers, men experienced higher levels of work-life conflict than women, they also held more negative attitudes towards flexible working than did women. Managers felt that family-friendly policies were more damaging to their careers than did other employees but held positive attitudes towards flexible working. Positive attitudes towards flexible working were associated with less conflict between work and family life, and a more positive work-family workplace culture. Higher levels of work-family conflict and a more negative workplace culture were associated with poorer psychological health for employees and a stronger intention to leave their organisation (Houston & Waumsley, 2003).

In keeping with many of these findings, a study of a range of business settings (Bond, Hyman, Summers & Wise, 2002; Phillips, Bernard & Chittenden, 2002; Reynolds, et al., 2003; Yeandle, Crompton, Wigfield & Dennett, 2002) found that implementing work-life policies still had some way to go. Communication and awareness about work-life policies

needed to be improved, as did the training of line managers. Flexibility also needed to be made part of the working culture with more recognition given to those with elderly care and disabled childcare needs. A key issue was that measures were needed to address the prevalent long hours culture, particularly amongst managers, that runs counter to work-life balance and sets working practice standards that many employees feel they cannot meet. These issues were particularly highlighted in the study conducted with four Scottish finance sector companies by Bond et al., (2002). In all four companies line managers had significant discretion over determining how actual leave arrangements and payments operated. Policies and policy changes were mainly communicated through the staff handbook, supplemented by email:

> "Policies exist, but not everyone is aware of them. This is partly to do with communication, but also some of these things are of less interest to some people...Communication is difficult and so we tend to use email, but people can easily ignore this." (Savings Manager)

Line managers said that specific training on family-friendly policies was patchy or non-existent. Lack of training could lead to inconsistent operation:

> "There is wide variation in how these policies are implemented because there is no training in this at all and no HR involvement." (Branch Manager)

Manager awareness of company policies was also inconsistent and there was confusion over terminology. Awareness of statutory provisions was variable. Despite this lack of organisational support, managers were expected to exercise considerable discretion in the operation of policies. There was also tension between formal policies and informal discretionary powers that take into account individual employee circumstances. For example, the ability of managers to offer flexible working hours was dependent on whether or not the task was time-critical and how easy it was to substitute for absent employees in terms of both numbers and general skills. Substitution was less easy for managers, for employees with specialised skills and for individuals whose work required inflexible working hours. Manager perceptions of employee working hours and commitment also influenced discretionary access:

> "If someone contributes well to the business, if they put in the hours for no extra pay, then that shows commitment and we'll go outside the policy for them." (Mortgages Manager)

Managers' general attitudes to flexible working influenced employee access to such practices. Paid and unpaid overtime was frequently reported and a long working hours culture

often underpinned management perceptions of appropriate work-life balance with regard to managerial staff. Part-time working was often perceived and treated as inappropriate for managers:

> "I think people stay too long and we have a culture in some areas where if you don't work long hours you are not seen as a good worker." (HR Manager).

This study illustrates that family-friendly employment means different things to different people, even in the same organisation. It also shows that few people were well informed of policy developments, which suggests that Government needs to consider ways to communicate policy initiatives to employers and employees alike. Employers also need to examine their internal communication processes.

Economic and Social Research Council

In 1998 the ESRC launched a 'Future of Work Research Programme'. This initiative brought together leading researchers in the United Kingdom in an investigation of the future prospects for paid and unpaid work. The ESRC programme provides evidence-based research to assist policy makers, practitioners and researchers to interpret the changing world of work in an era of rapid social, technological and economic change. The projects involved showed the multidisciplinary nature of the work-life balance literature, spanning the social sciences to include both qualitative and quantitative research in economics, sociology, social policy, psychology, industrial relations and human resource management. Some of the main themes will now be discussed.

In addition to the social and political reasons for work-life balance, the needs of employers also drive the need for more flexibility in the workplace. Changes in customer demands and the need for access to services and goods twenty-four hours a day mean that organisations must operate outside the traditional nine to five structure and employ individuals who are prepared to work flexibly. Whilst flexible working is often viewed as a means of increasing work-life balance for the individual, research findings from Booth and Frank (2005) suggest that jobs with non-standard hours of work often have low training, low job satisfaction and low pay. It is often women with young children who take these jobs because they require the flexibility in working hours, resulting in a gender bias in wages and working conditions. Drawing on the results from their Future of Work project, Booth and Frank (2005) examine how labour market flexibility can have different outcomes for different employees and the ways in which non-standard jobs can vary in their format. The authors consider the evidence about the prevalence of non-standard jobs in the British economy, their rates of pay, and the

gender balance of non-standard jobs. They discuss ways in which different policies might result in greater equality in pay and opportunity for men and women in the workplace. They argue that their research does not support policies of equal pay and conditions for contracts that differ, such as temporary versus permanent and full-time versus part-time. Instead they suggest both extending greater flexibility throughout the economy for all workers, and subsidising parents for raising children.

Flexibility in working hours that better meet the needs of the service and the employer, rather than provide flexible but predictable working times for the employee, were also shown in a study of call centre workers (Hyman, et al., 2005). The results of this study showed work intruding into non-work time, particularly for team-leaders and managers, in the form of informal unpaid overtime and taking work home. Despite the flexibility required from the call centre employees, Hyman et al, (2005) found no workplace childcare provision. Employees reported finding the cost of childcare prohibitive and relied on the support of partners and extended family to help them balance the demands of work and caring responsibilities. These intrusive spillovers into domestic life, coupled with the intense nature of the work in call centres, led to the reporting of stress, sleeplessness, exhaustion and an inability to escape from thinking about work. In terms of spillover theory (Staines, 1980), which asserts that there is similarity between what occurs in the work environment and what occurs in the family environment, Hyman et al., (2005) vividly depict the home lives of employees being negatively affected by the nature of work and work regimes.

Balancing caring responsibilities with work is a common theme running throughout the Future of Work research. Brugel and Gray (2005) found that fathers work longer hours for higher pay than other men, and mothers work shorter hours for less pay than other women. This situation suggests men continue to be the main family breadwinners, but, with increasing numbers of women in the workplace, the modern father finds his working role rather in contrast to the growing salience in caring responsibilities. Many women, particularly after childbirth, opt to change from full-time work to part time work but find it difficult to find part-time work that reflects their own abilities and interests (Houston & Marks, 2005). Part-time work is a key component of flexible working in many organisations, but is typified by problems for part-time workers finding it difficult to be seen as legitimate members of their organisation and by costs to career advancement, highlighting doubts as to the usefulness of part-time work as a stepping stone in working life (Sigala, 2005).

Hakim (2005) argues that there is a minority of women who have no interest in working, a majority of women who want to be able to combine working with family roles and other

women who expect to work full-time and reject any gender division of home roles. She therefore suggests, "Employers and national governments need to recognise the diversity of lifestyle preferences among women *and* men, and devise policies that are neutral between the three lifestyle preference groups." (Hakim, 2005). Rose (2005) extended the principle of a 'career pursuit pattern' to men. He argues that a career pursuit pattern is an individual conscious decision stemming from attitude preferences and that people with a career pursuit orientation to the labour market work longer hours than other people. This is especially the case if they are women (Rose, 2005). Contrary to the arguments about long working hours and increasing work intensification leading to greater pressures and stress (Cooper, et al., 2001; Green, 2001; Hyman, et al., 2001; Hyman et al., 2003), Rose (2005) argues that career pursuit orientation individuals do not appear to suffer negative consequences of this work ethic in terms of their own health and work-life balance.

The research described provides a picture of the interplay between work and non-work of imbalance rather than balance. Work has been shown to intrude into non-work time, both explicitly and implicitly (Hyman, et al., 2005) with many jobs offering flexible working also offering low pay with little or no training (Booth & Frank, 2005). Women dominate the part-time work force but many find it difficult to find part-time work that reflects their skills (Houston & Marks, 2005). Long working hours are prevalent (Hyman, et al., 2001; Hyman et al., 2003; Hyman, et al., 2005) although Rose (2005) suggests that careerists choose to work long hours without detriment to their health or their own work-life balance.

In addition to the JRF and ESRC projects, further insight into work-life balance in the UK was provided by governmental research. Following the government's baseline work-life balance report (WLB1) (Hogarth et al., 2000), governmental interest in work-life balance has resulted in further examination of the UK working culture. Findings from both the Employee (Stevens, et al., 2004) and Employer (Woodland, et al., 2003) surveys from The Second Work-Life Balance Study (WLB 2) indicate strong support for the importance of achieving work-life balance and for the concept of work-life balance amongst both employees and employers.

Findings from The Second Work-Life Balance Study: Employee Survey (Stevens, et al., 2004)

This study consisted of conducting 2,003 telephone surveys, lasting an average of 29 minutes, with British employees. The response rate was 29 per cent. The survey showed that employee attitudes towards being able to achieve a successful work-life balance were positive. Seventy-eight per cent of employees agreed everyone should be able to balance

their work and non-work lives. Attitudes towards work-life balance were relatively consistent with those found in the 2000 work-life balance study (Hogarth et al., 2000). Some change was found in the number of employees agreeing to business needs taking priority over employee demands for changes in working patterns. In the first work-life balance survey (Hogarth et al., 2000) fifty three per cent of employees felt that they should not be able to change their working pattern if it would disrupt the business, compared to sixty per cent believing this to be the case in 2003.

With regard to working hours, and in keeping with the findings of the WLB 1 (Hogarth et al., 2000) survey, employees worked longer hours than their contracted hours. Male employees, particularly fathers, those with supervisory responsibilities, managers and professionals, worked the longest hours. Women, managers, professionals, supervisors and older employees claimed pressure of work to be the reason for working additional hours. Although availability and take-up of work-life balance practices appeared to have increased since 2000, particularly for flexitime, which was the highest with take-up at 55 per cent, fifty-one per cent felt that working reduced hours would detrimentally affect their career and not being able to work beyond contracted hours also caused concern. Forty-two per cent felt that leaving work on time would negatively affect their career, as would taking leave to look after children or other dependants (37 per cent), working different working patterns (37 per cent), or working from home (25 per cent). There were some gender differences in these attitudes. Fifty-six per cent of men felt that working reduced hours would damage their career, as opposed to 45 per cent of women feeling this way. With regard to leaving work on time, this was considered to have a negative career impact by 46 per cent of men compared to 37 per cent of women.

Findings from The Second Work-Life Balance Study: Employer Survey (Woodland, et al., 2003)

This survey was based on 1,509 British employer interviews, a response rate of 60 per cent. Employer attitudes towards the concept of work-life balance were generally favourable, with 65 per cent agreeing that everyone should be able to balance their work and home lives in the way they want to. Seventy-four per cent of employers thought promotion was equally as likely for those who worked flexibly as it was for those who did not, which is somewhat in contrast to the high level of employees showing concern for the negative impact they felt flexible working would have on their career. Despite employers' positive attitudes towards work-life balance practices, 65 per cent agreed that trying to accommodate requests for different working patterns was not easy.

With regard to statutory leave entitlements, employers had limited awareness. Sixty-seven per cent were aware of the 26 weeks maternity leave entitlement for all women; 61 per cent had the additional knowledge of a further 26 weeks for women who had worked for the same employer for at least a year. Fifty-two per cent of employers were aware of legislation pertaining to paternity leave and pay. Sixty eight per cent of employers already provided maternity rights beyond the statutory minimum; with 22 per cent providing women with more maternity pay than was legally required. With regard to paternity leave, 35 per cent of workplaces had a written policy providing, usually, five days paternity leave. Childcare provision was not commonplace, with only 8 per cent of employers providing such facilities. Employers who did provide childcare support reported substantial benefits from doing so, with 79 per cent noticing a positive effect on their employee relations, 73 per cent suggesting a positive effect on turnover, and 72 per cent reporting improved employee motivation and commitment.

Part-time working was the most common form of flexible working practice provided by employers (74 per cent). Less than one in four employers provided any one of job-sharing, flexitime, annualised hours, term-time working, compressed working weeks or reduced working hours. Most were provided in combination, with 44 per cent of workplaces providing two or more of these practices. Benefits to the employer in providing flexible working benefits appear to outweigh disadvantages. The most frequently cited disadvantage, reported by 22 per cent of employers, was being short staffed. However, positive effects included staff retention (13 per cent), higher levels of motivation (10 per cent), better employee relations (71 per cent), improved employee motivation and commitment (69 per cent), improved turnover rates (54 per cent), improved recruitment (47 per cent), improved absenteeism (48 per cent) and improved productivity (49 per cent). Provision of four or more flexible practices appeared to have a positive impact on fiscal performance (39 per cent). Sixty-six per cent of employers who provided some form of work-life balance practice thought it to have been cost effective. Only 7 per cent of workplaces that provided flexible working practices reported substantial or moderate ongoing costs.

Conclusion for Findings of the WLB 2 Surveys

The findings of both the employee and employer surveys indicate strong support for the concept of work-life balance. However, contrasted with the favourable attitudes toward work-life balance, there is concern from employees that flexible working practices, if adopted, will have a detrimental effect on career prospects, although employers felt that those who worked flexible hours faced equal promotion chances to those not working flexible hours. Results from the employers survey also support the business case for the provision of work-

life balance practices. Despite some concerns for staff shortages, provision of flexible working practices was seen to have a positive effect on turnover, absenteeism, employee relations, motivation and commitment.

UK Policy

To enable people to work flexibly and to balance work and home responsibilities, some key issues have the backing of legislation, which are worth summarising at this juncture. With regard to leave, all employees are entitled to twenty days paid annual holiday. In addition, since April 2003, women have been entitled to 52 weeks maternity leave, with 26 of those paid at £100 per week. It is unlawful to dismiss anyone on the grounds of pregnancy and childbirth and contracts of employment continue during all periods of statutory maternity leave. Again, from 2003, the government introduced the right to two weeks paid paternity leave at a fixed rate of £100 per week. Further, for each child born after December 15th 1999, there is a right to 13 weeks unpaid parental leave for men and women up to the child's fifth birthday. This must be taken in blocks or multiples of a week, with 21 days notice given to the employer, except for the actual birth. The government intends to ensure that women who claim maternity allowance are able to take the full paid leave when this is extended to nine months from April 2007, with the goal of twelve months by the end of the next parliament (DTI, Choice & Flexibility, 2005).

From April 2003, parents of children under the age of 6 years old, and 18 years in the case of a disabled child, were given the right to request flexible working. Organisations have a duty to consider the request if it does not have a detrimental impact on business. Time off for dependants is a relatively new entitlement enabling employees to take unpaid time off, generally not expected to exceed two days, to deal with family emergencies. With regard to part-time working, the Part-Time Workers' Directive aims to encourage a more flexible approach to organising working time for the benefit of both employer and employee, to reduce discrimination against part-time employees and to raise the status of part-time working. Employers now have to make a valid case to refuse a reasonable request to change hours.

The UK Long Hours Culture

What constitutes 'long hours' is a debatable subject. Assessments appear to be based on subjective experience, such that long hours working is perceived as a significant departure from a normal working week. However, for the purposes of this thesis, long hours is defined as more than 48 hours per week, in line with the Working Time Regulations (1998).

The proportion of UK employees working long hours has increased over the last decade, notwithstanding that between 1988 and 1998, the basic average weekly standard hours fell for both men and women (from 40.2 to 39.3 and 37.4 to 36.8 respectively). The increase in long hours working is primarily due to the increased use of overtime, both paid and unpaid. The large rise in unpaid overtime among women is likely to reflect the increase in the numbers of women employed in managerial and professional occupations (Kodz, et al., 2002).

Contrasting the 'long hours culture' view, Philpott (2004) argues that the average working week in the UK has fallen by over an hour since the mid 1990s. He suggests that full-time workers, now averaging 37.4 hours a week, are working an hour and a half less each week, although acknowledges that part-time workers, who only work an average of 15.6 hours per week, are working half an hour longer. Likewise, between 1995 and 2003, the proportion of people usually working over 45 hours per week dropped from 25.8 per cent to 22.4 per cent. Men, who comprise 80 per cent of all long hours workers, account for the entire fall, according to Philpott (2004). There is agreement with Kodz (2002) on more women working in professional and managerial sectors, with the suggestion that the proportion of women working long hours has remained reasonably constant at around ten per cent, with a rise in the share of women employed in managerial and professional jobs offsetting any tendency for shorter hours.

Philpott (2004) also argues that when making comparisons with other EU countries it is important to look at the spread of working hours. In continental Europe the majority of people work around 35 to 40 hours per week, with few putting in longer or shorter hours. By contrast, in the UK, a 'typical' working week is harder to define. Although just under a quarter of British people in employment work more than 45 hours per week – a far higher proportion than in other EU countries – just over a quarter put in fewer than 30 hours a week, which is also a far higher proportion. Kodz, et al., (2002) agree that at first sight, average working hours in the UK are mid-range across all EU member states when both full-time and part-time employees are included. However, Kodz, et al., (2002) argue that simple international comparisons can be misleading. In particular, the UK mid-range position is distorted by the fact that, compared with most other EU states, the UK employs a high proportion of part-time women workers, working fewer than 30 hours per week. Amongst full-time employees, the UK shows high levels of long hours working (over 48 hours per week), especially among men, where the UK has the highest level of long hours working in the EU (Kodz, et al., 2002). Just over 22 per cent of UK men working full-time work long hours compared with an average of 11 per cent across the other EU member states. Full-time male managers work

the longest hours in the UK and across the EU member states as a whole. Professional women in the UK work a higher proportion of long hours than their EU counterparts. Sixteen per cent of UK employees worked over sixty hours a week, as opposed to 11 per cent in 2000, with the number of women working over sixty hours a week rising from 6 per cent in 2000 to 13 per cent in 2002.

Hogarth, et al., (2000) found eleven per cent of full-time UK employees worked sixty hours a week or more. By 2004, Stevens, et al. (WLB 2) found 67 per cent of employees worked an average of seven extra hours per week than they were contracted to do. The Hogarth, et al., (2000) study also found that men, particularly those with partners and children, worked longer hours than women, a difference that was also reflected in occupations. Managers and professionals were more likely to work in excess of sixty hours a week, but were also predominantly men. Individuals employed in clerical, secretarial and sales occupations tended to work less than sixty hours a week, and were also predominantly women. By 2003, (WLB 2) (Stevens, et. al.) these findings had changed little. Employees still worked longer hours than their contracted hours. There was no change from the WLB1 study (Hogarth, et al., 2000) in the gender division as to who worked the longest hours. Male employees, especially fathers, managers and professionals and employees with supervisory responsibilities worked the longest hours. Seventy per cent of employees who usually worked over 48 hours per week had not signed an agreement to opt-out of the Working Time Regulations. In addition, over a quarter of employees reported not taking their full annual leave entitlement due to pressure of work. As has been stated earlier, despite the value placed on work-life balance, employees in the United Kingdom work the longest hours of any European country (Kodz, et al. 2002).

Reasons given for working long hours are varied. For manual and non-manual workers the main reasons given for paid overtime working is to increase financial income and to meet job requirements (Cully, et al., 1998). Amongst managerial and professional workers a major reason for long hours working, particularly when it is unpaid, is the volume of work, promoted by staff shortages, IT/email overload, and travel for work. Attitudes and expectations of managers can be critical in engendering a long hours culture where 'being present' is valued as a sign of commitment to work and career enhancement (Kodz, et al., 2002). Women are less satisfied with their jobs, and more likely to want to reduce their hours, the more hours they work, than are men. Manual workers, who are able to increase their pay by working overtime, are satisfied with long hours and resistant to attempts to reduce them.

Findings from work with employees in the manufacturing sector (Houston & Waumsley, 2003) showed that forty-one per cent of those surveyed reported that they were regularly expected to work long hours, with 46 per cent reporting that they were regularly expected to put their jobs before their family. Women are particularly disadvantaged by long hours and 'being present', especially those with children, who are often unable to compete over presenteeism and as a result, may not be seen as fully committed to their organisation (Simpson, 1998).

Excessive long hours can have a negative effect on job performance and cause costly mistakes, especially when coupled with sleep disruption (Kodz, et al., 2002). There are also associations between long hours of work and negative health outcomes. In today's 24-hour society, long working hours and stress at work are causing serious problems for UK workers. One impact of long hours has been the increase in stress related illnesses (Smith-Major, Klein & Ehrhart, 2002). Nineteen per cent of men visit the doctor because of stress, with 23 per cent of men over 40 years of age doing so. Stress reduces work productivity by reducing concentration, negatively affecting sleeping patterns, increasing the incidences of headaches and anxiety and straining relations with fellow workers. Absenteeism for stress related illness, caused by issues such as work overload, pressures of deadlines, unsupportive working environments, work-family conflict, and difficulties in maintaining an acceptable work-life balance, is commonplace, causing serious implications for individuals and for industry, costing companies and the economy millions of pounds a year (Cooper, et al., 2001). Workplace stress and home responsibilities are among the top five causes of absence from work (CBI, 1999).

There are other negative consequences of working long hours. A survey among managers about the quality of their working lives (Worrall & Cooper, 1999) found some disturbing, although perhaps not surprising, results. Seventy-one percent of the managers responding to the survey reported that the number of hours they were working had an adverse impact on their health. Seventy-nine percent reported an adverse impact on their relationship with their spouse or partner. Eighty-six per cent reported an adverse impact on their relationship with their children. Sixty-eight percent reported an adverse impact on their productivity. In the same survey, fifty-eight percent believed that their employer expected long hours. Thirty-seven percent said they preferred to work long hours. Thirty-seven percent believed long hours were unacceptable but they had no choice, and thirty-three percent believed long hours to be a necessary sacrifice to get ahead in their career. A study by Ceridian (1999) showed that a third of UK managers would change their jobs if they felt that it would improve their work-life balance, with 79 per cent reporting an adverse impact from work on their

relationship with their spouse or partner. Life stage makes a difference to perceptions of work-life balance. A longitudinal study of graduates in large organisations (Sturges, et al., 2000) reveals that when graduates start their career, work-life balance is an important issue to them; they are keen not to get sucked into a long hours working pattern. As their careers advance, they work longer hours and become more dissatisfied with their work-life balance.

Echoing the rather negative findings above, a study by Compton-Edwards (2002) was conducted on 486 people, 291 of whom worked over 48 hours, and 139 were partners of 'long hours' workers. Results showed that 29 per cent of partners with children of school age or younger say that the time the long hours worker spends at work has a negative effect on his or her relationship with their children. Thirty six per cent report that the children have complained that they don't see enough of the parent who works more than 48 hours a week. Most long hours workers feel they do not have balance between work and home, with 56 per cent saying they dedicate too much time to work. Two-fifths of those working more than 48 hours a week report that long working hours have resulted in arguments with their spouse or partner in the last year. Nearly a third admit that work related tiredness is causing their sex life to suffer (Compton-Edwards, 2002).

These findings are echoed in the study by Hyman, et al., (2005), data for which was drawn from four Scottish call centres. The study, mainly of women employees with child care responsibilities although not exclusively, highlights flexibility being imposed on employees to meet service demands, shift working extending late into evenings and being prevalent at weekends, management extending shifts at short notice, unpaid, informal overtime, and taking work home, particularly by team leaders and managers. Stress, sleeplessness and exhaustion were often the price paid by employees, as were child care difficulties and lack of time to spend with family:

> "...my son was saying to me the other day, a couple of weeks ago, Daddy, I don't like these shifts you are working because I never see you..."

It has also been reported that working long hours has a negative effect on motivation, absence and turnover. The analysis of WERS (Cully, et al., 1998) reveals a significant association between long hours working and high staff turnover, although it is not clear whether long working hours leads to higher staff turnover or whether high rates of staff turnover make it necessary for remaining employees to work longer hours. Long hours, absenteeism, turnover intention and organisational commitment are all examined in chapters 4, 5 and 6 of this thesis.

In his report for the ESRC, Rose (2005) suggested individual differences in work orientation affect perception of work-life balance. Peiperl and Jones (2000) examined differences in a sample of MBA students, making the distinction between workaholics, who worked long hours at high effort levels but believed they receive fair reward for this, and those over-worked, who also worked long hours but were dissatisfied with their rewards. In contrast to Rose (2005), Peiperl and Jones (2000) suggested these differences may not be to do with individual personalities but part of the organisational culture in which the individual works. Workaholics may be part of an organisational culture that supports long hours, high effort and high reward. Further evidence supports a distinction between workaholics and those who simply work long hours. In a CIPD survey (1999) of over 800 people working more than 48 hours a week, a third admitted to being addicted to their work. They also reported higher levels of work and life satisfaction than those working long hours who did not admit to being addicted to their work. These findings support those of Rose (2005) who argues that career pursuit orientation individuals do not appear to suffer negative consequences of this work ethic in terms of their own health and work-life balance. However, in the CIPD survey (1999) partners of those working long hours and reporting high levels of work and life satisfaction did not show such a positive response, suggesting differences in perceptions of long hours working on work-life balance.

The annual UK Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development survey of the psychological contract and the state of the employment relationship (Guest & Conway, 2000), which questioned a random sample of 1000 people in the working population, found that 74 per cent said they felt they had a balance between their working and non-working lives. Among those who reported an imbalance, nine out of ten said it was due to work. There was also a strong correlation between long hours of work and imbalance between work and non-work. Thirteen per cent of respondents reported that work prevented them from meeting commitments outside work "a great deal of the time", 27 per cent said it happened "some of the time", 31 per cent said "it didn't happen very often", whilst 30 per cent said "not at all". When asked whether work or home wins when there is a conflict between the two, 43 per cent said it was work, 32 per cent said home, with 24 per cent saying it was equal. The survey also showed the problem of imbalance not only to be more serious among those who work long hours, but also among those in well-paid management positions, for women rather than men, and for those with dependent children. Less imbalance was reported by those who found their work culture friendly, where human resource practices were in place, and by those who experienced more autonomy. Family-friendly policies were not associated with greater work-life balance (Guest, 2002), a finding perhaps explained by Perry-Smith and Blum (2000) who report an American study on "bundles" of family friendly

practices. They found that isolated family-friendly practices had little impact but bundles of practices were associated with improved work performance. Guest (2002) suggests bundles of practices become embedded in the organisational culture, which is what makes them effective.

Organisational Context and Managerial Perspective

As has been mentioned, there have been different approaches to the study of work-life balance, dictated by the discipline in which the research is orientated. Management, organisational and human resource specialists tend to offer a different perspective on work-life balance and flexible working than sociologists and psychologists. Whilst family life appears to be under pressure from the twenty-four-hour society, organisations are also feeling the pressure from global competition. Whilst, from a work-life balance perspective, flexible working tends to be perceived as an aid to carrying out multiple work and non-work roles, particularly for working mothers (Houston & Marks, 2005) from a management and organisational perspective, 'Numerical flexibility', Functional flexibility', and 'Reward flexibility' are the three main approaches to working flexibility (Michie & Sheenan-Quinn, 2001). 'Numerical flexibility' is the ability of firms to change the number of people they employ by making use of part-time and temporary employees, short fixed-term contracts, freelance work and home working. 'Functional flexibility' is the ability to move workers from one task to another. 'Reward flexibility' is the ability of payment systems to respond to labour market conditions and to reward and encourage improved performance. Flexible working practices can result in savings on wages by paying workers only at peak production times, and because many 'flexible' workers often earn less than tenured workers and may not be entitled to benefits such as sickness pay (Purcell, et al., 1999). Whilst the UK work culture has been facilitated by a government that encourages flexibility in the labour market, seen as crucial for a competitive economy, Britain may risk detriment to long-term economic performance by undervaluing innovative activity. The flexibility available not only needs to enhance business performance, but also needs to be acceptable to employees in order to boost work performance. If the needs of employees are not considered in flexible working arrangements, innovative activity, in itself seen as vital to long-term economic progress, will be put at risk. Clearly, short-term efficiency gains should not be pursued at the expense of longer-term economic progress. Employee scepticism over the organisational perspective on flexibility in the workplace was depicted by the AEEU shop stewards interviewed by Houston and Waumsley (2003).

It is also, therefore, recognised that human resource and industrial relations practices affect organisational performance (e.g. Osterman, 1994, 2000; Patterson, West, Lawthom &

Nickell, 1997; Richardson & Thompson, 1999). Research indicates the importance of people management practices in influencing company performance. Patterson, et al., (1997) highlight that the 'management of people' is the most important area to emphasise if managers wish to influence the performance of their companies. Implicated in this are flexible working practices that encourage employees to perform to optimal standards; flexible practices that suit both the employee as well as the employer. Such flexible policies have been found to increase motivation, reduce absenteeism, and improve productivity (Janman, Savage, Knell, Watt, 2001; Scheibl & Dex, 1998). Creating the right sort of flexibility can avoid the short-term pay off of the more insecure workforce. The sort of labour flexibility that the government should be encouraging for innovation and optimal corporate performance requires investment in people.

In a recent report on job satisfaction, Green and Tsitsianis (2004) argue that the increase in work intensification and decreasing opportunities for personal initiative in the workplace, rather than job insecurity, are to blame for declining job satisfaction in the UK. Green suggests that having less personal responsibility and use of initiative in their work, combined with an increase in the effort required, are to blame for dissatisfied employees, suggesting that the most satisfied employees are those who have a secure job, with high level of discretion and participation in decision making, but not requiring highly intensive work effort.

Long working hours and high work intensity can partly be explained by the emphasis in the UK on numerical flexibility, which is characterised by a small number of permanent and overworked employees; and 'peripheral workers' who may be on a variety of short-term contracts with little security (Beatson, 1995). Increasingly, however, managers who traditionally have been seen as permanent workers are experiencing insecurities as they too may face redundancies or limited career prospects within organisations. This impacts on hours worked by managers in two main ways. Firstly, due to much restructuring, new technology, and loss of key personnel, workload is increased leading to longer hours (Kodz, et al., 2002). Secondly, due to job insecurity, many managers remain at their desks for long periods of time in order to demonstrate job commitment (Kodz, et al., 2002), a behaviour that is described as 'presenteeism' (Cooper, 1996).

Research by Houston and Waumsley (2003) showed contrasting attitudes towards obtaining work-life balance. Whilst many individuals held favourable views about working flexibly to obtain a balance between work and non-work, flexible working was also viewed with some suspicion in terms of suitability for the job and for career progression. These contrasts are echoed in the findings of Stevens, et al., (2004) which show that whilst workers place high

value on work-life balance, they were concerned that to work flexible hours to attain it would have a detrimental effect on their career.

Evidence illustrating that employees are reluctant to use family-friendly opportunities also comes from the USA. An American poll in 1995, in which employed parents were asked what job benefits they considered to be most important, showed that 40 per cent of mothers and 21 per cent of fathers said family benefits were the most important job benefits. Another ten per cent of mothers and five per cent of fathers thought flexible hours were most important (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Another study of engineers found that employees were reluctant to take advantage of work-family benefits because of the fear of damage to career prospects (Perlow, 1995). One of the few studies to investigate the reasons why employees do or do not take up family-friendly benefits also comes from the USA. Thompson, Beauvais and Lyness (1999) examined the uptake of work-family benefits by 276 American graduate employees. They found that women and employees with children were most likely to take advantage of work-family benefits. They also examined what kind of work culture was related to the uptake of such benefits. The authors controlled statistically for the actual level of provision available to employees in different organisations, and examined what kind of workplace culture determined uptake of the provision. Employees in organisations where there was a positive work-family culture had a higher uptake of provision. Two factors were negatively related to uptake – negative career consequences for devoting time to family responsibilities and employer expectations that interfere with family responsibilities. Managerial support was positively related to uptake. Moreover, perceptions of a supportive work-family culture were positively predictive of commitment to the organisation and negatively predictive of intentions to leave the organisation. What this study shows is that simply providing family-friendly practices is not enough; employees must feel confident that using such provision is consistent with the ethos of the organisation and will not damage their career prospects.

From a managerial perspective, and taking into account cross-cultural evidence, it has been argued (e.g. Grover & Crooker, 1995) that managers are critical of any successful implementation of work-family programmes, and research supports this. Powell and Mainiero (1999) put forward a 'work disruption theory', according to which managers consider the potential for disruption to the conduct of work when making a decision about whether or not to approve the request. The authors suggest that alternative working arrangements make managers' jobs more complex and difficult by placing demands on them that are over and above traditional supervisory demands (Powell & Mainiero, 1999). In addition to ensuring the necessary work gets done well, managers accommodating requests for alternative working

arrangements are forced to juggle work schedules to ensure adequate coverage at all times. The WLB 2 survey (Woodland, et al., 2003) also found that a major disadvantage for managers of flexible working was shortage of staff.

Powell and Mainiero (1999) go on to argue that even in organisations with formal work-family programmes, managers are primarily rewarded for the results of their work, rather than for any concern shown for their employees' family-related needs. Given the additional demands that alternative working arrangements place on managers and the lack of incentives for them to approve requests for them, it is perhaps not totally surprising that managers have been found to be unwilling to approve specific requests for alternative working arrangements unless in doing so, they believe there to be little or no disruption to the conduct of work (Powell and Mainiero, 1999). It appears that managers tend to focus on their own short-term best interests when making decisions about company flexible working programmes. This would support many theories of motivation and behaviour, ranging from the early expectancy theory of work motivation (Vroom, 1964) to the more rational bias theory of discrimination (Larwood, Szwajkowski & Rose, 1988), which suggests that individuals act in what they perceive to be their own self- interest.

Kossek and Ozeki (1999) argue that one of the principal reasons as to why organisations are advised to offer work-family programmes to their key employees is to foster their commitment to the organisation, thereby reducing staff turnover. The finding that managers' lives are made more difficult in terms of staff shortages (Powell & Mainiero, 1999; Woodland, et al., 2003) may influence decisions as to whether or not employees are granted their request to work flexibly. Thomas and Ganster (1995) suggest that unless managers are willing to support requests for alternative working arrangements, programmes that theoretically offer employees flexibility for work will not be beneficial in practice. Thompson, et al., (1999) and Allen (2001) also state that the simple provision of benefits and policies are not enough. It is the perception of a favourable organisational culture that encourages making use of flexible working practices. Dex and Smith (2002) found that the implementation of family-friendly policies in the private sector leads to greater organisational commitment from employees. Conversely, in the public sector, these policies resulted in less organisational commitment from employees. Perhaps intuitively, these findings make sense, with better implementation in private industry, ensuring availability of personnel across all working hours. In the public domain, implementation may suit the individual, but not necessarily ensure complete staff cover across a working day. That said, employees in larger workplaces seemed more likely to be able to make use of a flexible hours policy (Hogarth, et al., 2000; Woodland, et al., 2003).

More positively, recent research examined the area of flexible working in managerial roles. A questionnaire based study by Janman, et al., (2001) included 57 flexible workers and 67 pairs of job sharers, all in middle and senior managerial positions across both public and private sector organisations in the United Kingdom. Due to the common belief from employers that flexible working among their senior executives cannot work, with the knock-on effect that often senior managers regard making such a request as 'career death' (Janman et al., (2001) only one in forty of the organisations approached by the research team had job-sharing at senior levels. Despite these attitudes, results were striking, showing that managers of both job sharers and individual flexible workers rated those working in these non-traditional work roles as providing a higher level of output than traditional full-time employers. They were rated at least as highly on a wide range of management competencies, and in several cases as significantly higher. In particular, the job share teams were rated as offering a significantly higher level of output, rated higher on several of the competencies, and as more likely to reach job objectives than those who undertake the role through more traditional work patterns. Janman, et al's., (2001) research also looked at the disadvantages of job sharing and concluded that additional costs, such as having to manage two people, and providing two laptop computers instead of one, are likely to be outweighed by improved performance and lower staff turnover. This study demonstrates not only the business benefit of flexible working over more traditional roles, but challenges the myth that job sharing has traditionally been regarded as more suitable for 'lower grade' positions.

Conclusions

Recent years have seen a growing amount of research dedicated to understanding the increasing difficulties in balancing work and family life. At the end of the 20th century, the dual-earner family replaced the traditional family model of the father as the breadwinner, and the mother remaining at home (White, 2004). The much-publicised conflicts between work and family life are the result of complex interactions between the two domains.

Whilst research has shown business and personal benefits of flexible working options in the workplace, contradictions as to their worth are becoming apparent. On the positive side, potential benefits from good practice in work-life-balance impact on businesses, the economy, parents and carers, and society as a whole. There is growing evidence to suggest that businesses that adopt work-life balance policies find it easier to deliver services; to recruit from wider sources; to retain and motivate staff and increase loyalty and productivity (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Scheibl & Dex, 1998). Other benefits are reductions in stress levels, sick leave and absenteeism (Bevan, Dench, Tamkin & Cummings, 1999; Cully, Woodland, O'Reilly & Dix, 1999). However, despite the value placed on work-life-balance, employees in

the United Kingdom work the longest hours of any European country (Kodz, et al., 2002), presenteeism is widespread (Cooper, 1996) and flexible working is viewed with some concern amongst those with career aspirations (Houston & Waumsley, 2003; Stevens, et al., 2004; Worrall & Cooper, 1999).

Findings from both international and UK research indicate that work-life balance policies will not necessarily change the patterns of work currently found in the UK. Women will make more use of the provision than men (Stevens, et al., 2004), and workplace culture determines attitudes and uptake (Thompson, et al., 1999). The provision of flexible working by management may not necessarily mean that it is valued or approved by other managers. Although some organisations may have developed supportive policies, unsupportive managers may restrict access (Powel & Mainiero, 1999).

What has emerged is a picture of contradiction. On the one hand, the benefits of flexible working are seen as beneficial to both employees and employers in terms of work-life balance for the former (Ceridian, 1999; Kinnunen & Gerris, 1996), and higher productivity and less absenteeism and turnover for the latter (Dex & Smith, 2002; Janman, et al., 2001; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999). On the other hand, flexible working is viewed with some concern among ambitious employees who seek a successful career path, and managers who fear the implementation of such policies will incur inconvenience enough to outweigh benefits (Powel & Mainiero, 1999; Worrall & Cooper, 1999). It is women who use flexible working policies more than men (Stevens, et al., 2004), a situation threatening to stretch the gender gap in the workplace still further. Managers use flexible working least and work the longest hours (Woodland, et al., 2003). The current work culture of long hours is seen as necessary to gain career advancement, and to be seen as fully committed to an organisation. However, the associated knock on effects to family life, stress related illness and absence from work are showing no signs of abating (Cooper, et al., 2001; Hyman, et al., 2005).

Despite the emerging themes in the work-life balance literature, several questions present for further research. Although the government's work-life balance initiative is to promote work-life balance for everyone, the overriding areas of academic research and media interest revolve around the family unit. So much is this the case that key scales used to investigate conflict (e.g. Carlson, et al., 2000; Frone, et al., 1992a, 1992b; Netemeyer, et al., 1996), as the predominant way to examine work-life balance, measure aspects of work-family conflict and family-work conflict. To a large extent, the government have encouraged this by promoting legislations that favour families with children. Given the positive attitudes shown in the UK with regard to 'everyone having the right to be able to balance their lives in the ways

they wish' and 'working better when they do' (Stevens, et al., 2004; Woodland, et al., 2003), it is important, empirically and socially, to capture measurements of attitudes towards work-life balance that include individuals who do not reside within a family unit, as well as those who do. To this end, Chapter 3 of this thesis will attempt to develop a measurement scale that will be more generic than existing scales.

Whilst there are a number of work-life balance models in the literature (e.g. Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Frone, et al., 1992a; Senécal, et al., 2001), there are also several methodological differences, making direction of causality difficult to understand. These models also tend to examine work and family rather than work and life. Chapter 4 of this thesis will examine what are thought to be two key processes involved in the work-life interface, those of control and support.

Although the literature implies dissonance amongst employees towards using flexible working with regard to believing work-life balance to be favourable in term of personal life but also denoting career death, these attitudes require further investigation. Specifically, the finding that graduates place high importance on work-life balance at the start of their careers, but still become part of the UK long hours working culture as their careers develop (Sturges, et al., 2000) poses the question about attitude change. Is dissonance toward work-life balance apparent even in the UK managers of tomorrow? Chapter 5 of this thesis will investigate.

Woodland, et al., (2003) found, somewhat contrary to other findings (e.g. Stevens, et al., 2004; Worrall & Cooper, 1999), that those who used flexible working practices were equally as likely to be promoted at work as those who did not use flexible working practices. Given the more general findings in the literature (e.g. Houston & Waumsley, 2003; Worral & Cooper, 1999) that depict concerns about the incompatibility of flexible working and career success, some clarification on this issue presents for further investigation. Chapter 6 of this thesis will attempt to tease apart the general assumption that flexible working leads to career death from the actual attitudes of those in the workplace towards the effects on career success of differing working patterns. Whilst understanding attitudes helps to understand working culture, they give rise to further questions. Why, for example, is flexible working associated with career death? Chapter 6 will also address this important, yet, unanswered issue. Understanding attitudes, and knowing why these attitudes exist, leads on to the next obvious but so far also unanswered question of 'what might change attitudes towards flexible working to make them consonant with career enhancement?' Chapter 7 of this thesis will

investigate this issue. The final chapter, Chapter 8, will discuss conclusions arising from the thesis as a whole.

From the perspective of Ribeaux and Poppleton (1978) there are two foci within the psychology of work. 'Organisational psychology' focuses on the organisation, its characteristics and culture, whereas 'occupational psychology' focuses on the individual employee within the organisation. Whilst issues such as organisational culture are recognised within this thesis, the focus has been on the occupational perspective, with the empirical studies examining the psychology of work-life balance with the emphasis on the employee. Moreover, this employee emphasis focuses on attitudes. Social psychologists have traditionally assumed that people's evaluations of social policies and other entities in their social environment have major consequences. Attitudes have been postulated to motivate behaviour and to exert selective effects at various stages of information processing (e.g. attention, perception, retrieval). Because of the importance accorded to attitudes as causes of individual phenomena such as attitude-consistent behaviour, the concept of 'attitude' has become a fundamental construct for most social psychologists (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). These same authors provide a conceptual definition of attitude as follows:

> "Attitude is a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour" (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p. 1).

'Psychological tendency' refers to a state that is internal to the person, and 'evaluating' refers to all classes of evaluative responding, whether overt or covert, cognitive, affective, or behavioural. The 'cognitive' category contains thoughts that people have about the attitude object. The 'attitude' category consists of feelings or emotions that people have in relation to the attitude object. The 'behavioural' category encompasses people's actions with respect to the attitude object. This psychological tendency can be regarded as a type of bias that predisposes the individual toward evaluative responses that are positive or negative.

Accordingly, the overarching psychological theme that runs throughout this thesis is that of attitude measurement with regard to work-life balance and various working patterns that relate to this construct. Given the multi-disciplinary nature of the work-life balance literature across disciplines such as economics, social policy, psychology and sociology, it is important to acknowledge the contribution that psychology might make to the domain of work-life balance over and above other fields of expertise. In effect, this highlights the contribution of attitude measurement in seeking answers to the 'why' questions so often expressed. In order to better understand 'why' people think, feel and behave as they do with regard to work-life

balance practices and policies, attitudes require examination. By obtaining an empirically robust account of people's cognitions, affects and behaviours, psychologists can better understand and predict the motives that drive the antecedents and consequences of various working patterns. At an applied level, being able to predict behaviour from a better understanding of cognitions and affects can only have a positive effect on any practices and policies offered and, thereby, on organisational issues such as work performance, absenteeism, turnover intention, psychological health and work-life conflict.

To begin, the next chapter will investigate the issues that people in the UK see as affecting their lives, both at work and at home. The rationale behind 'setting the scene' to this thesis in this way is largely exploratory. Much of the work-life balance literature depicting antecedents and consequences to conflict comes from research outside the UK. It was felt important to ascertain UK opinions on causes of conflict in the interplay between work and non-work domains before moving on to further empirical studies.

Chapter 2

Perceptions of Work-life Balance: Work and Non-work Causes of Work-life Balance or Conflict

Chapter one showed that one of the key elements underpinning the work-life balance literature in contemporary society where dual-earner couples are the norm (White, 2004) is the conflict people experience between work and non-work. Whilst the literature pertaining specifically to work-family conflict will be examined in more depth in Chapter three, events that occur to create conflict are of interest if conflict is to be reduced. The disparate conceptualisation of the work-family interface (Allen, et al., 2000) makes it difficult to be specific about actual events leading to, and resulting from, conflict between the work and family domains. Therefore, as a start to this thesis, it was felt important to examine, in an open ended format, the issues and processes that people in the UK see as affecting both their working and non-working lives. Thus, before moving forward with further empirical work, and as an initial exploratory study, the aim of this chapter was to examine domain specific antecedents to conflict-balance in the working and non-working lives of British employed individuals.

Introduction

One of the aims of the current government's work-life balance campaign (DTI, 2000) is to encourage employers to develop effective employment practices that might help reduce conflicts between work and life for their employees. To do so successfully requires an understanding of the variables that trigger such conflicts. Conflicts from family may have negative consequences for work, such as the illness of an elderly relative preventing attendance at work (Gutek, et al., 1991). Similarly, conflicts from the work domain may impinge on the family, such as when long hours prevent time to carry out domestic tasks. Existing literature (e.g. Allen, 2001; Elloy & Mackie, 2002; Fu & Shaffer, 2001; Jansen, Kant, Kristensen, & Nijhuis, 2003) shows factors influencing experiences of work and life outside work.

Factors Influencing Experiences of Work

Work role overload, work role conflict, lack of autonomy, work salience and task complexity, have been found to have significant effects on individuals' time-based and strain-based work-family conflict (Elloy & Mackie, 2002; Fu & Shaffer, 2001; Greenhaus, et al., 1989; Hammer, Allen & Grigsby, 1997; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Work role conflict and role ambiguity have also been found to directly and indirectly influence work-life conflict (e.g. Barling & MacEwen,

1992; Frone, et al., 1992a; Fu & Shaffer, 2001; Parasuraman, et al., 1992). In the Maastricht Cohort Study on "Fatigue at Work", antecedents that increased work-family conflict for men included several work related demands, shift work and job insecurity. For women, physical demands, overtime, and commuting time to work increased work-family conflict (Jansen, et al., 2003). Work location has also been shown to affect the ability of working parents to cope with family pressures (Lee & Duxbury, 1998).

Hours of Work

Flexible working hours have been identified as helpful in balancing work and family life (Lee & Duxbury, 1998) and as having a significantly positive effect on job strain (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Alongside a compressed working week, flexible hours have been rated more highly than support for caring responsibilities (Allen, 2001). This may be because flexibility in working schedules potentially benefits everyone in the workforce; care related benefits are specific only to those with caring responsibilities.

Several studies have shown high job involvement to be frequently associated with work-life conflict (e.g. Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Frone & Rice, 1987; Greenhaus, et al., 1989; Nielson, Carlson & Lankau, 2001; Noor, 2002). Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) asserted that high levels of psychological involvement with one's job limit the time available to carry out roles in other domains. Numbers of hours worked each week have been shown to positively relate to work-life conflict (Eagle, 1995; Fu & Shaffer, 2001; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Gutek, et al., 1991; Noor, 2002), as have the number of hours worked by a spouse per week (Eagle, et al., 1998). Expectations of long hours, where a job may involve extra duties and thereby extend beyond normal hours, can increase conflict with non-work commitments and responsibilities (Cooke & Rousseau, 1984; Higgins, et al., 1992). When studying law firm lawyers, Wallace (1997) found employees to be driven to work long hours by excessive work demands. These findings are consistent with those of Frone, et al., (1997); Fu and Shaffer, (2001); Greenhaus, et al., (1997); and Noor (2002), who found work overload, rather than number of hours worked, to be the most important determinant of work-family conflict for both men and women. Given the positive attitudes towards flexibility in the workplace it is not surprising that long hours and work schedule inflexibility have consistently been shown to positively relate to work-life conflict (Allen, 2001; Eagle, 1995; Lee & Duxbury, 1998).

Support at Work

Supervisor support has been shown to have a positive impact on the well-being of employees. Given similar work situations, lower work-family conflict was found for employees who had supervisors that were sympathetic to family demands (Erdwins, Buffardi, Casper, &

O'Brien, 2001; Fu & Shaffer, 2001; Goff, et al., 1990; Jansen, et al., 2003; McManus, Korabik, Rosin & Kelloway, 2002; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Moreover, supportive supervisors have been found to facilitate employee job satisfaction (McManus, et al., 2002; Parasuraman, et al., 1992). In addition, having a mentor in the workplace has been shown to reduce work-family and family-work conflict by acting as a source of social support (Nielson, et al., 2001). Kossek & Ozeki (1999) suggest a policy that allows time off work after a lot of business travel may enable employees to regain some balance by spending time with their family.

Most research examining the impact of support in the workplace has concentrated on the direct relationship between the availability of supportive benefits with outcomes, such as absenteeism or organisational commitment (e.g. Kossek & Ozeki, 1999). Surprisingly little research has been conducted with regard to examining employee perceptions of the extent to which they feel their organisation is supportive, over and above any supervisor support they may or may not receive. A notable exception to this is the work of Thompson, et al., (1999) who measured the effects of work-family culture on multiple work attitudes whilst controlling for the effects of benefit availability. In terms of support, they found the perception of a supportive work-family culture was significantly related to attitudes about work, above and beyond the availability of work-family benefits. Supportive work-family culture was related to higher levels of affective commitment, lower intention to leave the organisation, and less work-family conflict. Previous research has found relationships between supportive work-family culture and work-family conflict (Beauvais & Kowalski, 1993) as well as organisational commitment (Francesco & Thompson, 1996), but has not controlled for benefits available. The findings of Thompson, et al., (1999) provide evidence to suggest that the type and number of work-family programmes offered is not as important as the culture of an organisation, which seems crucial for determining not only whether people will use benefits, but also their general attitudes towards the organisation.

Whilst Thompson, et al., (1999) measured work-family culture, it has been argued that their measurement of perceived managerial support was confounded by measures of perceived organisational support (Allen, 2001). In order to tease these two perceptions apart, Allen (2001) examined how perceptions of family-supportive benefits, family-supportive supervisors and family-supportive organisations relate to other variables such as work-family conflict, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. Results indicate perceptions of family-supportive organisations were related to, but unique from, supervisor support. It was also found that those employees who perceived less organisational family support, experienced more work-family conflict, less job satisfaction, less organisational

commitment, and greater turnover intentions than did those employees who perceived the organisation to be family-supportive (Allen, 2001). These findings demonstrate that attitudes and experiences at work are not just affected by the benefits available, nor simply by perceptions of supervisor support, but by a more global perception of the organisational culture experienced. In support of the findings of Thompson, et al., (1999), Allen (2001) also found that both perceived supervisor support and perceptions of family supportive organisations were positively related to overall use of benefits.

It therefore seems that supervisor support and actual benefits offered are not the full story in determining employee perceptions of a supportive work place. Although the implementation of family-friendly benefits can help employees manage multiple roles in and out of work, the availability of these benefits alone does not reflect an organisational culture that might inhibit employees' use of such benefits. As has been shown by several authors (e.g. Allen & Russell, 1999; Houston & Waumsley, 2003; Lee & Duxbury, 1998), it may be the case that individuals who take advantage of the options available in order to balance career and family, face negative reactions with regard to their commitment to the organisation. This clearly implies that the organisational culture is crucial to the success of policy implementation. Certainly there have been reports that some managers do not embrace the use of family-friendly benefits, spawning worry amongst employees that potential career success may be jeopardized by taking advantage of such benefits (Powell & Mainiero, 1999; Thompson, et al., 1999). As Grover & Crooker (1995) observed, "even the most family-friendly workplace policies are at best useless, or at worse, counter-productive, if the work climate does not support them" (p.285).

Given that supervisor support has a positive impact on the well-being of employees (Thomas & Ganster, 1995), it is again not surprising that lack of it relates to higher levels of work-family conflict (Anderson, et al., 2002; Tepper, 2000). Conflict with supervisors, subordinates and peers in the work place has been shown to be significantly associated with greater conflict between work and family (Jansen, et al., 2003).

Control

Despite research showing a negative relationship between control and stress at work (Warr, 1987), perceived or actual control at work does not appear often as an antecedent to conflict in the work-life literature. One exception to this was a study by Clark (2002) who found greater perceived control at work reduced work-family conflict. Research has, however, shown flexibility in working schedules to be the most popular benefit available (Allen, 2001), which, in itself, provides greater personal control in the juggling of multiple roles involved in

work and non-work domains. Indeed, Lee and Duxbury (1998) found flexibility in work timings allowed employed parents greater control in the organisation of their working day as well as greater ability to manage unexpected occurrences at home. More recently, Clark (2002) found work flexibility reduced work-family conflict by increasing a sense of control at work. The motivational model of Senécal, et al., (2001) supported the notion that autonomy-support from one's employer is positively associated with self-determined motivation. Further, Parasurman and Simmers (2001) showed that individuals with high autonomy at work show greater time commitment to their organisation. Thomas and Ganster (1995) found that perceived control served as a mediating mechanism by which family supportive policies influenced work-family conflict and health outcomes. Thus, whilst people enjoy the control afforded to them by certain available benefits, and perceived supervisory and organisational support, they appear to couch this desire for autonomy in terms such as 'flexible working'. Feelings of autonomy and control might therefore reasonably mediate the positive outcome that results from flexible working schedules, perceived organisational support and other popular benefits.

Factors Influencing Experiences of Life Outside Work

Support

Social support from within the family, and particularly from a spouse, has consistently been shown to reduce family-work conflict (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Eagle, 1995; Erdwins, et al., 2001; Fu & Shaffer, 2001; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Adams, et al., (1996) found that higher levels of family emotional and instrumental support were associated with lower levels of family-work conflict, facilitating the balancing of the multiple roles involved in work and family responsibilities. The motivational model of Senécal, et al., (2001) supported the idea that an individual's motivation towards family activities is affected by the way in which their partner evaluates their competence in these activities. It has also been suggested that wives may act as 'stress buffers' for their husbands (Repetti, 1989). In support of this, Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler and Wethington (1989) found wives responded to husbands' work overload with both supportive inter-personal behaviours, such as comfort and appreciation, and practical behaviours, such as increased housework. Equally, a husband's support has been found to be crucial in determining whether or not the wife's employment has negative consequences for the family, with social support from him significantly enhancing both work and family life among professional women (Tiedje, et al., 1990). Moderating effects of spouse support on the relationship between work variables and conflict have also been found (Fu & Shaffer, 2001; Houston & Waumsley, 2003; Noor, 2002).

Domestic Tasks

Kossek and Ozeki (1998) found women with family demands to be less satisfied with their jobs and life than others. Hours spent on housework have been shown to have a significant impact on family-work conflict (Fu & Shaffer, 2001) and having full responsibility for housekeeping was found to increase work-family conflict for men (Jansen, et al., 2003).

Family Responsibilities

Having dependent children, the actual numbers of young children in the household, lack of spousal support, and parental workload have all been shown to predict conflict between family and work (Behson, 2002a; Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 1999; Carlson, 1999; Frone, et al., 1992a; Frone, et al., 1997; Jansen, et al., 2003). Having to care for a chronically ill child or other family member increased work-family conflict for men (Jansen, et al., 2003). Grzywacz and Marks (2000) and Williams and Alliger (1994) observed that distress within the family contributed to family-work conflict.

Role Conflict

Role conflict within a family has been associated with high levels of work-family conflict (Carlson, 1999) with time spent on family activities correlating with role conflict for women (Wiersma & van den Berg, 1991). Fu and Shaffer (2001) found that parental demands and hours spent on household chores influenced the degree of interrole conflict experienced.

Gender Differences

For economic and social reasons, women are increasing their involvement in the workplace, thereby limiting the time they once had available for their family roles. Despite this, few studies have examined gender differences within actual causes of conflict or balance between work and life. With specific regard to work-family and family-work conflict, some research finds no gender differences (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Eagle, Miles & Icenogle, 1997; Frone, et al., 1992a). However, Gutek, et al. (1991) found women reported more work-family conflict than men but no gender difference in family-work conflict. Houston and Waumsley (2003) found that, among full-time workers, men reported higher levels of both work-family and family-work conflict than women. This supports previous findings that also showed men to report greater levels of work-family conflict (Parasurman & Simmers, 2001) and strain-based family-work conflict than women (Eagle, et al., 1998). Perhaps men are finding it more difficult to balance increasing family demands, not only because the traditional male role is being challenged by modern societal changes, but also because of greater work expectations made by their employers (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Eagle, et al., 1998). However, a more likely explanation is that many women with caring responsibilities remove themselves from full-time work to take on part-time roles (Stevens, et al., 2004; White, 2004),

whereas men continue to combine full-time work and care. In 1999, nearly twenty five per cent of female full-time employees in the UK had flexible working patterns, as opposed to fifteen per cent of men (Social Trends, 2000) and the part-time work force is dominated by women (Skinner, 1999; Stevens, et al., 2004).

Pleck's (1977) influential model of the work-family role system holds that family is allowed to intrude more into women's working lives than into men's. Reviews of the literature on work and family roles from over a decade ago report that men are socialised to give priority to the breadwinner role, whereas women are socialised to give priority to home and caring roles (Gutek, et al., 1991, Lewis, 1992; Major, 1993; Thompson & Walker, 1989). This suggests that men devote more time than women to paid employment and women devote more time than men to child care and household tasks (Dean, 1992; Pleck, 1985; Rogers, 1992). Frone, et al., (1992b) failed to confirm Pleck's hypothesis, finding work-family conflict to be more common than the reverse for both males and females, suggesting that family boundaries in general are more permeable to work demands than vice versa. Conversely, Duxbury and Higgins (1991) and Kinnunen and Gerris (1996) found some support for Pleck's view in that men were more likely to allow work conflict to spill over into the home than women.

Despite an increased number of women participating in the workforce, evidence continues to suggest that women carry the primary responsibility for family work (Cinamon & Rich, 2002; White, 2004). That Frone, et al., (1992a) did not find any gender differences in work-family conflict in his sample of men and women across white and blue collar workers might be explained by suggesting that time spent by men and women in traditional roles is perceived as creating less conflict than time spent in the non-traditional domains (Cinamon & Rich, 2002). It is interesting to consider why the increase in women in the workplace has not been accompanied by a decrease in their domestic work. The answer may simply lie in the attitudes of both men and women. Although there have been many changes in actual gender roles in recent years as more women have entered the workforce (McRae, 2003), recent research has shown attitudes toward gender roles to differ little from a decade ago. Warin, Solomon, Lewis and Langford (1999) examined attitudes to work and home life and found a strong emphasis on the provider role for men and on the social side of work for women. Similarly, Duxbury and Higgins (1991) found work involvement was a stronger predictor of work-family conflict for women, with family involvement a stronger predictor for men.   In contrast though, Cinamon and Rich (2002), in their study of Israeli upper-middle class employees, found more than one-third of both men and women placed high importance on both work and family roles, indicating significant deviation from traditional gender-based attitudes towards life's roles. These trends were also apparent in research by Mencken and

Winfield (2000) who found that men and women attribute similar importance to their careers. White (2004) offers another explanation for the lack of decrease in women's domestic duties despite an increase in women in the work place in recent years. In dual-earner couples today, it is the 'norm' for men to work long hours on paid work and women to work shorter hours in paid work. Women therefore, retain the majority of the domestic and caring responsibilities (White, 2004).

In a study examining predictors of work-family conflict for men and women, Wallace (1999) found involvement with work was not predictive of time or strain-based conflict among women, but that higher work motivation and long hours were associated with men's strain- and time-based conflict respectively. Work overload had negative effects on both men and women's time-based work-family conflict, with a stronger effect for women. Houston and Waumsley (2003) also showed a number of gender differences in ratings of employment rights and benefits. Men showed a greater preference than women for paid time off for emergencies within the family, but women showed greater approval levels for flexibility in working hours, such as job-share, term-time only working, part-time working, and for statutory maternity leave and workplace nursery provision. Hogarth, et al., (2000) found that male employees, more than female, wanted workplace practices that included flexitime, compressed hours, and annualised hours whilst women preferred term-time working or reduced hours. However, in 2004, Stevens, et al., found 29 per cent of mothers had requested flexible working hours within the last two years compared to only 12 per cent of fathers, with women also still preferring term-time working or reduced hours.

If family supportive programmes are perceived by parents to grant them the flexibility to balance the demands of work and childcare, and women continue to dominate in domestic roles, the findings of Houston and Waumsley (2003) and Hogarth, et al., (2000) are perhaps not surprising. Similarly, a study by Wiersma (1990), using a sample of 316 employed parents drawn from day-care centres in the United States, found that women rate the importance of family support programmes significantly higher than do men on all eight programme measures, (four-day working week, ability to change between full and part-time work, flexitime, five days off for sick children, childcare education money, child-rearing leave of absence, company day-care centre, and company day-care lunch room). Frone and Yardly (1996) also found women to have higher importance ratings for job sharing and child-care programmes than men, but failed to find any gender differences for a compressed working week and reduced working hours.

Research from time use surveys in the UK (UK Time Use Survey, 2003) have shown that with regard to non-work pursuits, women devote more time to child care and housework than men, but that men devote more time to personal and leisure pursuits than women. This might explain the similarities and differences between studies and the possibility that both men and women want family supportive policies, but for different reasons. Women may want family supportive policies because they allow them to both meet their family responsibilities and reduce any negative spillover from home to work. In contrast, men may have found several of these programmes (i.e. flexitime, compressed working week, reduced hours, working at home) equally important because they allow for more time to be devoted to personal and leisure pursuits.

Summary

In the work domain, support and benefits are perceived to have a positive impact on the work experience, with the culture of the organisation having an important influence on the uptake of any supports offered (Thompson, et al., 1999). Research has shown flexibility in working schedules to be the most popular benefit available (Allen, 2001). It was suggested that a perception of greater control is provided by flexibility in the workplace, and thus, as shown by Thomas & Ganster (1995), a feeling of autonomy mediates work flexibility and conflict/balance. Negative aspects of the work domain include excessive time demands, hours of work and workload (e.g. Fu & Shaffer, 2001). Role conflict is also seen as difficult. Positive antecedents in the family domain are almost exclusively about support from partners and family members, whilst negative antecedents in the family domain appear to revolve around family demands and role conflicts.

Much of the research reviewed on antecedents of work-life balance was conducted outside the United Kingdom although some gender differences have been shown in work and benefit preferences in the UK (Hogarth, et al., 2000; Houston & Waumsley, 2003; Stevens, et al., 2004; Woodland, et al., 2003;). Before moving forward with further empirical work about attitudes toward different working hours, it was felt important to explore factors affecting people's experience of work and non-work in the United Kingdom in order to ensure that potential correlates of work-life balance have not been omitted from previous research.

Method

Design

A small scale, open-ended questionnaire survey was conducted.

Materials

Respondents were asked to report age, gender, marital status, childcare responsibilities, work-status and occupation. In addition to the demographic questions, the questionnaire consisted of four sections: positive antecedents in the work domain, negative antecedents in the work domain, positive antecedents in the non-work domain, and negative antecedents in the non-work domain. Question 1 read: 'We would like to know your feelings about things that **positively** affect your experience at work. Please give details of the five key things that matter to you.' The wording of question 2 was the same except 'positively' read 'negatively'. Question 3 read: 'We would now like to know your feelings about things that **positively** affect your experience of life outside work. Please give details of the five key things that matter to you.' The wording of question 4 was the same except 'positively' read 'negatively'. A copy of the questionnaire can be found at Appendix 1.1.

Participants and Procedure

A snowball sampling method was used. Participants were 52 employed British individuals (21 male; 31 female) who were given questionnaires and asked to write in open-ended answers, and in the four relevant sections, the five most important things that positively and negatively affected their experience of work and non-work. Respondents were then asked to complete their demographic details at the end of the questionnaire, which included age, gender, marital status, ethnic category, whether they worked full-time or part-time, hours spent on caring responsibilities and their job title. All ethical guidelines set out by the British Psychological Society were followed. At the beginning of each questionnaire there were clear instructions about confidentiality and anonymity. It was also made clear that completion of the questionnaire was not compulsory. No formal de-brief was provided because no active deception was used but all questionnaires contained contact details of the researcher for those who wanted to ask questions about the study. All respondents were thanked for their participation.

Results

The Sample

Forty-four respondents were married or cohabiting. Thirty-nine had childcare responsibilities. Eight were single or separated. Average age of participants was 41 years and ranged from

25 years to 61 years. Forty-four worked full time, 8 worked part-time. Employment varied to include schoolteachers, personal assistants, managers, and production operators.

Content Coding

The open-ended responses in each of the four sections were coded by category by one content coder. A random sample was verified by a second content coder, yielding an interrater reliability of $r = .96$. Overall, participants mentioned 25 aspects of their working and non-working lives that they found to positively or negatively affect them. These were ranked by number of citations and are shown in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Twenty-five factors influencing work and life outside work, rated by number of citations.

Figure 2.1: Twenty-five factors influencing work and life outside work, rated by number of citations
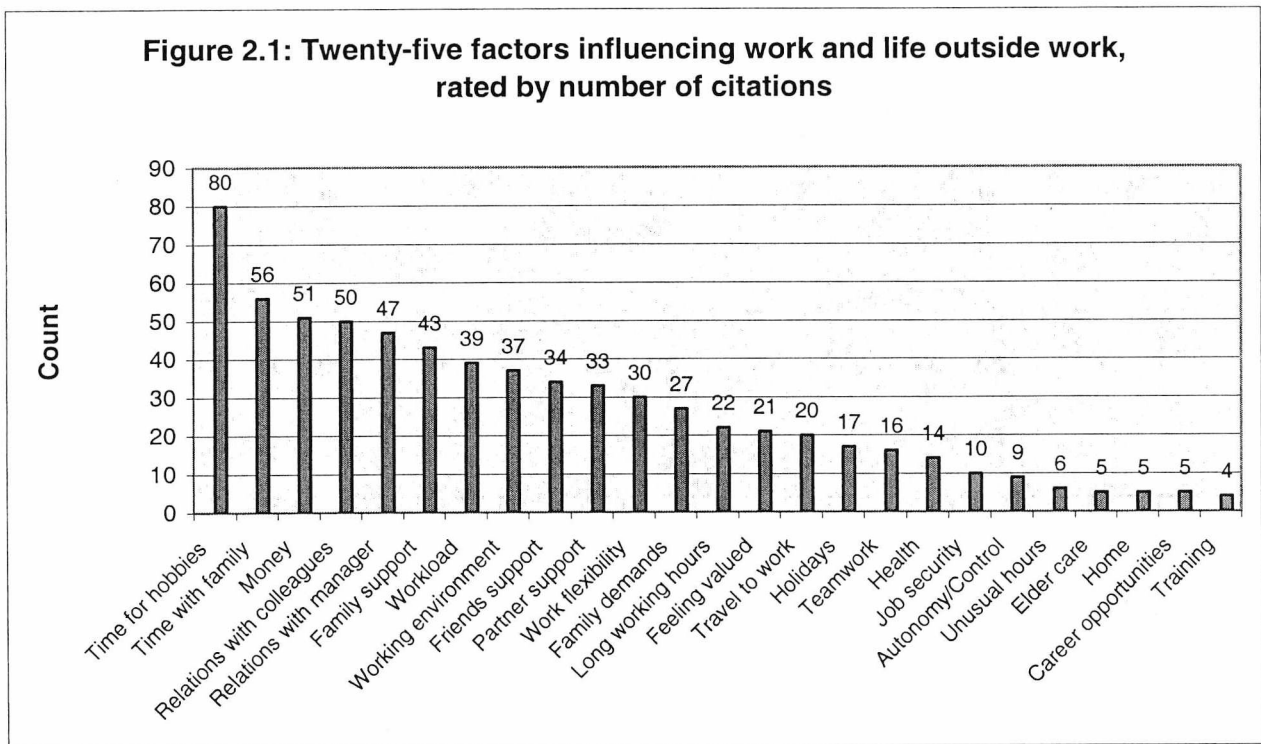
Time for hobbies and sport produced the highest number of 'citations', followed by time with family. Money was the third most important issue mentioned, with relationships at work with colleagues and managers, and family support ranking in the top 6 reasons people gave as being important to them.

The factors mentioned were then split by gender. Figure 2.2 shows the results.

Figure 2.2: Gender differences in factors influencing work and life outside work
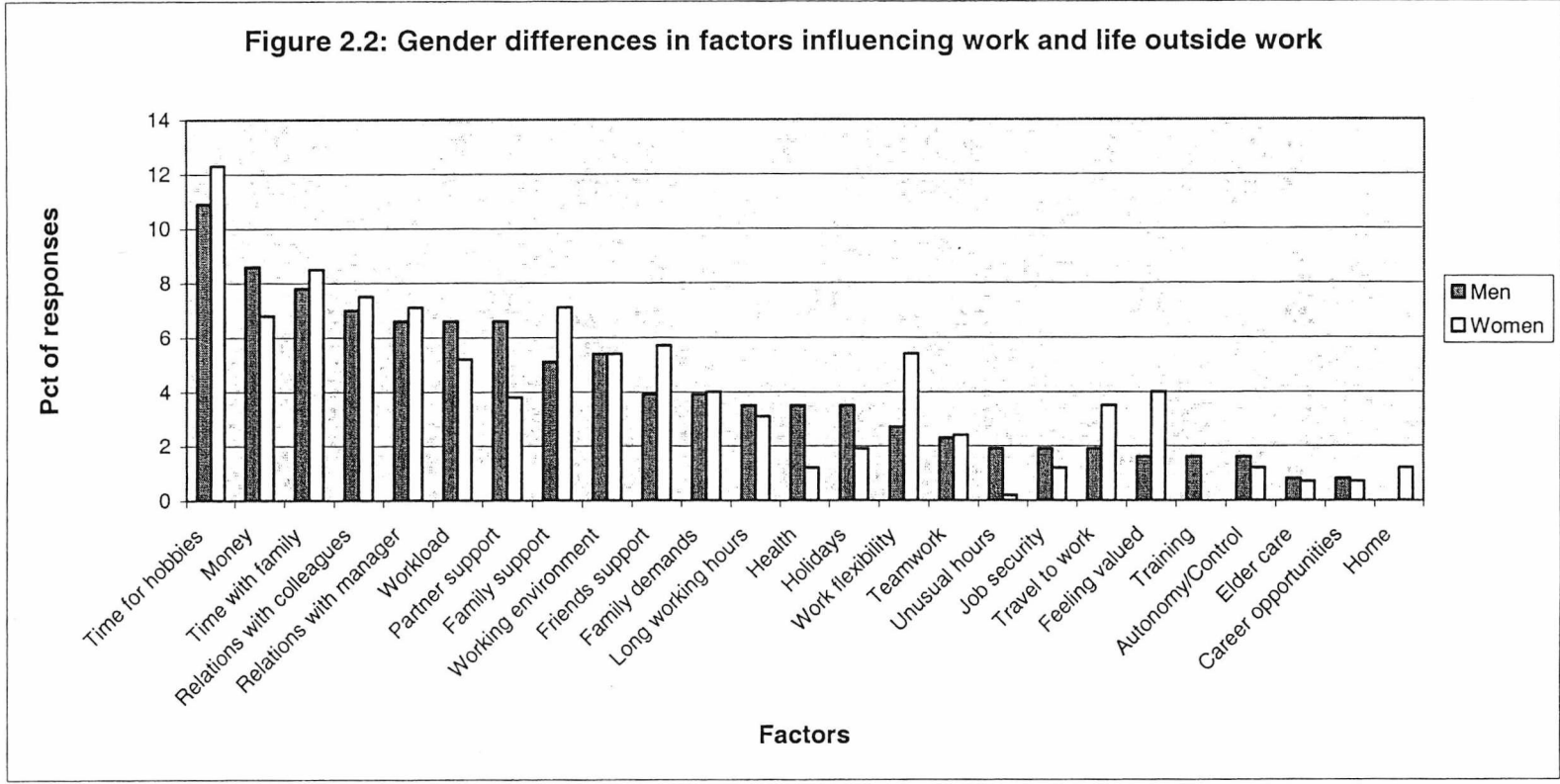
Figure 2.2 shows some gender differences in the top factors mentioned. Time for hobbies, money, time with family, relations with colleagues and manager rate highly for both men and women. Men also cite workload and partner support as important. For women, family support is important.

The factors provided in each specific domain were also ranked in order of importance and are now described.

Factors influencing a positive work experience

Five factors appeared as more important than others for a positive work experience. Relationships with colleagues were thought to be the most important by both men and women. Work flexibility was often rated, more so by women than men. There were also gender differences in the importance placed on relationships with manager. Working environment was seen as important. Men rated money as important. Figure 2.3 summarises.

Figure 2.3: Gender differences in factors influencing a positive work experience
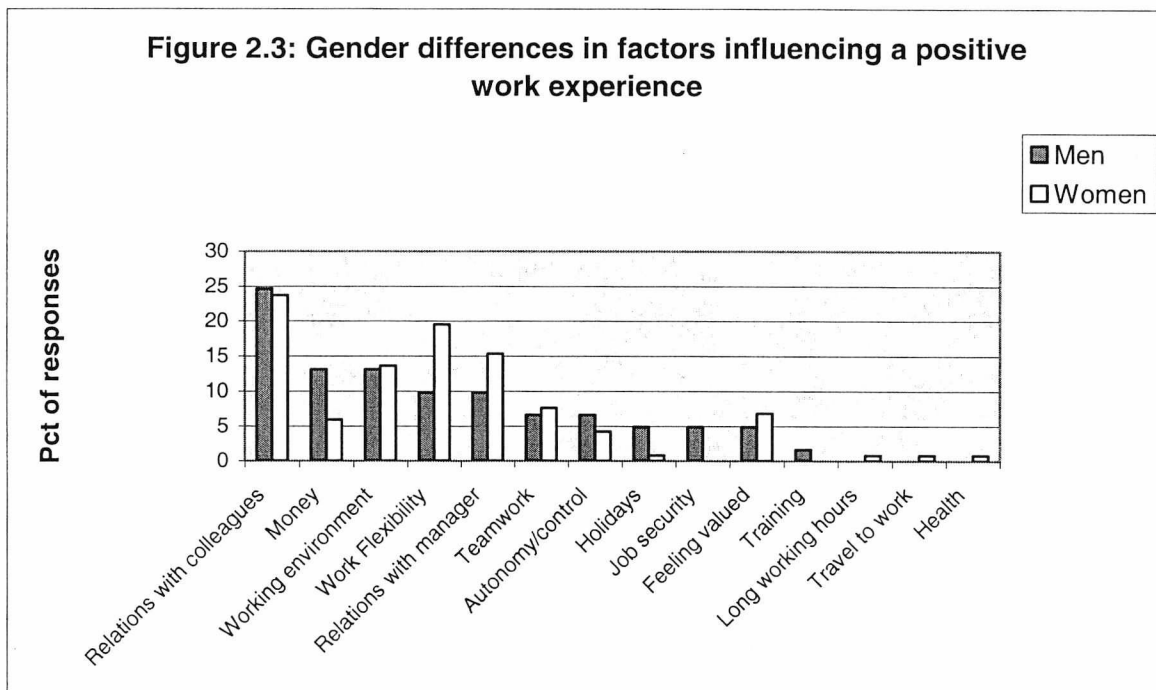
Factors influencing a Negative Work Experience

The item rated as most detrimental to the work experience by men and women was an excessive workload. A poor relationship with a manager was considered to be important, more so by women than men. Both men and women thought long hours had an effect on negativity at work. Women rated excessive travel to work as important. Men rated a poor working environment as important. Women thought not being valued in the workplace made

the work experience a negative one. These items appeared to be more important than all other things mentioned in this domain. These are summarised in Figure 2.4.

Figure 2.4: Gender diferences in factors influencing a negative work experience
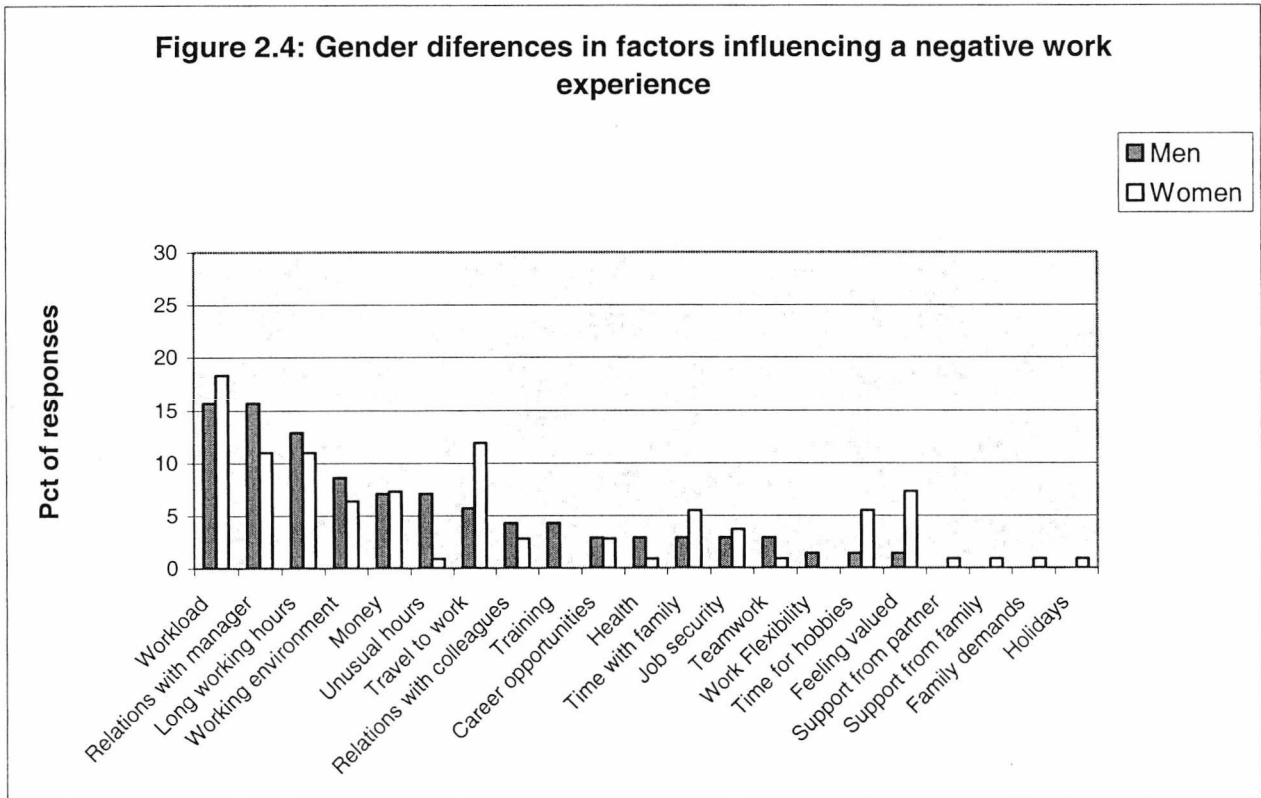
Factors influencing a Positive Experience of Life Outside Work

Time to be able to spend on hobbies, family support, support from friends, and support from a partner were all rated more often than any other, with time with family and holidays showing as the next most important factors. These are summarised in Figure 2.5.
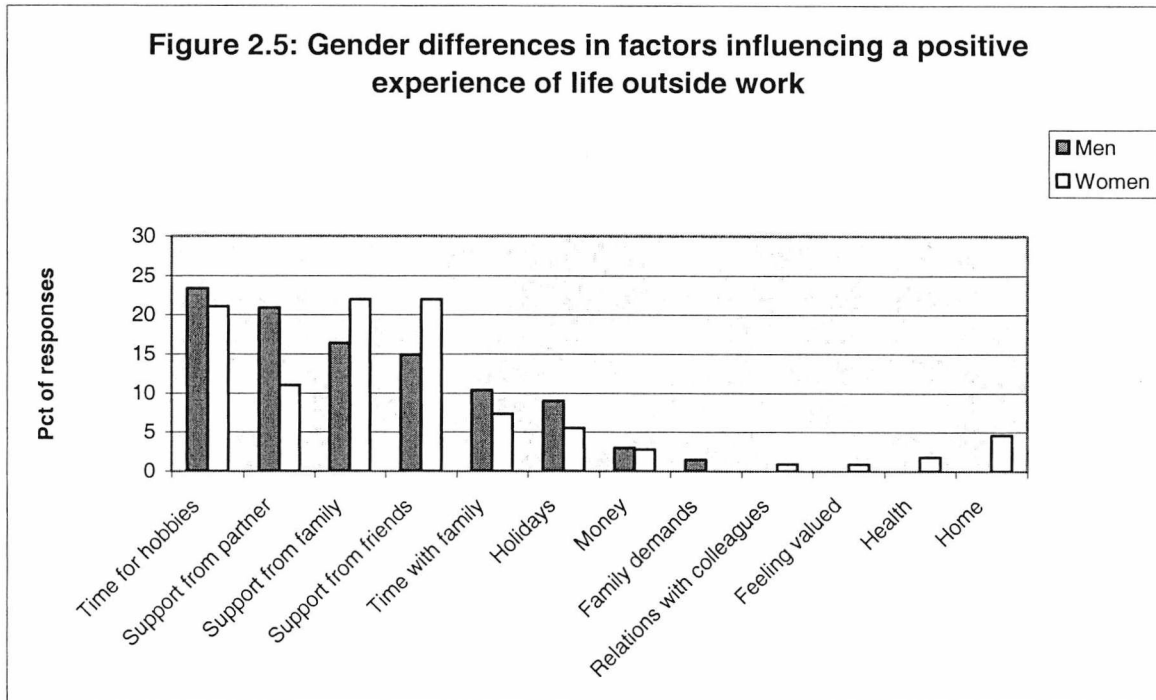
Figure 2.5: Gender differences in factors influencing a positive experience of life outside work

Factors influencing a Negative Experience of Life Outside Work

Having too little time for hobbies, too little time to spend with the family, and too many family demands form the three most cited factors influencing a negative experience in life outside work. These are summarised in Figure 2.6.

Figure 2.6: Gender differences in factors influencing a negative experience of life outside work
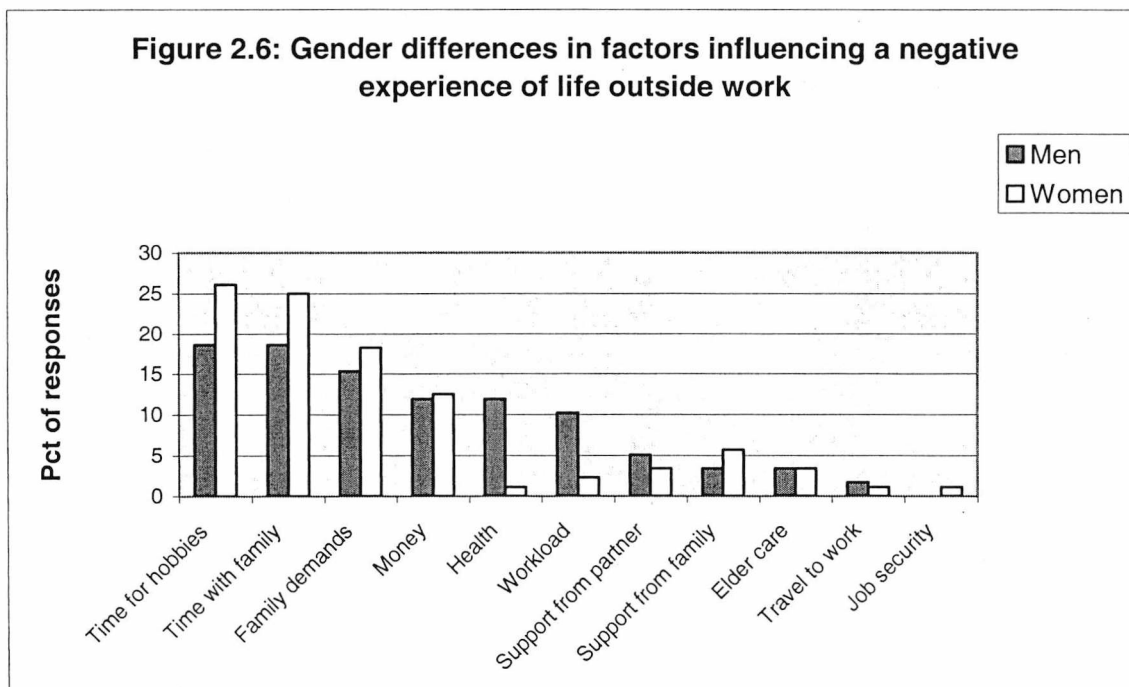
Discussion

Findings of the Study

The most noticeable finding of this study is that people cite more negative than positive factors relating to their experiences at work, and more negative factors relating to their experiences at work than at home! The sample did not appear to have enough time to spend on sport and hobbies, and women reported this more than men. Results concur with the literature (e.g. Allen, 2001; Elloy & Mackie, 2002; Fu & Shaffer, 2001; Thomas & Ganster, 1995), with hours of work, workload, work flexibility, working environment, relationship with manager and relationship with colleagues all having been mentioned as having an effect on a positive or negative experience in the workplace. Less was known from the literature about what people felt were important factors relating to their experience of life outside work. This study has highlighted that support from family, friends and partners, and time to spend on hobbies are all considered to be important in terms of affecting a positive or negative experience of the non-work domain.

Findings across the Four Categories of Positive and Negative Work and Non-work Experiences

Time for hobbies was the factor cited most often, followed by time with family. One explanation for this result may be that sport/hobbies applied to everybody, and therefore attracted the highest number of 'counts'. Notwithstanding this explanation, both 'time' with family, and 'time' for hobbies/sport constitute 'time' away from work, and it is of interest that in the British long hours working culture, this is considered noteworthy. Money was the third most cited factor, with relationships at work with colleagues and managers, and family support ranking in the top six factors people cited as influencing the work and non-work domains.

Gender Differences

When the factors were split by gender, time for hobbies was the most frequently cited factor for both men and women. Money, time with family and relationships with colleagues and manager were also frequently cited by both men and women. Men also cited workload and partner support as important. For women, family support was cited frequently. These differences are contrary to much of the previous literature, which failed to show any gender differences (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Eagle, et al., 1997; Frone et al., 1992a;), although these studies examined conflict between work and non-work domains rather than perceived effects of positive or negative experiences in the work and non-work domains. The gender differences found in the present study do show some support for previous findings (Hogarth,

et al., 2000; Houston & Waumsley, 2003; Wiersma, 1990) which showed a number of gender differences in ratings of employment rights and benefits, indicating differences between factors in the work and non-work domains for men and women.

Factors influencing a Positive Experience at Work

Previous research has shown flexibility at work to be the most popular support available (Allen, 2001). Interestingly, this study showed some consistency with this, with flexibility at work appearing as the second most popular positive aspect of work to affect the working experience, but only for women. Relationships with colleagues were rated the most often as influencing a positive work experience for both men and women. The third most cited factor influencing the experience of work by women was the relationship with a manager, followed by working environment. For men, money and working environment rated equally after relations with colleagues. The importance placed on money by men might be explained by Pleck's (1977) model of the work-family role system and subsequent research (e.g. Pleck, 1985; Marks, Huston, Johnson & MacDermid, 2001) suggesting earning as much total income as possible supports men's central position in the provider role. After money and environment, for men, came work flexibility and relations with manager. That relationship with peers and managers are considered important by both men and women supports previous evidence found by Jansen, et al., (2003). Positive relationships, a supportive working environment and work flexibility all denote instrumental and emotional support in some way. This is in keeping with much of the literature (Allen, 2001; Jansen, et al., 2003; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson, et al., 1999).

Factors influencing a Negative Work Experience

In terms of negative antecedents in the work domain, the most striking difference between this section and the previous section is that both men and women have more negative things to say about work than positive! The item rated as most detrimental to the work experience by both men and women was an excessive workload. For women this was followed by excessive time taken to travel to work, then long working hours and a poor working relationship with their manager. For men, a poor working relationship with their manager was considered to be equally important to creating a negative working experience as was having an excessive workload. These were followed by long working hours and a poor working environment. A poor relationship with a manager may denote lack of support, which concurs with the literature that lack of support by supervisors relates to higher levels of work-family conflict (Anderson, et al., 2002) and lower job satisfaction (Parasuraman, et al., 1992). The findings of excessive workload and long hours support the findings of Cooke & Rousseau (1994); Frone, et al., (1997); Fu & Shaffer (2001), and Greenhaus, et al., (1997), indicating

support for the work culture of the United Kingdom being one of long working hours and stress caused by excessive workloads and unrealistic expectations (Cooper, et al., 2001; Hogarth, et al., 2000). It is also perhaps not surprising in the present British climate of poor public transport systems and overcrowded roads that travelling to work appeared as the second most important aspect of a working day to create a negative work experience, at least for women. This supports evidence from Jansen, et al., (2003). Perhaps women dislike excessive travel to work because of time demands. Women rating, more highly than men, a lack of time for hobbies and lack of time to spend with families, further illustrates this. Women also mentioned not feeling valued at work leads to a negative work experience.

Factors influencing a Positive Experience for Life Outside Work

Men and women agree on the top four items that have a positive effect on their experiences in the non-work domain, all-be-it in a slightly different order of importance. Women rate support from both family and friends as the most important positive issues out of work. Time for hobbies are also rated often by women, followed by support from their partner. For men, the most important issue is having time for hobbies, closely followed by support from partner. Support from family and friends appears next. That personal support is considered so vital to a positive life experience is entirely in keeping with the social support literature (Cohen & Wills, 1985) and concurrent with the work-life balance literature. This shows social support from within the family to be vital in order to reduce family-work conflict (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Erdwins, et al., 2001; Fu & Shaffer, 2001). Having enough time to spend on hobbies is consistent with having too little time for them, providing a negative experience for life outside work. Time was also represented as important in the items following support. Time to spend with family and holidays are both rated as important to positively enhance life away from work.

Factors influencing a Negative Experience for Life Outside Work

Having too little time for hobbies, too little time to spend with family, and too many family demands form the three most cited reasons for negativity in the non-work domain by both men and women, although women rate all three more frequently than men. This is consistent with previous research; women with family demands have been found to be less satisfied with their jobs and life than others (Jansen, et al., 2003; Kossek and Ozeki, 1998). Excessive work demands and long hours clearly increase work-family conflict by reducing the time available for other important non-work activities. Several studies have also shown high job involvement to be frequently associated with work-family conflict (e.g. Frone & Rice, 1987; Greenhaus, et al., 1989; Noor, 2002). Lack of money was shown by men and women to be an important issue to negatively affect life outside work. This supports findings by Marks, et

al., (2001) who suggest work-life balance is an economic luxury, with women's sense of balance in their lives being greater when they feel less financial strain, contributing to family finances through paid work, and men feeling greater balance when they earn as much as they can, reflecting the longstanding connection between the provider role and masculinity. Men also rate poor health and excessive workload as negatively affecting the non-work domain. These top items had a significantly greater negative impact on people's lives outside the work domain than any other items mentioned.

Meaning and Implications of the Findings

That women cite flexibility in the workplace more than men suggests support for the notion that women continue to be the dominant carers and carry the main responsibilities for running a home (White, 2004). The reasons why women appear to want flexible work more than men may be partly explained by the different attitudes they hold to work and the family. Warin, et al., (1999) examined attitudes to work and family life and found that women often gave very different reasons from men for participation in paid work:

> "Women did not often stress the issue of money and were more likely to mention the social side of work, getting out of the house, enjoyment, a sense of achievement and independence. Men did mention some of these rewards, but were very much more likely to talk about their work in terms of the financial rewards it offered and to relate it to their providing role in the family." (Warin, et al., 1999, p.14).

Warin, et al., (1999) found a strong emphasis on the provider role for fathers in families. This might explain the finding that men rated money as the second most important item, over and above relationship with manager.

The finding that, as a percentage of responses, more women than men cited excessive travel to work as a negative factor may also be related to women having the majority of caring responsibilities in the home (White, 2004). The issue, for women, of generally wanting more time may be reflected in their preferences not to spend excessive time travelling to work.

Whilst men and women agreed on the factors that provide a positive experience in the non-work domain, the order of importance differed. Women rated support by family and friends as important. This may be explained by women perceiving support as helping them meet home responsibilities when trying to juggle time between home and work. Research on non-work pursuits shows women devote more time to child care and housework than men (Cinamon & Rich, 2002; Pleck, 1985; White, 2004), and that men devote more time to personal and

leisure pursuits than women (UK Time Use Survey, 2003). The finding that men cited time for hobbies most frequently as enhancing life outside work supports this. Women also rate time for hobbies often, enhancing the finding that needing more time generally is an issue for women.

Research indicates that employees also want support from their organisations. However, not all employees require the same type of support or benefits (Jansen, et al., 2003). In keeping with research that depicts debilitating effects of role conflict, coupled with findings that work support directly reduces such conflict (Jansen, et al., 2003), this study suggests that good relationships with work colleagues and managers and a pleasant working environment are important for creating an overall positive work experience.

This study was conducted in the UK at a time when a great deal of media attention depicts long hours at work as being detrimental in what has been described as a 24/7 culture (Kodz, et al., 2002). Previous findings show that, although some employees enjoy working long hours (Rose, 2005), others suffer stress (Hyman, et al., 2005) and, as a result, their organisations suffer high absenteeism rates (Cooper, et al., 2001) as employees struggle to balance time at work and quality of life. Other research findings show that supportive relationships at work help to reduce stress and conflict (Allen, 2001). The present study suggests that excessive hours at work lead to a negative work experience and too little time at home leads to a negative non-work experience. The study also suggests that support both in the work and non-work domain can positively affect the experience in both domains.

Conclusion

This study has described aspects of the work-life interface that are important to people, independently from the work-life balance and conflict issues in the literature. Results depict concrete domains that are thought to positively or negatively encroach on the ways in which people lead their lives. At this stage, the factors that appear to be consistently cited as influencing work and life outside work are:

Work: relationship with manager, relationship with colleagues, flexibility at work, hours of work, work demands, working environment

Life outside work: more time for hobbies, family and friends; support

The aim of this chapter was to explore factors that might influence experiences of work and life outside work in the UK. Although this study is relatively small, the results of the open-

ended approach offer insight into factors influencing the work and non-work experiences of UK respondents. It had been anticipated that respondents would be more process orientated but the factors expressed are discrete areas influencing working lives and lives outside work. Respondents appear not to have explicitly stated psychological processes, except that support featured frequently at work with relationships with colleagues and managers, and at home with family, partners and friends. Research has also shown supervisor support to have a positive impact on the well-being of employees (Allen, 2001; Erdwins, et al., 2001; Fu & Shaffer, 2001; Goff, et al., 1990; Jansen, et al., 2003; McManus, et al., 2002; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson, et al., 1999). Although respondents did not cite autonomy and control as influencing experiences at work and in life outside work as often as other factors, research has shown that work flexibility reduces work-family conflict by increasing a sense of control at work (Clark, 2002), that work flexibility provides greater personal control in the juggling of multiple roles (Lee & Duxbury, 1998) and that perceived control acts as a mediating mechanism by which family supportive policies influence work-family conflict and health outcomes (Thomas and Ganster, 1995). The particular emphasis expressed for more time may be interpreted as a need for greater control; a process that might be linked with time issues. Given the emphasis placed on time issues, work demands, hours of work and support in this study, key processes that appear to be of relevance to these areas are those of control and support. It is therefore considered important to examine whether these variables have an effect on working demands in terms of hours and workload and on time demands in terms of conflicts between work and life outside work. Chapter 4 will investigate these issues. Before this occurs, however, important questions surround the ways in which work and non-work conflicts are measured. The following chapter now investigates.

Chapter 3

Adaptation of a Work-family Conflict and Family-work Conflict Scale to a Work-life and Life-work Scale

Introduction

Chapter 2 described what a small group of UK employees felt was important in their experience of work and life outside work. Work and life outside work are not always compatible, creating conflicts between the two (e.g. Anderson, et al., 2002; Frone, et al., 1992a, 1992b; Jansen, et al., 2003). To date, the work-family conflict literature has examined conflict between work and family life and family life and work. Little is known about conflict between work and non-work experienced by people who do not live as part of a family. Furthermore, scales developed to measure conflict (e.g. Carlson, et al., 2000; Frone, et al., 1992a; Netemeyer, et al., 1996) have concentrated on work and family. The aim of this study was to examine whether measurement of work-life conflicts could be adapted for use with all populations, whether or not they have a family. Before explaining how this study was carried out, the work-family and family-work literature will be reviewed.

Work-family and family-work conflict

Greenhaus & Beutell (1985) defined work-family and family-work conflict as "a form of inter role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (p.77). Role conflict and role ambiguity are two of the most widely studied situational determinants of work-family conflict. Role conflict is the simultaneous occurrence of two or more sets of pressures (Kahn, et al., 1964). Role ambiguity is the lack of information or role clarity (Kahn, et al., 1964). The balancing of work and family roles may increase the level of inter-role conflict for both men and women in two ways. Work role expectations may interfere with family role expectations (work-family conflict) and family role expectations may interfere with work role expectations (family-work conflict) (Carlson, 1999; Frone, et al., 1992a; Frone and Yardley, 1996; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; MacEwen & Barling, 1994; O'Driscoll, et al., 1992). Work-family conflict affects the family by impairing both individual and family functioning. Family-work conflict may have negative organisational consequences (Glass & Estes, 1997).

Theorists such as Karasek (1979) have proposed that men fulfil their family roles by being good providers and spending more time at work; therefore, work expectations do not conflict with their family role expectations. The same model proposes that women experience greater conflict when they work because the family expectations that society places on them conflict

with expectations placed on them at work. Although many women are employed, societal expectations for them to remain domestically efficient and to spend more time at home, nonetheless, persist (White, 2004). For economic and social reasons, women are increasing their involvement in the workplace; thereby limiting the time they have available to perform their family roles. In their study of managerial women, O'Driscoll and Humphries (1994) found a significant correlation between time spent at work and conflict with non-work activities, but a non-significant relationship between time spent on non-work activities and conflict with work. Men are also beginning to share responsibilities for childcare and household chores in ways, it has been argued, that are causing them to re-evaluate their priorities away from work (Eagle, et al., 1997). This argument is supported by evidence that suggests that some men working full-time experience more work-life conflict than women (Houston & Waumsley, 2003). Findings from recent work with employees in the manufacturing sector (Houston & Waumsley, 2003) showed that, whilst very few workers (7 per cent) reported that their family life caused conflict with their work, 45 per cent of full-time workers experienced conflict caused by work interfering with their family or personal life. Managerial staff experienced more conflict than non-managerial staff. Among full-time workers, men experienced more conflict than women, even when actual hours of work were taken into account. Houston and Waumsley (2003) also showed a non-supportive workplace culture to be associated with higher levels of work-family conflict, increased turnover intentions and poorer psychological health. The same authors also showed psychological stress to be strongly related to work-family conflict but somewhat less to family-work conflict, and turnover intention to be strongly associated with work-family conflict.

Many researchers have moved from viewing work-family conflict as a uni-directional construct to recognising the bi-directional nature of work-family conflict (e.g. Allen, et al., 2000; Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Duxbury, Lee, Higgins & Mills, 1992; Frone, et al., 1992a, 1992b; Gutek, et al., 1991). Multi-dimensional facets of work-family conflict have also been identified. According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), conflict can typically take three different forms: time-based conflict, strain-based conflict and behaviour-based conflict. Time-based conflict occurs when time devoted to one role makes it difficult to participate or comply with expectations in another role (e.g. working extra hours forces cancellation of a family function). Strain-based conflict is experienced when strain symptoms from one role intrude into and interfere with participation in another role (e.g. the stress of attending to a sick child makes it difficult to concentrate at work). Behaviour-based conflict occurs when specific behaviours required in one role (e.g. assertiveness at work) are incompatible with behavioural expectations within another role (e.g. warmth at home). Integrating bi-directional and multi-directional aspects of work-family conflict, Carlson, et al., (2000) proposed six

dimensions of work-family conflict. Family interference with work and work interference with family each have three sub-dimensions: time, strain and behaviour based forms of conflict.

A review of the relevant work conflict literature by Eagle, et al., (1997) shows most research to have focused on the impact of work situations on family lives (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Demands of the work role have been shown to intrude more into the family role than the other way around (Bernas & Major, 2000; Eagle, et al., 1997; Parasuraman, et al., 1992) with incidents of work-family conflict being cited three times as often as incidents of family-work conflict (Frone, et al., 1992b). No gender differences were found with the directionality of conflicts found, nor with the amount of conflicts experienced (Eagle, et al., 1997; Frone, et al., 1992b). These findings were partially supported in a meta-analysis on work-family conflict and the job and life satisfaction relationship. Kossek and Ozeki (1998) showed there to be a negative relationship between work-family conflict and job and life satisfaction. For both job and life satisfaction, family-work conflict appeared to be less strongly related than work-family conflict. Slight gender differences were found in the strength of the relationship between job-life satisfaction, with the relationship appearing to be stronger for women. Whilst time spent at work has predicted conflict between work and non-work activities, time spent on activities outside work, as opposed to time spent with family per se, does not show a corresponding effect (Eagle, et al., 1997; O'Driscoll, et al., 1992; Parasuraman, et al., 1992). It has also been found that individuals who experience less stress will also experience less work-family conflict (Frone, et al., 1992a, Parasuraman, et al., 1992). Loscocco (1997) interviewed thirty self-employed men and women. Whilst Eagle, et al., (1997) found no gender differences on permeability, Loscocco (1997) found family to intrude more on work for self-employed women, and work to intrude more on family for self-employed men.

Measuring work-family and family-work conflict inherently assumes that only people who live as part of a family experience conflict between work and life outside work. However, people who do not live as part of a family may still experience conflict between work and other aspects of their lives. For these individuals, measuring work-family and family-work conflict may not capture the conflicts they experience between work and other aspects of their lives.

Work-family and family-work conflict scales chosen for adaptation

The aim of this study was to examine whether existing work-family and family-work conflict measures could be adapted by subtle changes in wording to measure work-life and life-work conflict. Netemeyer, et al., (1996) developed 5 items to measure how far work conflicts with family life (WFC), and five items to measure how far family life conflicts with work (FWC). These are shown in Tables 3.1a and 3.1b.

Tables 3.1a and 3.1b: Items on scales developed by Netemeyer, et al., (1996) to measure WFC and FWC.

Table 3.1a: Work-family Conflict Scale
1. The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.
2. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil family responsibilities.
3. Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.
4. My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties.
5. Due to work related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.

Table 3.1b: Family-work Conflict Scale
1. The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related duties.
2. I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.
3. Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner.
4. My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.
5. Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.

The conceptual approach taken in the development of the scales by Netemeyer, et al., (1996) was based on the premise that WFC and FWC are distinct but related forms of interrole conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kahn, 1981), where interrole conflict is a form of conflict in which role responsibilities from the work and family domains are incompatible. As such, the demands of one domain role make performance in another domain role more difficult. Most workers report family to be more important than work, and research indicates that more WFC is experienced than FWC (Burke & Greenglass, 2001; Frone, et al., 1997; Judge, et al., 1994).

Justification for using the Netemeyer, et al., (1996) scales

The scales developed by Netemeyer, et al., (1996) have been subjected to rigorous scale development, showing internal consistency across three samples (high school teachers, small business owners, and real estate sales people). Previous studies (e.g. Rice, et al., 1992; Voydanoff, 1988) used single item measures of the construct, which commonly suffer from random measurement error and may not adequately assess the domain of the construct (Nunnally, 1978; Schriesheim, Powers, Scandura, Gardiner, & Lankau, 1993). Netemeyer, et al., (1996) also showed reliability on short scales. All other things being equal, measures with several items will yield higher coefficient alpha estimates than measures with fewer items (Cortina, 1993). Previous studies (e.g. Burke, 1988; Burke, Weir, & Duwors, 1980) have used significantly longer scales with 39-item measures. Carlson, et al., (2000) developed and validated a multidimensional measure of work-family, family-work conflict, taking into account

six dimensions of conflict to include time, strain and behaviour based conflict, using 57 items. Whilst reliable, the length of such scales can be disconcerting for the respondent. Netemeyer, et al., (1996) also acknowledged the conceptual distinction between WFC and FWC. Previous studies combined WFC and FWC into one measure (Cooke & Rousseau, 1984; Kopelman, Greenhaus, & Connolly, 1983; Thomas and Ganster, 1995; Wiley, 1987). Furthermore, the WFC and FWC scales of Netemeyer, et al., (1996) reflect aspects of work or family interfering when performing the opposite domain duties. Previous studies that have used separate WFC and FWC measures (e.g. Bedeian, Burke, & Moffett, 1988; O'Driscoll, et al., 1992; Parasuraman, Greenhaus, Rabinowitz, Bedeian, & Mossholder, 1989) have used items that reflect outcomes of the constructs rather than their content domain.

Aim of this study

The aim of this study was to examine the relationship between the work-family conflict (hereafter referred to as WFC) and family-work conflict (hereafter referred to as FWC) scales of Netemeyer, et al., (1996) and the work-life conflict (hereafter referred to as WLC) and life-work conflict (hereafter referred to as LWC) scales adapted from the Netemeyer, et al., (1996) scales by using slight adjustments to item wording. This would then allow patterns of relationships between conflicts and organisational identity, turnover intention, organisational culture and psychological health to be examined between people who do and do not have childcare responsibilities. These scales of measurement were chosen following the findings of Houston and Waumsley (2003) where organisational identity, turnover intention, organisational culture and psychological health were all shown to be related to conflict. Organisational identity focuses on feelings about membership in an organisation and the importance of the organisation to the individual (Abrams, Ando & Hinkle, 1998). This reflects Tajfel's (1978) definition of social identity, which included both knowledge of belonging to an organisation, and the emotional significance attached to this. Turnover intention was measured because several studies have indicated that greater levels of WFC are associated with greater intention to leave the organisation (e.g. Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Lyness & Thompson, 1997; Netemeyer, et al., 1996). Organisational culture (the shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organisation supports and values the integration of employees' work and family lives) was measured because research findings (e.g. Allen, 2001; Houston & Waumsley, 2003; Thompson, et al., 1999) suggest that a supportive organisational culture has a positive effect on conflicts experienced by employees between work and family and family and work. Psychological health was measured because of the negative association found between WLC and psychological health (e.g. Frone, 1999; 2000; 2003). Measurement of WLC and LWC may extend empirical opportunities for conflict between work and life outside work more generally across population sectors.

In order to examine the relationship between conflicts using the scales described, two questionnaire surveys would be conducted with two large trade unions in the UK (hereafter known as Sparks and Ponders). Data on WFC and FWC using the Netemeyer et al., (1996) scales had already been collected from the Sparks Union as part of a study that does not form part of this thesis. This created an opportunity on which to build and compare existing data with another union, and thus, to compare the WFC/FWC and WLC/LWC scales. It was felt that unions would provide a large sample of workers across organisations.

It was expected that exploratory factor analysis would favourably compare factor structure between the WFC/FWC scales of Netemeyer, et al., (1996) and the adapted WLC/LWC scales and that confirmatory factor analysis would confirm this hypothesis. Pearson correlations were expected to show organisational identity to be negatively related to WFC and WLC. Turnover intention and WFC and WLC were expected to be positively related. Organisational culture was expected to be negatively related to WFC/FWC and WLC/LWC, especially for those with children. It was expected that psychological distress would be positively related to WFC/FWC and WLC/LWC. Differences were expected between whether or not people had children and the amount of WFC/WLC and FWC/LWC experienced. The differences in 'family' and 'life' wording was expected to show some differences between those with children and the amount of conflicts experienced, which would indicate some variations in the construct validity between the two scales.

Method

Participants

Participants were 940 trade union members; 610 female members of Sparks (a 20 per cent response rate) and 330 female members of Ponders (a 30 per cent response rate) (Total N = 940). All worked full-time. Male union members were not included because the Sparks data, already available from which to draw a comparison in scale differences, consisted only of females. In order to get a direct comparison, therefore, only female members of Ponders were included in the sample to which questionnaires were sent. Female participants from the Sparks Union worked in a predominantly male culture of electrical and mechanical engineering workers, although were typically office support staff. Female participants from the Ponders Union worked in the public services, the voluntary and private sectors, and were office-based workers. Demographics for participants from both unions are shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Demographics for participants from Sparks and Ponders

	Mean Age	Age range	% Child-ren	% White British	% Married	% Single	% Cohab	% Separated, Divorced, Widowed
Sparks	41	17-64	28	96	52	14	17	16
Ponders	39	18-64	63	96	53	14	12	21

Materials

In the Sparks questionnaire, work-family conflict and family-work conflict were measured with the original scales developed by Netemeyer, et al., (1996). The instructions that preceded these items were as follows: "The next set of questions are about your personal experiences of work and family life. 'Family' may be your partner, children, parents, brothers and sisters, grandparents, or any combination of these. Please think of family as best fits your own personal circumstances and try to answer these questions, even if you do not have any close family." All items were measured using a 7-point Likert scale, with 1 meaning strongly disagree and 7 meaning strongly agree. The items are shown in Tables 3.3a and 3.3b.

Tables 3.3a and 3.3b: Items on scales developed by Netemeyer, et al., (1996) with minor adjustments in length.

Table 3.3a: Work-family Conflict Scale
1. The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.
2. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil family responsibilities.
3. Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands of my job.
4. My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties.
5. Due to work, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.

Table 3.3b: Family-work Conflict Scale
1. The demands of my family or partner interfere with work-related duties.
2. I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.
3. Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or partner.
4. My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work.
5. Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform work-related duties.

In the Ponders questionnaire, work-life conflict and life-work conflict were measured using adaptations of the original scales developed by Netemeyer, et al., (1996) with changes in wording to include people who do not live as part of a family. The instructions that preceded these items were as follows: "How far do you agree or disagree with the following statements." All items were measured using a 7-point Likert scale, with 1 meaning strongly disagree and 7 meaning strongly agree. The items are shown in Tables 3.4a and 3.4b.

Tables 3.4a and 3.4b: Items on scales developed by Netemeyer, et al., (1996) to measure work-life conflict and life-work conflict.

Table 3.4a: Work-life Conflict Scale
1. The demands of my work interfere with my life away from work.
2. The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil other interests.
3. Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands of my job.
4. My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil other responsibilities and duties.
5. Due to work, I have to make changes to my plans for activities away from work.

Table 3.4b: Life-work Conflict Scale
1. The demands of my personal life interfere with work-related duties.
2. I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time outside work.
3. Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my interests outside work.
4. My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work.
5. Personal life strains interfere with my ability to perform work-related duties.

In addition to the WFC and FWC, and WLC and LWC scales, both questionnaires included identical scales to measure organisational identity, turnover intention, organisational culture and psychological health. All items except psychological health were measured using a 7-point Likert scale. Psychological health was measured on a scale from 0 to 3. The items can be found at Appendix 2.1.

Organisational identity (Abrams, et al., 1998)

The eight items in the scale used to measure organisational identity focused on feelings about membership in the organisation, and the importance of the organisation to the individual. The organisational identification measure consisted of five items (e.g. I feel strong ties with my organisation).

Turnover intention (Abrams, et al., 1998)

Turnover intention, the extent to which an individual plans to leave or remain within the organisation, was measured using three items (e.g. I think about leaving this organisation).

Organisational Culture (Thompson, et al., 1999).

Organisational culture was measured using a 20-item scale. These items measured perceptions of how far the respondent's organisation encourages and values the use of flexible working practices (e.g. My direct manager is sympathetic to family-related needs).

GHQ (Goldberg & Hillier, 1979)

Psychological well-being was measured by asking respondents to complete the General Health Questionnaire, a twelve-item measure of psychological distress (e.g. Have you recently been feeling unhappy and depressed).

Design and Procedure

Two questionnaire surveys were conducted. Following completion of the Sparks Union questionnaire, separate questionnaires were sent out to members of the Ponders Union, measuring WLC and LWC using the adapted scales shown in Tables 3.3a and 3.3b. All ethical guidelines set out by the British Psychological Society were followed. At the beginning of each questionnaire there were clear instructions about confidentiality and anonymity. It was also made clear that completion of the questionnaire was not compulsory. No formal de-brief was provided because no active deception was used but all questionnaires contained contact details of the researcher for those who wanted to ask questions about the study. All respondents were thanked for their participation.

Results

Scales and Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics and reliability were conducted on all scales. The scales are listed, showing the mean, standard deviation, and Cronbach's alpha for each (Table 3.5).

Table 3.5: Descriptive statistics of measured scales for full time female workers

Name of Measure	Sparks M and SD	Sparks Cronbach's Alpha	Ponders M and SD	Ponders Cronbach's Alpha
Organisational Identity	4.01 1.57	.95	4.83 1.40	.94
Turnover Intention	3.98 1.94	.81	3.83 1.80	.78
Organisational Culture	4.11 1.02	.88	4.35 1.00	.90
Work-family Conflict	3.70 1.67	.89		
Family-work Conflict	2.37 1.21	.80		
Work-Life Conflict			4.22 1.80	.93
Life-Work Conflict			2.13 1.16	.83

Exploratory Factor Analysis

To investigate whether changes in wording to the WLC and LWC scales altered the factor structure from the WFC and FWC scales identified by Netemeyer, et al., (1996), principle components analysis with varimax rotation was carried out on Sparks female full-time workers (N = 610) and Ponders female full-time workers (N = 330). Both supported the same two-factor solution developed and validated by Netemeyer, et al., (1996). These components are shown in Tables 3.6a and 3.6b.

Table 3.6a: Principle components analysis with varimax rotation producing two discrete factors for WFC and FWC from the Netemeyer, et al., (1996) scale. Sparks female full-time workers.

Item	Factor 1 Sparks WFC Eigenvalue = 4.51 % of Variance Explained = 45.11	Factor 2 Sparks FWC Eigenvalue = 1.79 % of Variance Explained = 17.87
The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life.	**.825**	.161
The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil family responsibilities.	**.703**	.259
Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands of my job.	**.847**	.152
My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties.	**.826**	.200
Due to work, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.	**.838**	.155
The demands of my family or partner interfere with work-related duties.	.206	**.765**
I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home.	.135	**.797**
Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or partner.	.159	**.796**
My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work.	.246	**.489**
Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform work-related duties.	.105	**.767**

Table 3.6b: Principle components analysis with varimax rotation producing two discrete factors for WLC and LWC from adaptations to the Netemeyer, et al., (1996) scale. Ponders female full-time workers.

Item	Factor 1 Ponders WLC Eigenvalue = 4.78 % of Variance Explained = 47.76	Factor 2 Ponders LWC Eigenvalue = 2.28 % of Variance Explained = 22.83
The demands of my work interfere with my life away from work.	**.889**	.008
The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil other interests.	**.889**	.135
Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands of my job.	**.901**	.148
My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil other responsibilities and duties.	**.853**	.208
Due to work, I have to make changes to my plans for activities away from work.	**.845**	.136
The demands of my personal life interfere with work-related duties.	.370	**.634**
I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time outside work.	.108	**.834**
Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my interests outside work.	.005	**.843**
My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work.	.122	**.830**
Personal life strains interfere with my ability to perform work-related duties.	.009	**.666**

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

To follow exploratory factor analysis, and to test the hypothesis that the factor structure of the 'life' scales supported the same two-factor solution as that of the 'family' scales developed and validated by Netemeyer, et al., (1996), confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the WLC and LWC scales using EQS 5.7a (Bentler, 1995). The 'determinant of the input matrix' was 14.65, suggesting that there was no problem with multicolinearity. The variables therefore were not linearly related. The standardised residual matrix showed all correlations between the variables to be close to zero. The independence model chi-square that tests the hypothesis that the variables are uncorrelated with one another was rejected, χ^2 (45, N = 325) = 2006.77, p < .001. Although the chi-square hypothesised model indicated an

improvement in fit in comparison to the independent model, χ^2 (34, N = 325) = 109.49, p < .001, it did not allow the null hypothesis to fail to be rejected. However, as noted by Bentler (1990a) the chi-square test is not as sensitive a test as are the fit-indices when using large sample sizes, and often causes trivial differences to produce statistically significant chi-square results. Inspection of the other fit indices indicated the solution fitted the data well, with the goodness of fit index ranging from .90 to .96. All comparative fit indices and residual-based fit indices are shown in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7: Confirmatory Factor Analysis – Comparative fit indices and residual-based fit indices showing goodness of fit of specified model for WLC and LWC scales

	Goodness of fit indices	
NFI	=	0.95
NNFI	=	0.95
CFI	=	0.96
IFI	=	0.96
MFI	=	0.90
GFI	=	0.94
AGFI	=	0.90
	Residual-based fit indices	
RMR	=	0.384
Standardised RMR	=	0.074
RMSEA	=	0.083
90% confidence interval of RMSEA	=	0.066

Confirmatory Factor Analysis was also conducted on the WFC and FWC scales using EQS 5.7a (Bentler, 1995). The 'determinant of the input matrix' was 1521.7, suggesting that there was no problem with multicolinearity. The variables therefore were not linearly related. The standardised residual matrix showed all correlations between the variables to be close to zero. The independence model chi-square that tests the hypothesis that the variables are uncorrelated with one another was rejected, χ^2 (45, N =605) = 2791.09, p < .001. Although

the chi-square hypothesised model indicated an improvement in fit in comparison to the independent model, χ^2 (34, N = 605) = 153.42, p < .001, it did not allow the null hypothesis to fail to be rejected. However, as previously explained and noted by Bentler (1990a) the chi-square test is not as sensitive a test as are the fit-indices when using large sample sizes. Inspection of the other fit indices indicated the solution fitted the data well, with the goodness of fit index ranging from .91 to .96. All comparative fit indices and residual-based fit indices are shown in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8: Confirmatory Factor Analysis – Comparative fit indices and residual-based fit indices showing goodness of fit of specified model for WFC and FWC scales

	Goodness of fit indices	
NFI	=	0.95
NNFI	=	0.94
CFI	=	0.96
IFI	=	0.96
MFI	=	0.91
GFI	=	0.95
AGFI	=	0.92
	Residual-based fit indices	
RMR	=	0.155
Standardised RMR	=	0.048
RMSEA	=	0.076
90% confidence interval of RMSEA	=	0.064

Pearson Correlation

Pearson correlation was carried out to examine patterns of relationships between WFC/FWC and WLC/LWC and organisational identity, turnover intention, organisational culture and psychological health for female workers with and without childcare responsibilities in both Unions. Tables 3.9 and 3.10 show the relationships between variables.

Table 3.9: Pearson Correlation between WFC, FWC, organisational identity, turnover intention, organisational culture and GHQ: Sparks female full-time workers with and without children

Children N = 172 / No Children N = 430	Turnover Intention		Organisational Culture		WFC		FWC		GHQ	
	Children	No Children	Children	No Children	Children	No Children	Children	No Children	Children	No Children
Organisational Identity	-.519**	-.593**	.388**	.430**	-.261**	-.220**	-.018	-.082	-.177*	-.260**
Turnover Intention			-.318**	-.286**	.243**	.257**	.068	.079	.185*	.276**
Organisational Culture					-.523**	-.400**	-.238**	-.149**	-.222**	-.274**
WFC							.467**	.408**	.293**	.321**
FWC									.340**	.138**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 3.10: Pearson Correlation between WLC, LWC, organisational identity, turnover intention, organisational culture and GHQ. Ponders female full-time workers with and without children

Children N = 202 / No Children N = 120	Turnover Intention		Organisational Culture		WLC		LWC		GHQ	
	Children	No Children	Children	No Children	Children	No Children	Children	No Children	Children	No Children
Organisational Identity	-.469**	-.517**	.399**	.276**	-.119	-.213*	-.168*	-.027	-.122	-.344**
Turnover Intention			-.290**	-.308**	.221**	.359**	.154*	.119	.233**	.327**
Organisational Culture					-.392**	-.460**	-.174*	-.189*	-.199**	-.399**
WLC							.329**	.385**	.232**	.382**
LWC									.151*	.052

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Sparks – female full-time workers with and without children

Organisational identity was significantly negatively related to work-family conflict. There was a significant positive relationship between turnover intention and work-family conflict. Organisational culture was significantly negatively related to both work-family conflict and family-work conflict. Work-family conflict and family-work conflict were significantly positively related. Work-family conflict and family-work conflict were both significantly positively related to psychological distress. The relationships between the variables shown in Sparks indicate no differences between female full-time workers with children and female full-time workers without children.

Ponders – female full-time workers with and without children

This same pattern of correlations is shown for Ponders with the following exceptions. Organisational identity and work-life conflict in this sample are not significantly correlated for those with children. Organisational identity and life-work conflict are significantly negatively related. In the sample with children, turnover intention and life-work conflict are significantly positively correlated. For those without children, life-work conflict and psychological health are not related.

Fisher's z r Transformations

Fisher's z r transformations were conducted to test whether the correlations for WFC and FWC in Sparks differed significantly from WLC and LWC in Ponders for people with and without children. For those with children the two correlations were: Sparks WFC/FWC r = .467; Ponders WLC/LWC r = .329. For those without children, the two correlations were: Sparks WFC/FWC r = .408; Ponders WLC/LWC r = .385. Results of Fisher's z r transformation showed that the two correlations for those with children were not significantly different, z = 1.60, n.s. (two-tailed). Results also showed that the two correlations for those without children were not significantly different, z = 0.29, n.s. (two-tailed). To test whether the relationships, and thus, the wording between 'Family' and 'Life', differed between the other constructs for those with and without children, Fisher's z r transformations were again conducted. Tables 3.11 and 3.12 show the results.

Table 3.11: Fisher's z r transformations between variables in Sparks and Ponders – Female full-time workers with children.

Sparks	Org Id / WFC	Org Id / FWC	Org Id / GHQ	TI / FWC	TI / GHQ	Org Cul / WFC	Org Cul / FWC	WFC / FWC	WFC / GHQ	FWC / GHQ
	r = -.261	r = .018	r = -.177	r = .068	r = .185	r = .523	r = -.238	r = .467	r = .293	r = .340
Ponders	Org Id / WLC	Org Id / LWC	Org Id / GHQ	TI / LWC	TI / GHQ	Org Cul / WLC	Org Cul / LWC	WLC / LWC	WLC / GHQ	LWC / GHQ
	r = -.119	r = -.168	r = -.122	r = .154	r = .233	r = -.392	r = -.174	r = .329	r = .232	r = .151
Z result (2-tailed)	Z = 1.38 (n.s.)	Z = 1.45 (n.s.)	Z = 0.53 (n.s.)	Z = 0.82 (n.s.)	Z = 0.49 (n.s.)	Z = 1.62 (n.s.)	Z = 0.65 (n.s.)	Z = 1.60 (n.s.)	Z = 0.67 (n.s.)	Z = 1.94 (p=.05)

Table 3.12: Fisher's z r transformations between variables in Sparks and Ponders – Female full-time workers without children.

	WFC / FWC	WFC / GHQ	FWC / GHQ
Sparks	r = .408	r = .321	r = .138
Ponders	WLC / LWC r = .385	WLC / GHQ r = .382	LWC / GHQ r = .052
Z result (2-tailed)	Z = 0.29 (n.s.)	Z = 0.65 (n.s.)	Z = 0.87 (n.s.)

For people with children, the z scores between FWC and psychological health and LWC and psychological health were significantly different, z = 1.94, p < .05 (two-tailed). Whilst there was a significant relationship between the amount of conflict between 'family' and work and psychological distress, and also between 'life' and work and psychological distress, people reported significantly more conflict between 'family' and work than between 'life' and work.

Multivariate Analysis

Sparks and Ponders data sets were merged. Multivariate analysis was conducted. The assumptions of normality, independence and homogeneity of variance for between-subjects ANOVA were all met. Results showed significant differences between whether or not people had children and the amount of WFC/WLC experienced, $F(1, 925) = 8.58$, $p < .01$, $Ms = 2.93$.

Significant differences were also found between WFC/WLC, $F(1, 925) = 9.67$, $p < .01$, $Ms =$ 2.93 and FWC/LWC, $F(1, 925) = 12.63$, $p < .001$, $Ms = 1.42$. A two-way interaction effect was found between FWC/LWC and whether or not people had children, $F(1, 925) = 4.39$, $p < .05$, $Ms = 1.42$.

Pairwise comparisons showed significant differences between WFC ($M = 3.56$, $SD = 1.66$) and WLC ($M = 4.07$, $SD = 1.83$) with women who do not have children, $p < .01$. Women who work full-time and do not have children experience significantly more conflict from work into their lives generally, than conflict that is experienced from work into family life. Significant differences were also found between FWC ($M = 2.61$, $SD = 1.30$) and LWC ($M = 2.12$, $SD = 1.18$) between women who work full-time and do have children, $p < .001$. Women who work full-time and have children experience significantly more conflict from family into their work than conflict from life generally into work.

It is acknowledged that the unions may themselves have created differences. Results from MANOVA showed a main effect for FWC/LWC between Sparks and Ponders, $F(1, 2056) = 27.99$, $p < .001$, $Ms = 1.40$. Women in Sparks experienced significantly more FWC ($M = 2.49$, $SD = 1.19$) than LWC experienced by women in Ponders ($M = 2.13$, $SD = 1.16$). Results also showed a main effect for WFC/WLC for women with children, $F(1, 2056) = 11.34$, $p < .001$, $Ms = 2.78$. In both unions, women with children experienced more WFC/WLC ($M = 4.27$, $SD = 1.65$) than did women without children ($M = 3.82$, $SD = 1.68$). No interaction effect was found between union and having children.

Discussion

This study suggests that a work-family conflict scale may not adequately measure the conflicts experienced by people who do not live with family. What has been identified is a scale that measures work-life conflicts, but which, in turn, may not be entirely suitable for measuring work-family conflicts.

The findings of the study

The aim of this study was to examine the relationship between the WFC (work-family conflict) and FWC (family-work conflict) scales of Netemeyer, et al., (1996) and the WLC (work-life conflict) and LWC (life-work conflict) scales adapted from the Netemeyer, et al., (1996) scales when the item wording had been changed. The factor structure of the 'life' scales supported the same two-factor solution as that of the 'family' scales developed and validated

by Netemeyer, et al., (1996). The fit indices resulting from confirmatory factor analysis indicated the solution fitted the data well.

Pearson correlation showed similar relationships between variables with both unions. In Sparks, for women with and without children, organisational identity was negatively related to WFC, showing that the more identified people are with their organisation, the less WFC they have. There was a negative, but not significant, correlation between organisational identity and FWC. In Ponders, organisational identity and WLC were not significantly related for those with children. Furthermore, organisational identity and LWC were significantly negatively related, showing that the more people are identified with their organisation, the less LWC they have.

It was expected that the more WFC people experience, the more they are likely to want to leave their organisation (Bevan, et al., 1999; Houston & Waumsley, 2003). Indeed, for those with and without children in Sparks and Ponders, this was supported by a positive relationship between turnover intention and WFC. The relationship between turnover intention and FWC was not significant for those with and without children in Sparks. For those with children in Ponders, turnover intention and LWC were positively related, showing that the more LWC people have, if they have children, the more likely they are to want to leave their organisation. The same relationship in Ponders for those without children was not significant.

Organisational culture was negatively related to WFC/WLC and FWC/LWC in both unions for people with and without children, showing that the more work-family/life and family/life-work conflicts experienced, the less positively people feel their organisation is towards flexible working policies. This is entirely in keeping with the findings of Houston and Waumsley (2003) who also showed a non-supportive workplace culture to be associated with higher levels of work-family conflict.

In both unions, for those with and without children, WFC/WLC and FWC/LWC were positively related, showing that the greater the WFC/WLC experienced, the greater the FWC/LWC also experienced. It was expected that greater levels of psychological distress would be associated with higher levels of conflicts (Frone, et al., 1996; Houston & Waumsley, 2003). In Sparks, for those with and without children, WFC and FWC were both significantly positively related to psychological distress. However, in Ponders, whilst WLC was significantly positively related to psychological distress, and LWC was significantly positively related to psychological distress for those with children, LWC and psychological distress were not related for those without children.

Based on Fisher's transformation, z-tests confirmed the difference for those with children between FWC and psychological distress and LWC and psychological distress as significant. People with children reported significantly more conflict between family and work than between life and work.

Mulitvariate analysis showed that women who work full-time and do not have children experience significantly more conflict from work into their lives generally, than conflict that is experienced from work into family life. Women who work full-time and do have children experience significantly more conflict from family into their work than conflict from life generally into work. Differences between unions showed women in Sparks experienced significantly more FWC than LWC experienced by women in Ponders. In both unions, women with children experienced more WFC/WLC than women without children.

Meaning and Implications of the Findings

The relationship between organisational identity and WFC for women with and without children is perhaps not surprising. It might be that people experience less conflict between work and family the more identified they are with their organisation, or that the more identified they are with their organisation the less work-family conflict they experience. Either way, role theory might explain this relationship. A greater identity with an organisational role might mean that there does not appear to be a clash in roles between work and family, or that any clash is not perceived as conflicting. This explanation is given some credibility by the positive relationship between WFC and turnover intention for those with and without children and by a negative relationship between organisational identity and turnover intention, suggesting that either the less people identify with their organisation, the more they want to leave, or the more they want to leave the less they identify with their organisation. Similarly, for those with children, the more they identify with their organisation the less LWC they experience, or the less LWC they experience the more they identify with their organisation. Again, a positive relationship with LWC and turnover intention for those with children either means they are more likely to leave the more LWC they experience, or the more LWC they experience the more they are likely to want to leave. Whilst these relationships do not suggest causal inference, it may be that high organisational identity suggests less LWC and less intention to leave that organisation. The negative relationship between organisational culture and WFC/WLC and FWC/LWC in both unions for people with and without children lends support to the findings on organisational identity and turnover intention. It may be that the more conflicts experienced, the less positively people feel towards their organisation, the less they identify with it, and the more they are likely to leave it. Conversely, it may be that the more people want to leave their organisation, the less they identify with it, the less

positively they feel toward it and the more conflicts they experience. These relationships support those found in previous studies (e.g. Houston & Waumsley, 2003).

The relationship between conflict and psychological distress is problematic in the context of attempts to develop a generic scale. Previous research has shown an increase in conflict to be positively related to psychological distress (e.g. Frone, et al., 1992a; Houston & Waumsley, 2003). Whilst in this study, for those with children, there was a significant positive relationship between FWC and psychological distress in Sparks, and also between LWC and psychological distress in Ponders, the difference between the correlations was significant. People reported significantly more conflict between 'family' and work than between 'life' and work. Thus, for those with children, there is a relationship between family-based conflict and psychological distress that does not become apparent when the more generic wording is used.

The difference between family life and life generally was again highlighted by the finding in both unions that women without children report more WLC than WFC. Again, this may be because work is 'allowed' to intrude more into 'life' than into 'family'. Women with children report more FWC than LWC. This is intuitively plausible and may again be due to it being more acceptable for 'family' to conflict with work than 'life' generally to conflict with work. Another explanation for the differences may be because they are the result of differences between the two unions. Sparks was very male dominated, which may have made some difference to the amount of stress experienced. Certainly women in Sparks reported more FWC than those in Ponders reported LWC. However, there was no significant difference between unions and those with childcare. In both unions, women with children reported more WFC/WLC than women without children. It therefore seems that the 'union' is causing the differences between FWC and LWC rather than the different wording (family or life). It is plausible to suggest that if the wording were being interpreted differently, there would be an interaction for union and childcare since people with children report more conflict.

Conversely, it might be argued that differences between WFC and WLC for women without children, and between FWC and LWC for women with children imply that the changes in wording indicate different things. The interpretation of 'life' appears to be different from that of 'family' when the conflict is from non-work to work.

The relationships between conflicts and organisational identity, turnover intention, organisational culture and psychological health supported the findings of Houston and Waumsley (2003), adding construct validity to the more generic scale. However, differences between the 'family' and 'life' wording imply some variations in the construct validity of the

two scales, particularly between FWC and LWC, which appear to be measuring different constructs. The z r transformation showing a significant difference between FWC and psychological health and LWC and psychological health for those with children is further evidence to suggest that the wording created a different response. Interestingly, it is 'family' and not 'life' that appears to have an impact on psychological health. Whilst the reliability of the WLC and the LWC scales are high, the two constructs, 'family' and 'life', appear to have been perceived differently. Notwithstanding this, the Fisher's z r transformations for all other variables did not show significant differences between the two sub-scales, showing that the WFC/FWC and WLC/LWC scales had similar relationships with other scales in the study. Psychological health was the exception. This strengthens the argument for the continued adaptation of the WFC/FWC scale in order that it recognises people who do not live as part of a family.

Conclusion

The implications of this study are that a WFC/FWC scale may not adequately measure the conflict experienced in the lives of people who do not live as part of a family and a WLC/LWC scale may not adequately measure the conflicts of those who do. This would be problematic as has been illustrated in this study, with FWC creating psychological distress and LWC significantly less so. Perhaps the answer lies in future research using a new scale, consisting of four sub scales: WFC, FWC, WLC, and LWC, made up of the three top loading items from each shown in tables 3.6a and 3.6b. Since scale development was not the sole focus of this thesis, further development of this new scale is suggested for future research. Conversely, if a study is particularly interested in examining families, the WFC/FWC scale might be used. If not, the more generic scale may be more meaningful. The WLC/LWC scale might ensure a more sensitive measurement of conflict between work and life outside work for people who do not live as part of a family. It is important, both empirically and socially, to accurately measure the conflicts experienced by people between work and life outside work since one of the aims of the British government's work-life balance campaign is to encourage work-life balance for all.

Having examined the ways in which conflict is measured, it is now pertinent to investigate the interplay of support and control involved in conflict between work and life away from work experienced by so many in today's contemporary society. Chapter 2 examined the factors perceived as influencing work and life outside work in the UK and found results to concur with much of the existing literature. Building on these findings, chapter 4 now takes these discrete aspects of the work-life literature a step further in an attempt to better understand the processes of control and support in the interplay between work and life.

Chapter 4
Control and Support

Introduction

In chapter two, a small-scale study was conducted to examine key factors that influenced people's expectations of work and life outside work. Results showed the main factors influencing experience of work were: support and relationships with managers and colleagues; hours of work; work demands; working environment and work flexibility. The main factors found to be important to the experience of life outside work were: support and more time for leisure, family and friends. In chapter two, it had been anticipated that respondents would describe processes as well as factors that influenced working lives and lives outside work. However, the focus tended to be on discrete factors. The responses did focus on issues of time, work demands, work environment and work flexibility and these factors are strongly related to aspects of control.

The concept of control has been extensively examined in relation to work and stress within psychology. One such model is Karasek's (1979) job demands-decision latitude model, which has provided the theoretical basis for a great deal of research in this area. Karasek (1989) argues that when an individual experiences pressure, but no control, the situation becomes particularly stressful. Selye (1950), used the word 'stress' to refer to the general breakdown of the body in response to the wear and tear of modern life. He suggested that there are environmental 'stressors' and that the response to these is 'stress'. McGrath (1970) views stress as a process involving four distinct stages: the demand, recognition of the demand, response to the demand, and the consequences of the response. A number of objective and subjective factors intervene in each of these stages, which makes the complexity of stress a process involving a relationship between the person and the environment over a period of time. For McGrath (1970), stress occurs when there is a substantial imbalance between the demands of the environment and the response capability of the person. Research has shown that stress is one of the most important reasons behind sickness from work (CIPD, 2004) and three quarters of executives report stress to adversely affect their health, happiness and home life as well as their performance at work (Wheatley, 2000). Contributing to a wide range of physical and psychological health outcomes are situations where employees are stressed because they have no control over the way in which work is carried out, have to carry out fast-paced work which conflicts with other priorities, or have a lack of recognition and support from their managers (CIPD, 2004).

It has been suggested that a sense of control enables people to make changes in their environment (Bailyn, 1997) and research has also shown that work flexibility has been found to reduce work-family conflict by increasing a sense of control at work (Clark, 2002), that work flexibility provides greater personal control in the juggling of multiple roles (Lee & Duxbury, 1998) and that perceived control acts as a mediating mechanism by which family supportive policies influence work-family conflict and health outcomes (Thomas & Ganster, 1995).   Thus, from the perspective of occupational psychology, control appears to be the process driving the responses to stressful work demands, work flexibility, time and working environment. One aspect of this chapter is therefore to examine whether a sense of control reduces conflicts experienced between work and non-work, often brought about by time restraints (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) and pressures of work (Frone et al; 1997; Fu & Shaffer, 2001; Noor, 2002).

Support featured as one of the most important issues for people in both the work and the non-work domains in chapter two. This finding supports research that shows work-family conflict to be reduced when employees have supportive supervisors (Allen, 2001; Erdwins et al., 2001; Fu & Shaffer, 2001; Jansen et al., 2003; McManus et al., 2002, Thomas & Ganster, 1995). A supportive organisation has also been shown to reduce work-family conflict and turnover intention (Allen, 2001). Social support from within the family has also consistently been shown to reduce family-work conflict (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Erdwins et al., 2001; Fu & Shaffer, 2001; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Thus, a second aspect of this chapter is to examine whether support might reduce conflicts experienced between work and non-work, reduce turnover intention and influence psychological health.

Given that control and support are hypothesised to be key processes involved in affecting conflicts, turnover intention and psychological health, the interaction effect between the two variables is a third aspect under investigation in this chapter.

Control

Control is a psychological state that is necessary for personal and professional well-being (Repetti, 1987). When employees feel a sense of perceived control, they are empowered to make changes in their environments, and they have a sense that they matter and can make a difference (Bailyn, 1997). This is similar to the concept of autonomy or freedom to make decisions in one's work (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Bailyn (1997) proposed that flexibility in when and where the work is done is instrumental in creating a culture that promotes work-family balance. However, empirical studies of this relationship show that flexibility is not directly related to outcomes such as work-family balance, but is more directly related to

psychological states such as employee satisfaction (Christensen & Staines, 1990; Rothausen, 1994). Christensen and Staines (1990) proposed that flexibility affects balance through increased feelings of autonomy. Similarly, Thomas and Ganster (1995) found no direct relationship between flexibility and work-family conflict but did find that feelings of control mediated this relationship. These authors examined the direct and indirect effects of organisational polices and practices supportive of family responsibilities on work-family conflict and psychological, physical and behavioural measures of strain. Survey data was collected from a population of 398 health professionals who had children aged 16 or under living at home. Findings showed that supportive practices, especially flexible working, and supportive supervisors, had direct positive effects on employee perceptions of control over work and family issues. Perceptions of control, in turn, were associated with lower levels of work-family conflict, job dissatisfaction, depression, somatic complaints, and blood cholesterol. Thomas and Ganster (1995) suggest that organisations can take steps that can increase employees' control over family responsibilities and that this control might help employees better manage conflicting demands of work and family life.

Clarke (2002) examined employees' sense of work community and their sense of control as mediating variables between personal and work factors and work-family conflict with 151 employees. Results, using structural equation modelling, showed that a sense of control mediated the relationship between four personal and work factors (ethnicity, supervisor support, the intrinsic value placed on work, and work flexibility) and work-family conflict. The author showed that perceived control at work reduced work-family conflict and work flexibility reduced work-family conflict by increasing a sense of control at work. Clark (2002) suggests that flexibility may show that organisations trust the employee to carry out work in a way that is acceptable and appropriate to them, thus enhancing employees' sense of control and self-efficacy.

Theorists and researchers have noted that when work has intrinsic value, employees are more effective in balancing work and family, regardless of time pressures which their work may create on their home lives (Clark, 2000; Thompson & Bunderson, 2001; Wallace, 1997). Clark (2002) suggests that employees' sense of control may provide one explanation for this. Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job characteristics model states that work that is intrinsically valuable to employees is work that has autonomy and ownership of an identifiable piece of work. Both of these characteristics are closely related to employees' sense of control. Similarly, the motivational model of Senécal, et al., (2001) showed that autonomy-support from one's employer is positively associated with self-determined motivation.

A sense of control and autonomy is also an important aspect of a healthy, family-friendly work environment (Bailyn, 1997; Repetti, 1987) and may help employees to cope with a wide variety of stressful circumstances (Ganster & Fusilier, 1989). Zimmerman and Rappoport (1988) maintained that this is so because a sense of control reflects employees' beliefs that they can make changes and negotiate successfully with others to make the environment more rewarding or less threatening (Parker, Wall & Jackson, 1997). Thomas and Ganster (1995) found that employees' sense of control over their working environment was associated with lower levels of work-family role conflict.

Karasek's (1979) job demands-decision latitude model proposes that level of job control interacts with job demands to influence well-being and health. Demands are defined as psychological demands such as high work pace, time pressures, and difficult work. Decision latitude is defined as comprising the extent of authority to make decisions concerning the job and skills required to perform the job. The high-demand high-control situation is characterised as challenging and Karasek (1989) argues that it should result in increased motivation and learning. When an individual has a great deal of pressure, but no control, the situation is proposed to be particularly undesirable. Whilst Karasek's model has provided the theoretical basis for the majority of research on control, it has received only weak support (Ganster & Fusilier, 1989; Terry & Jimmieson, 1999). Researchers have interpreted the notion of a joint effect between demands and decision latitude as a statistical interaction, although many attempts have failed to find evidence for this interaction (de Lange, Taris, Kompier, Houtman & Bongers, 2003). Several explanations have been offered as to why the interactive effects of control and demands have not been upheld. Arguably, the way in which the job demand construct is conceptualised may confound the interactive relationship (Wall, Jackson, Mullarkey & Parker, 1996). However, one methodological refinement indicates that it is the job control component that buffers the impact of work demands on well-being (Wall, et al., 1996). It is proposed in this chapter that work-life conflict will be less for those who experience greater perceived control over high job demands.

Support

Another development of the demands-control model has been to extend the model to include social support. Support is defined in this context as the "levels of helpful social interaction with supervisors and co-workers" (Karasek & Theorell, 1990, p. 69). Social support has been defined in many ways (e.g. Cobb, 1976; Thoits, 1982) but, in succinct terms, might be considered a social "fund" from which people may draw to help them cope when handling stressors (Thoits, 1995). In addition, perceived support can be broadly defined as "the resources provided by other persons" (Cohen & Syme, 1985, p.4). Two dominant models of

social support are the 'main effect model' and the 'buffering' model, both of which appear to represent the two different aspects of social support (Cohen & Wills, 1985), and studies have found evidence consistent with both (e.g. Cohen & Syme, 1985; Cohen & Wills, 1985; Pilisuk, Boylan & Acredolo, 1987; Wortman & Dunkel-Schetter, 1987). In short, the main effect model involves large social networks that have positive effects on well-being unrelated to stress, providing structural support. This may best describe the general effects of a supportive working environment, which may have a positive effect on any possible conflict resulting from work. It may also explain the importance placed on support from family and a network of friends outside work in chapter two. The buffering model focuses on interpersonal aspects of social support that act as a 'buffer' to protect against the negative effects of stress. These, in effect, form the 'functional' aspects of social support and might better describe the specific aspects of support offered by supportive colleagues and managers at work, and family and friends in the non-work domain. Several types of support have been postulated and assessed by various researchers, but generally fall into six basic types: appraisal support, emotional support, instrumental or tangible support, informational support, and network support (see Cohen & Wills, 1985, for a review). Tangible support represents the direct provision of needed resources and services by individuals in one's social network (Cohen & Wills, 1985), which might best describe the provision of flexible and alternative working arrangements by an organisation. Emotional support perhaps offers the informal supports provided by relationships within an organisation. Given that social support is such a robust finding within the literature with regard to an individual's perception of their own work-life balance, the theory of social support offers sound psychological theory from which to draw an explanation of such findings.

There is a growing recognition in the work-family literature that informal means of organisational support (e.g. organisational culture, supportive supervisors, and increased employee autonomy) can play an important role in employee ability to balance work and family (e.g. Behson, 2002a; Frone, et al., 1997; Lobel & Kossek, 1996; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 1997). The concept of informal organisational support has been based on theoretical argument and supplemented with anecdotal evidence or indirect empirical evidence. However, Allen (2001) and Thompson, et al., (1999) provide strong empirical evidence that, although availability of work-family benefits may have a relatively small effect on employee attitudes and experiences, employee perceptions of informal work-family supportiveness are strongly related to important outcomes such as turnover intentions and work-family conflict. Based on the results of Allen (2001) and Thompson, et al., (1999), Behson (2005) tested the hypothesis that informal means of organisational work-family support explains more variance in job satisfaction, work-family conflict, stress, turnover

intentions, and absenteeism than do formal means of organisational work-family support. Behson's (2005) results strongly supported his hypothesis. In particular, organisations which foster environments which allow their employees discretion and autonomy in the way in which they get their work done, encourage supervisors to be supportive of work-family issues, and do not penalize employees for devoting attention to family, should be more likely to benefit from increased employee satisfaction and decreased employee stress, work-family conflict, and turnover intentions.

The Demand-Control-Support Model

Job demand-control theory argues that work stress stems from the structural or organisational aspects of the work environment rather than in personal attributes or demographics (Karasek, 1979). The expanded three-dimensional demand-control-support model predicts that workers with jobs combining high demands, low control, and low support from supervisors or co-workers are at the highest risk of psychological or physical disorders (Johnson & Hall, 1988). There has been some debate in the literature that this hypothesis, known as the iso-strain hypothesis, is only supported when interaction effects are shown between demands, control and support at work. The evidence with respect to the interaction effects of control, support and demands is mixed (de Lange, et al., 2003), although Karasek (1989) argues that focusing on statistical interactions "is not the main issue" (p. 143). Karasek and Theorell (1990) consider that control and support both promote well-being and productivity through fostering active problem solving as a means of coping with work demands.

Empirical tests of the demand-control model have shown that large-scale studies with multi-occupational populations have provided some support for interaction effects between demand and control predicting strain (de Jonge & Kompier, 1997; Schnall, Landsbergis & Baker, 1994). Smaller scale studies of the demand-control model in single occupational samples have primarily found main effects of demands and control (e.g. Hurrell & McLaney, 1989; Perrewe & Anthony, 1990; Spector, 1987). Epidemiological studies provide the most support for the core assumptions of the demand-control-support model (Amick, et al., 1998; Theorell, et al., 1998). However, three-way interactions between demands x control x support were not assessed in these studies and de Jong and Kompier (1997) have observed that the interaction hypothesis is not often supported in epidemiological studies.

The active-learning hypothesis (de Jong & Kompier, 1997) postulates that jobs combining high demands and high control would lead workers to experience feelings of competence, productivity and accomplishment. Studies that have examined this hypothesis have generally

found empirical support for it (e.g. Dollard & Winefield, 1998; Karasek, 1981; Landsbergis, Schnall, Deitz, Friedman & Pickering, 1992) although Meijman, Ulenbelt, Lumens and Herber (1996) did not.

Dollard, et al., (2000) tested the demand-control-support model in a multi-occupational sample of 813 human service workers, examining levels of strain in terms of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and job satisfaction, and feelings of personal accomplishment in terms of productivity and competency. Results of the study, which used structural equation modelling, showed support for an additive model for both the iso-strain and the active learning hypotheses. Confirmation of an additive iso-strain hypothesis and the expanded three-dimensional model accords with Amick, et al's., (1998) conclusion that "incorporating social conditions at work into measurement of psychosocial work-environment exposure improves the identification of high risk arrangements" (p. 54). It is also consistent with many other studies of human service workers (Jones, Fletcher & Ibbetson, 1991; Melamed, Kushnir & Meir, 1991) and of correctional officers (Dollard & Winefield, 1995) that found support at work to be a very important dimension of the psychosocial work environment associated with strain.

Dollard, et al., (2000) also found support for an additive active learning hypothesis, that jobs combining high demands and high control would provide the most sense of competence and productivity. Workers reporting these kinds of conditions reported the highest levels of personal accomplishment. This result shows that high demands are not necessarily harmful if congruent levels of control accompany them. Self-efficacy arising from these conditions may offset mental strain such as depression and an inability to cope with the demands of the job (Maslach, 1998). If workers are consistently in a situation of heavy workload with a lack of either support or control, strain and ill-health can result. Dollard, et al's., (2000) findings that jobs combining high demands, low control and low support produced the lowest levels of satisfaction in workers, suggest that an increase in work productivity might be achieved, not by decreasing job demand but by increasing the levels of control and support in the workplace.

Justification for this study

Results from testing the demand-control-support model (Dollard, et al., 2000) show the interaction of job demands, control and support to be important factors influencing psychological health and job satisfaction. To place this in the context of the work-life balance literature, organisational control and support have been shown to reduce work-life conflict (e.g. Allen, 2001; Clark, 2002; Thomas & Ganster, 1995), with work-life conflict having a

negative effect on turnover intention and psychological health (e.g. Houston & Waumsley, 2003; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999). In order to build on all these findings, and on the factors mentioned as influencing work and non-work in chapter two, the aim of this chapter was to examine the effect of control and support at work and in life outside work on experiences of work-life and life-work conflicts and, in turn, to examine whether these variables would also predict psychological health and turnover intention. Thus, the main focus of this chapter was on the independent and interaction effects of control and support on conflicts, turnover intention and psychological health. However, the study also offered the opportunity to test the findings of Dollard et al., (2000), who showed psychological health to be predicted by the interaction between work demands x work control x work support.

Pilot Study

In order to examine the reliability of scales in this survey, a pilot study was carried out before the main study was conducted.

Design

A questionnaire survey was conducted. In addition to the socio-demographic questions, the questionnaire consisted of a number of scales investigating working hours, work demands and home demands and any impact of support and control, both at work and at home, on the outcomes of work and life conflicts, turnover intention and psychological health.

Participants

Thirty-three participants took part in this survey. Twenty-four were female and nine were male. The participants varied in age from 21 to 63 years of age, with a mean of 39 years. Twenty-six were married or cohabiting, seven were single or divorced. All participants were British civilians working full-time for a British Police Force.

Procedure

Fifty questionnaires were sent out to civilian personnel in the British Police Force. Distribution of the questionnaires was random. All ethical guidelines set out by the British Psychological Society were followed. At the beginning of each questionnaire, there were clear instructions about confidentiality and anonymity. It was also made clear that completion of the questionnaire was not compulsory. No formal de-brief was provided because no active deception was used but all questionnaires contained contact details of the researcher for

those who wanted to ask questions about the study. All respondents were thanked for their participation. Thirty-three completed questionnaires were returned, a response rate of sixty-six percent. The pilot questionnaire can be found at Appendix 3.1.

Scales and Reliability

Work-Life Conflict was measured using the five items from the adapted scales of Netemeyer, et al., (1996) depicted in Chapter 3 (e.g. The demands of my work interfere with my life away from work). The higher the mean response, the higher the work-life conflict.

Life-work conflict was measured using the five items from the adapted scales of Netemeyer, et al., (1996) depicted in Chapter 3 (e.g. The demands of my personal life interfere with work-related duties). The higher the mean response, the higher the life-work conflict.

Turnover intention was measured using three items taken from Abrams, et al., (1998) (e.g. I think about leaving this organisation). The higher the mean response, the higher the turnover intention.

Psychological health was measured using the GHQ-12 (Goldberg & Hillier, 1979) (e.g. Have you felt constantly under strain?). The higher the mean response, the poorer the psychological health.

Working hours were measured using three items (e.g. I often have to work long hours). The higher the mean response, the longer the individual feels their working hours are.

Work demands were measured using three items (e.g. My workload is often excessive). The higher the mean response, the greater the individual feels their workload is.

Home demands were measured using five items (e.g. My own needs always seem to come after those of my family). The higher the mean response, the more people feel that home demands take priority.

Work control was measured using five items (e.g. I can choose the particular tasks I do in any one working day). The higher the mean response, the more control an individual feels they have in the workplace.

Work support was measured using four items (e.g. My manager/supervisor is helpful when I have a problem). The higher the mean response, the more support is felt in the workplace.

Life control was measured using three items (e.g. I can choose what I do when I get home from work). The higher the mean response, the more control people feel they have over their non-working lives.

Life support was measured using four items (e.g. my spouse/partner is supportive). The higher the mean response, the more support people feel they have in their non-working lives.

Socio demographic Questions

Included in the socio demographic questions were: Age, gender, ethnic category, age of children, marital status, actual working hours, overtime hours worked

The estimates of internal consistency for each of the scales were calculated utilising Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Table P4.1 shows the reliability of each of the scales.

Table P4.1: Cronbach Alpha for scales on work-life pilot survey

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	N
Work Control	.6334	33
Work Support	.8409	33
Working Hours	.7013	33
Work demands	.6022	33
Home Demands	.6012	33
Life Control	.6844	33
Life Support	.8874	33
Work-Life Conflict	.8215	33
Life-Work Conflict	.8014	33
Turnover Intention	.7601	33
General Health Questionnaire	.9115	33

Work demands, home demands and work control showed low reliability. The reliability statistic suggested that reliability on all three scales would be increased if specific items were removed. Confirmatory factor analysis with oblique rotation was performed on the scales, which confirmed that some of the items loaded on different factors. Both the reliability statistic and confirmatory factor analysis led to the exclusion of one item from work demands (I often do not have enough work to fill my working day); one item from Work Control (I am able to determine my own working hours); and one item from Home Demands (I like doing domestic tasks). Table P4.2 shows the revised reliability of each of the scales.

Table P4.2: Cronbach Alpha for revised scales on work-life pilot survey

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	N
Work Control	.7598	33
Work Support	.8409	33
Working Hours	.7013	33
Work demands	.7110	33
Home Demands	.6825	33
Life Control	.6844	33
Life Support	.8874	33
Work-Life Conflict	.8215	33
Life-Work Conflict	.8014	33
Turnover Intention	.7601	33
General Health Questionnaire	.9115	33

On the basis of this small pilot study, the revised scales were considered reliable. On the advice of managers who took part in this pilot survey, the following slight word changes occurred: 'Line Manager' and 'Manager/Supervisor' were changed to 'Managers'. In the socio-demographics section the question that asked 'What organisation do you work for?' was deleted since all participants worked for the same British Police Force.

Main Study
Method

Participants

All participants were civilians working full-time for a British Police Force and comprised 144 male non-managerial office based employees and 213 female non-managerial office based employees (Total N = 357). Age ranged from 19 to 65 years with a mean of 42 years. Two hundred and twenty nine were married or cohabiting; 97 were single, separated or divorced. Two hundred and seventeen reported having children under the age of 18 years, 96 did not have children under the age of 18 years.

Design

A questionnaire survey was conducted. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted on the data. The dependent variables were: work-life conflict, life-work conflict, turnover intention, psychological health (work), psychological health (life). The independent

variables were: age, gender, marital status, childcare responsibilities, working hours, work demands, home demands, control (life and work), support (life and work), control x support, work-life conflict and life-work conflict. Work-life and life-work conflicts were both dependent and independent variables in different regression models because whilst they were expected to be predicted by control and support, turnover intention and psychological health were also expected to be predicted by conflicts, as shown by Houston and Waumsley (2003).

Procedure

Questionnaires were sent to a central police office and distributed in the internal mail of each police department on the understanding that employees could complete them during working hours. Three hundred and twenty-seven male non-managerial office based staff and 477 female non-managerial office based staff were asked to complete the questionnaire before returning it to Kent University in a pre-paid envelope. All ethical guidelines set out by the British Psychological Society were followed. At the beginning of each questionnaire there were clear instructions about confidentiality and anonymity. It was also made clear that completion of the questionnaire was not compulsory. No formal de-brief was provided because no active deception was used but all questionnaires contained contact details of the researcher for those who wanted to ask questions about the study. All respondents were thanked for their participation. The response rate was 44 per cent.

Materials

In addition to the socio-demographic questions (described in the next section), the questionnaire consisted of a number of scales investigating perceptions of demands at work and at home, perceptions of support and control at work and at home, and work-life and life-work conflicts experienced. Also included were scales measuring turnover intention and psychological health. Except for the demographic questions and those measuring psychological health, all were measured using 7-point Likert scales (1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely). Questions measuring psychological health were measured on a scale from 0 to 3. The higher the response, the worse the psychological health. A copy of the questionnaire can be found at Appendix 3.2.

Evaluation Scales

Work-Life Conflict was measured using the five items from the adapted scales of Netemeyer, et al., (1996) depicted in Chapter 3 (e.g. The demands of my work interfere with my life away from work). Cronbach's Alpha = .93. The higher the mean response, the higher the work-life conflict.

Life-work conflict was measured using the five items from the adapted scales of Netemeyer, et al., (1996) depicted in Chapter 3 (e.g. The demands of my personal life interfere with work-related duties). Cronbach's Alpha = .86. The higher the mean response, the higher the life-work conflict.

Turnover intention was measured using three items taken from Abrams, et al., (1998) (e.g. I think about leaving this organisation). Cronbach's Alpha = .79. The higher the mean response, the higher the turnover intention.

Psychological health was measured using the GHQ-12 (Goldberg & Hillier, 1979) (e.g. Have you felt constantly under strain?). Cronbach's Alpha = .92. The higher the mean response, the poorer the psychological health.

Working hours were measured using three items (e.g. I often have to work long hours). Cronbach's Alpha = .82. The higher the mean response, the longer the individual feels their working hours are.

Work demands were measured using two items (e.g. My workload is often excessive). Cronbach's Alpha = .78. The higher the mean response, the greater the individual feels their workload is.

Home demands were measured using four items (e.g. My own needs always seem to come after those of my family). Cronbach's Alpha = .82. The higher the mean response, the more people feel that home demands take priority.

Work control was measured using four items (e.g. I can choose the particular tasks I do in any one working day). Cronbach's Alpha = .86. The higher the mean response, the more control an individual feels they have in the workplace.

Work support was measured using four items (e.g. My managers are helpful when I have a problem). Cronbach's Alpha = .89. The higher the mean response, the more support is felt in the workplace.

Life control was measured using three items (e.g. I have control over which tasks I do at home). Cronbach's Alpha = .79. The higher the mean response, the more control people feel they have over their non-working lives.

Life support was measured using four items (e.g. my spouse/partner is supportive). Cronbach's Alpha = .84. The higher the mean response, the more support people feel they have in their non-working lives.

Socio demographic Questions

Included in the socio demographic questions were: Age, gender, ethnic category, age of children, marital status, actual working hours, overtime hours worked

Results

Following estimates of internal consistency utilising Cronbach's coefficient alpha being carried out for each of the scales (already reported in the evaluation scales above), descriptive statistics, correlations and analysis of variance were conducted. Means and Standard Deviations are reported in Table 4.1. Correlations are reported in Table 4.2.

Table 4.1: Means and standard deviations of all variables

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Work Control	3.77	1.69	342
Support at Work	5.52	1.05	342
Working Hours	3.45	1.88	342
Work Demands	4.56	1.67	342
Home demands	4.07	1.31	354
Life Control	5.46	1.22	354
Life Support	5.82	.99	354
Turnover Intention	3.69	1.88	340
Work-Life Conflict	3.40	1.72	341
Life-Work Conflict	1.95	1.02	354
Psychological Health	1.11	.73	354
Normal hours worked	35	7.2	321
Overtime hours worked	1.6 (range 0-20)	3.4	314

Correlations

The patterns of relationships between the different variables were examined by Pearson product-moment correlations. These correlations are presented in Table 4.2, which shows most to be significant at $p < .01$ level (two-tailed), although of interest are the size of the standardised coefficients rather than their mere significance levels. The correlations show support at work negatively related to turnover intention, work-life conflict and psychological health. Working hours are positively related to work demands. Both working hours and work demands are positively related to work-life conflict. Poorer psychological health is related to higher turnover. Life control is positively related to life support.

Table 4.2: Correlations among all variables

N = 342	Supp at Wk	Work Hours	Work Dem	Home Dem	Life Cont	Life Supp	Turn Int	WLC	LWC	Psych Health
Work Control	.302**	-.152**	.018	-.059	.260**	.142**	-.117*	-.250**	-.083	-.139*
Support at Work		-.148**	-.126*	-.086	.249**	.266**	-.457**	-.360**	-.128*	-.373**
Working Hours			.470**	.108*	-.195**	-.136*	.017	.493**	.068	.257**
Workload				.262**	-.143**	-.082	.138*	.382**	.086	.367**
Home Demands					-.348**	-.221**	.025	.333**	.174**	.260**
Life Control						.418**	.003	-.284**	-.212**	-.233**
Support at Home							-.104	-.176**	-.232**	-.187**
Turnover Intention								.258**	.070	.363**
Work-Life Conflict									.196**	.455**
Life-Work Conflict										.154*

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Analysis of Variance

Analysis of variance was conducted to examine any differences in age, gender, marital status and whether or not people had childcare responsibilities with regard to the measurement scales. The assumptions of normality, independence and homogeneity of variance for between-subjects ANOVA were met. Childcare responsibilities, gender and marital status, with age as a covariate, were examined with regard to the measurement scales. No differences were found for work support, working hours, work demands, life control, life support, turnover intention, and life-work conflict. The variables that did show significant differences are described below.

Work-Life Conflict

Analysis of variance showed a two-way interaction between gender and whether or not people had childcare responsibilities, F (1, 271) = 4.21, $p <$ .05, Ms = 2.80. Men without children (M = 4.06, SD = 1.77) experienced more work-life conflict than men with children (M = 3.24, SD = 1.57) and than women with (M = 3.26, SD = 1.75) and without (M = 3.31, SD = 1.64) children.

Psychological Health

Analysis of variance showed a main effect for whether or not people had children, F (1, 276) = 4.64, $p <$ .05, Ms = .51. People without children (M = 1.20, SD = .74) had poorer psychological health than those with children (M = 1.08, SD = .73).

Work Control

Analysis of variance showed a two-way interaction between gender and whether or not people had childcare responsibilities, F (1, 271) = 5.99, $p <$ .05, Ms = 2.83. Men (M = 3.98, SD = 1.70) and women (M = 3.82, SD = 1.64) with children felt more in control at work than men (M = 2.66, SD = 1.48) and women without children (M = 3.64, SD = 1.72).

Home Demands

Analysis of variance showed a main effect of age, F (1, 276) = 7.51, p = .007, Ms = 1.45, a main effect of whether or not people had children, F (1, 276) = 10.01, $p <$ .01, Ms = 1.45, and a two-way interaction between gender and whether or not people had childcare responsibilities, F (1, 276) = 8.00, $p <$ .01, Ms = 1.45. The older people were the more demands they had at home. Those with children (M = 4.34, SD = 1.33) had more demands at home than those without children (M = 3.58, SD = 1.21). Women with children (M = 4.78, SD = 1.31) reported more demands at home than men with children (M = 3.80, SD = 1.13).

Hierarchical Multiple Regression

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine the contribution of work control and work support to work-life conflict, turnover intention and psychological health. Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were also conducted to examine the contribution of life control and life support to life-work conflict and psychological health.

Before the regression analysis was performed, the key assumptions in multiple regression analysis were checked. The residuals scatter plot showed that the assumptions of normality, homoscedasticity and linearity were all met. The independent variables were also examined for collinearity. The Durbin-Watson statistic ranged from 1.8 to 2.1, suggesting that the assumption of independence was met in all the regression analyses conducted. Results of the variance inflation factor (all less than 2.0), and collinearity tolerance (all greater than .70) suggested that the estimated βs are well established in the following regression models. No outliers were identified.

Work-life Conflict

To examine the contribution of work control and work support to work-life conflict, age, gender, marital status, childcare responsibilities, working hours and work demands were entered in the first step of the analysis. Work control and work support were entered in the second step. This allowed for an examination of the extent to which control and support accounted for additional variance in the dependent variable, once the effects of the demographic variables and work demands and hours were controlled. Control and support were centred and multiplied and entered into the third step of the analysis to examine the effect of the interaction between control and support on work-life conflict. At step 1, with age, gender, marital status, childcare responsibilities, working hours and work demands in the equation, $R^2 = .32$, $F(6, 285) = 21.90$, $p < .001$. Working hours ($\beta = .41$, $p < .001$) and work demands ($\beta = .24$, $p < .001$) were significant predictors of work-life conflict. At step 2, work control ($\beta = -.12$, $p < .05$) and work support ($\beta = -.27$, $p < .001$) both contributed independently to work-life conflict, $R^2 = .42$, $F(2, 283) = 24.72$, $p < .001$. At step three, the interaction between control and support ($\beta = -.07$, $p = .13$) did not account for any further variance in work-life conflict, $R^2 = .42$, $F(1, 282) = 2.28$, $p = .13$. In the final model, $R = .65$, $F(9, 282) = 22.88$, $p < .001$. Table 4.3 summarises the regression analyses.

Table 4.3: Regression analyses designed to test the prediction of work-life conflict

Order of entry in set	Predictors in set	Cumulative R²	Increment in R² for set	F for increment in R² for set	t for within set predictors	df	Partial correlation (pr)	Squared partial correlation (pr²)
1	Age				-.04		-.002	.000
	Gender				.39		.019	.000
	Marital status				.04		.002	.000
	Childcare	.316	.316	21.90	-.22	6,	-.011	.000
	Working hours				7.00***	285	.343	.118
	Work demands				4.18***		.205	.042
2	Work control				-2.40**		-.109	.012
	Work support	.418	.102	24.72	-5.53***	2, 283	-.251	.063
3	Work control x work support	.422	.005	2.28	-1.51	1, 282	-.068	.005

*** Significant at the 0.001 level
** Significant at the 0.01 level

Life-work Conflict

To examine the contribution of life control and life support to life-work conflict, age, gender, marital status, childcare responsibilities, working hours and home demands were entered in the first step of the analysis. Life control and life support were entered in the second step. This allowed for an examination of the extent to which control and support accounted for additional variance in the dependent variable once the effects of the demographic variables, working hours and life demands were controlled. Control and support were centred and multiplied and entered into the third step of the analysis to examine the effect of the interaction between control and support on life-work conflict. At step 1, with age, gender, marital status, childcare responsibilities, working hours and home demands in the equation, $R^2 = .03$, $F(6, 283) = 1.68$, $p = .13$. Home demands ($\beta = .18$, $p < .01$) were a predictor of life-work conflict. At step 2, life control ($\beta = -.15$, $p < .05$) and life support ($\beta = -.15$, $p < .05$) both accounted for further variance in life-work conflict, $R^2 = .09$, $F(2, 281) = 8.37$, $p < .001$. At step three, the interaction between life control and life support ($\beta = .11$, $p = .08$) did not account for any further variance in life-work conflict, $R^2 = .10$, $F(1, 280) = 3.25$, $p = .07$. In the final model, $R = .32$, $F(9, 280) = 3.42$, $p < .001$. Table 4.4 summarises the regression analyses.

Table 4.4: Regression analyses designed to test the prediction of life-work conflict

Order of entry in set	Predictors in set	Cumulative R²	Increment in R² for set	F for increment in R² for set	t for within set predictors	df	Partial correlation (pr)	Squared partial correlation (pr²)
1	Age				-.48		-.028	.000
	Gender				-1.56		-.191	.037
	Marital				-.14		-.008	.000
	status	.034	.034	1.68		6,		
	Childcare				-.92	283	-.054	.003
	Working hours				-.05		-.003	.000
	Home demands				2.74**		.160	.026
2	Life control	.089	.054	8.37	-2.25*	2,	-.128	.016
	Life support				-2.28*	281	-.130	.017
3	Life control x life support	.099	.010	3.25	1.80	1, 280	.102	.010

** Significant at the 0.01 level
* Significant at the 0.05 level

Work Predictors of Psychological Health

To examine the contribution of work control and work support to psychological health, age, gender, marital status, childcare responsibilities, working hours and work demands were entered in the first step of the analysis. Work control and work support were entered in the second step. This allowed for an examination of the extent to which control and support accounted for additional variance in the dependent variable once the effects of the demographic variables and work demands and hours were controlled. Control and support were centred and multiplied and added in the third step of the analysis to examine the effect of the interaction between work control and work support on psychological health. Work-life conflict was added in the fourth step. At step 1, with age, gender, marital status, childcare responsibilities, working hours and work demands in the equation, $R^2 = .10$, $F (6, 283) = 5.44$, $p < .001$. Marital status ($\beta = -.13$, $p < .05$) and work demands ($\beta = .27$, $p < .001$) were significant work predictors of psychological health. At step 2, work control ($\beta = -.07$, $p = .24$), and work support ($\beta = -.39$, $p < .001$) were added to the equation, $R^2 = .28$, $F (2, 281) = 31.39$, $p < .001$. Work support was a predictor of psychological health. At step three, the interaction between control and support ($\beta = .09$, $p = .10$) did not account for any further variance in psychological health, $R^2 = .27$, $F (1, 280) = 2.69$, $p = .10$. At step 4, when work-life conflict was added, $R^2 = .31$, $F (1, 279) = .12.58$, $p < .001$. At this step work-life conflict ($\beta = .23$, $p < .001$) accounted for an additional 3 per cent of the variance in psychological health once the effect of lifestyle variables and control and support had been accounted for. In the

final model, $R = .55$, $F (10, 279) = 12.27$, $p < .001$. Table 4.5 summarises the regression analyses.

Table 4.5: Regression analyses designed to test the work predictors of psychological health

Order of entry in set	Predictors in set	Cumulative R^2	Increment in R^2 for set	F for increment in R^2 for set	t for within set predictors	df	Partial correlation (pr)	Squared partial correlation (pr^2)
1	Age	.103	.103	5.44	.17	6,	.009	.000
	Gender				1.12	283	.063	.004
	Marital status				-2.01*		-.113	.013
	Childcare				-.12		-.007	.000
	Working hours				.61		.034	.001
	Work demands				4.03***		.227	.052
2	Work control	.267	.164	31.39	-1.17	2, 281	-.060	.004
	Work support				-7.10***		-.362	.131
3	Work control x work support	.274	.007	2.69	1.64	1, 280	.084	.007
4	Work-life conflict	.305	.031	12.58	3.55***	1, 279	.177	.031

*** Significant at the 0.001 level
* Significant at the 0.05 level

Demand-Control-Support Model

Informed by the results of Dollard et al., (2000), in addition to examining the interaction between work control and work support to psychological health, the interaction between control, support and work demands on psychological health was also tested. Age, gender, marital status, childcare responsibilities and working hours were entered in the first step of the analysis. Work demands, work control and work support were entered in the second step. This allowed for an examination of the extent to which work demands, work control and work support accounted for additional variance in the dependent variable once the effects of the demographic variables and working hours were controlled. Work demands, work control and work support were centred and each multiplied to add in the third step of the analysis to examine the effect of the interactions between work control and work support, work control and work demands and work support and work demands on psychological health. The interaction between work control, work support and work demands was added in the fourth

step. At step 1, with age, gender, marital status, childcare responsibilities and working hours in the equation, $R^2 = .05$, $F (5, 284) = 3.11$, $p < .01$. Working hours ($\beta = .18$, $p < .01$) was a significant predictor of psychological health. At step 2, work support ($\beta = -.39$, $p < .001$) and work demands ($\beta = .24$, $p < .001$) contributed significantly to psychological health, $R^2 = .27$, $F (3, 281) = 27.51$, $p < .001$. At step three, the interactions between control x support ($\beta = .09$, $p = .11$), control x demands ($\beta = -.04$, $p = .50$), and support x demands ($\beta = -.04$, $p = .47$), did not account for any further variance in psychological health, $R^2 = .28$, $F (3, 278) = 1.45$, $p = .23$. At step 4, the final interaction between control x support x demands ($\beta = -.08$, $p = .15$) was not significant, $R^2 = .28$, $F (1, 277) = 2.10$, $p = .15$. In the final model, $R = .53$, $F (12, 277) = 9.15$, $p < .001$. Table 4.6 summarises the regression analyses.

Table 4.6: Regression analyses designed to test the demand-control-support model for psychological health

Order of entry in set	Predictors in set	Cumulative R^2	Increment in R^2 for set	F for increment in R^2 for set	t for within set predictors	df	Partial correlation (pr)	Squared partial correlation (pr²)
1	Age	.052	.052	3.11	.19	5, 284	.011	.000
	Gender				1.79		.103	.011
	Marital status				-1.81		-.105	.011
	Childcare				.50		.029	.000
	Working hours				3.05**		.176	.031
2	Work demands	.267	.215	27.51	3.98***	3, 281	.203	.041
	Work control				-1.17		-.060	.004
	Work support				-7.10***		-.362	.131
3	Control x support	.278	.011	1.45	1.61	3, 278	.082	.007
	Control x demands				-.67		-.034	.001
	Support x demands				-.73		-.037	.001
4	Control x support x demands	.284	.005	2.10	-1.45	1, 277	-.074	.005

*** Significant at the 0.001 level
* Significant at the 0.05 level

Life Predictors of Psychological Health

To examine the contribution of life control and life support to psychological health, age, gender, marital status, childcare responsibilities, working hours and home demands were entered in the first step of the analysis. Life control and life support were entered in the

second step. This allowed for an examination of the extent to which control and support accounted for additional variance in the dependent variable once the effects of the demographic variables working hours and home demands were controlled. Life control and life support were centred and multiplied and added in the third step of the analysis to examine the effect of the interaction between life control and life support on psychological health. Life-work conflict was added in the fourth step. At step 1, with age, gender, marital status, childcare responsibilities, working hours and home demands in the equation, $R^2 = .11$, $F(6, 283) = 5.71$, $p < .001$. Marital status ($\beta = -.16$, $p < .05$), working hours ($\beta = .14$, $p < .05$) and home demands ($\beta = .26$, $p < .001$) were all significant life predictors of psychological health. At step 2, when life control ($\beta = -.08$, $p = .22$) and life support ($\beta = -.17$, $p < .01$) were added to the equation, $R^2 = .15$, $F(2, 281) = 6.37$, $p < .01$. Life support significantly predicted psychological health. At step three, the interaction between control and support ($\beta = -.021$, $p = .72$) did not account for any further variance in psychological health, $R^2 = .15$, $F(1, 280) = .129$, $p = .72$. At step 4, life-work conflict was not a significant predictor of psychological health, $R^2 = .15$, $F(1, 279) = .40$, $p = .53$. In the final model, $R = .39$, $F(10, 279) = 4.86$, $p < .001$. Table 4.7 summarises the regression analyses.

Table 4.7: Regression analyses designed to test the life predictors of psychological health

Order of entry in set	Predictors in set	Cumulative R^2	Increment in R^2 for set	F for increment in R^2 for set	t for within set predictors	df	Partial correlation (pr)	Squared partial correlation (pr^2)
1	Age	.108	.108	5.71	.98	6, 283	.055	.003
	Gender				.89		.050	.003
	Marital status				-2.32*		-.130	.017
	Childcare				-.80		-.045	.002
	Working hours				2.30*		.129	.017
	Home demands				4.22***		.237	.056
2	Life control	.147	.039	6.37	-1.23	2, 281	-.068	.005
	Life support				-2.62**		-.144	.021
3	Life control x life support	.147	.000	.129	-.36	1, 280	-.020	.000
4	Life-work conflict	.148	.001	.404	.64	1, 279	.035	.001

*** Significant at the 0.001 level
** Significant at the 0.01 level
* Significant at the 0.05 level

Turnover Intention

To examine the contribution of work control and work support to turnover intention, age, gender, marital status, childcare responsibilities, working hours and work demands were entered in the first step of the analysis. Work control and work support were entered into the second step. This allowed for an examination of the extent to which control and support accounted for additional variance in the dependent variable once the effects of the demographic variables and work demands and hours were controlled. Control and support were centred and multiplied and added in the third step of the analysis to examine the effect of the interaction between work control and work support on turnover intention. Work-life conflict was added in the fourth step. At step 1, with age, gender, marital status, childcare responsibilities, working hours and work demands in the equation, $R^2 = .08$, F (6, 284) = 3.97, $p < .01$. Childcare responsibilities ($\beta = -.23$, $p < .01$) and work demands ($\beta = .25$, $p < .001$) were significant predictors of turnover intention. At step 2, with work control ($\beta = .05$, $p = .39$) and work support ($\beta = -.47$, $p < .001$) added to the equation, $R^2 = .28$, F (2, 282) = 38.89, $p < .001$. Work support was a significant predictor of turnover intention. At step three, the interaction between control and support ($\beta = .05$, $p = .34$) was not significant, $R^2 = .28$, F (1, 281) = .94, $p = .34$. At step 4, work-life conflict ($\beta = .08$, $p = .19$) did not contribute to any further variance in turnover intention, $R^2 = .28$, F (1, 280) = 1.69, $p = .19$. In the final model, $R = .53$, F (10, 280) = 11.08, $p < .001$. Table 4.8 summarises the regression analysis.

Table 4.8: Regression analyses designed to test the prediction of turnover intention

Order of entry in set	Predictors in set	Cumulative R²	Increment in R² for set	F for increment in R² for set	t for within set predictors	df	Partial correlation (pr)	Squared partial correlation (pr²)
1	Age	.077	.077	3.97	.17	6, 284	.010	.000
	Gender				-1.01		-.058	.003
	Marital status				-.11		-.006	.000
	Childcare							
	Working hours				-2.78**		-.158	.025
					-1.49		-.085	.007
	Work demands				3.78***		.216	.047
2	Work control	.277	.199	38.89	.88	2, 282	.044	.002
	Work support				-8.62***		-.436	.190
3	Work control x work support	.279	.002	.94	.97	1, 281	.049	.002
4	Work-life conflict	.284	.004	1.69	1.30	1, 280	.066	.004

*** Significant at the 0.001 level
** Significant at the 0.01 level

Discussion

The purpose of this chapter was to examine control and support as independent and interactive predictors of work-life and life-work conflict, and, in turn, work-life and life-work conflicts as predictors of turnover intention and psychological health. In addition, and driven by the findings of Dollard et al., (2000), this chapter also examined the demand-control-support model by investigating the interaction between work control, work support and job demands on psychological health.

Work-life Conflict

Working hours and work demands predicted work-life conflict, a finding that not only indicates the detrimental effect hours and work demands have on work-life balance, but one that also relates to the work intensification argument (Green, 2001). This debate focuses on time spent at work versus effort applied to the job, arguing that increased efforts are often associated with perceived stress. This supports findings from previous research (Frone, et. al., 1997; Major, et al., 2002; O'Driscoll, et al., 1992; Parasuraman, et al., 1996) which found that higher job demands, including high work time commitments and high workloads lead to higher levels of work-family conflict. In turn, this increased work-family conflict led to greater psychological strain and higher life stress.

Whilst working hours and work demands are important to the amount of work-life conflict experienced, control and support, independently, both predicted work-life conflict over and above working hours and work demands. These findings suggest that if employees work long hours in a job with high demands but feel a sense of control and support at work, they will experience less work-life conflict than they would if they did not have control or support at work. This clearly highlights the importance of the effects of control and support on individuals in the workplace. Not only is this is in keeping with the work of Bailyn (1997) who suggested that a sense of control at work allows employees to make changes in their environment, but also with research that has also shown work-life conflict to be reduced when employees have supportive work supervisors (Allen, 2001; Erdwins et al., 2001; Fu & Shaffer, 2001; Jansen et al., 2003; McManus et al., 2002, Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Furthermore, a supportive organisation has been shown to reduce work-family conflict and turnover intention (Allen, 2001). Findings from Edwards and Rothbard (2000) found that support from colleagues at work resulted in positive mood, whereas lack of these rewards resulted in negative mood and lack of satisfaction.

Life-work Conflict

Home demands predicted life-work conflict, demonstrating, as with work, that demands at home make a difference to the amount of conflict experienced in life outside work. However, over and above home demands, control and support predicted life-work conflict, concurring with findings that social support from within the family has consistently been shown to reduce family-work conflict (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Erdwins et al., 2001; Fu & Shaffer, 2001; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Again, as in the work environment, this shows the importance of the effects of control and support to people's lives.

This chapter shows work and life as two separate constructs, supporting Frone, et al., (1992a), who depicted work-family conflict and family-work conflict to be separate. Although both direct and indirect relationships have been found between work-family conflict and family work conflict (Frone, et al., 1992a; Frone, et al., 1997) the two constructs are distinct (Frone, et al., 1992a) with work role expectations related to work-family conflict and family role expectations related to family-work conflict (e.g. Carlson, 1999; Frone, et al., 1992a; Frone & Yardley, 1996). Further, demands of the work role have been shown to intrude more into the family role than the other way round (Bernas & Major, 2000, Eagle, et al., 1997; Parasuraman, et al., 1992), with incidents of work-family conflict being cited three times as often as incidents of family-work conflict (Frone, et al., 1992b).

Psychological Health

Marital status and work demands were predictors of psychological health and work support was a significant predictor of psychological health once these variables were accounted for. Thus while having high levels of work demands result in poorer psychological health, being married was related to better psychological health. The findings for support again shows its importance to well-being in the workplace, a finding which is in keeping with previous research that has shown lack of workplace support to lead to psychological health problems for employees (Dollard at al., 2000; Guelzow, Bird & Koball, 1991; Karasek & Theorell,1990; Ross & Mirowsky, 1988). It is also suggestive of support at work having a positive effect on self-efficacy, which, in turn, offsets mental strain and an inability to cope with high job demands (Maslach, 1998; Dollard, et al., 2000).

In addition to the effects of work demands and support at work, results showed work-life conflict to be a predictor of psychological health. Several other studies have shown psychological health problems to be related to, or to result from, high work-family conflict (e.g. Allen, et al., 2000; Anderson, et al., 2002; Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Frone, et al., 1993; Grandey & Cropanzano, 1999; Greenhaus, et al., 1997; Houston & Waumsley, 2003;

Kelloway, et al., 1999; Kinnunen & Gerris, 1996; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Parasurman & Simmers, 2001; Senécal, et al., 2001).

The three-way interaction between work demands, work control and work support did not predict psychological health. This was contrary to the results of Dollard, et al., (2000) who showed the interaction of job demands, control and support to influence psychological health and job satisfaction. However, other findings for this three-way interaction are mixed (de Lange, et al., 2003), although Karasek (1989) argues that focusing on statistical interactions "is not the main issue" (p. 143).

Marital status, working hours and home demands were all life predictors of psychological health. Thus, being married was related to better psychological health, whilst having high demands at work and at home was related to poorer psychological health. Over and above these, the importance of support was again shown with support as a significant life predictor of psychological health. These findings show that support in life outside work is as important a factor to well-being as is support in the work place.

Turnover Intention
Work demands and having childcare responsibilities predicted turnover intention. These two factors have an effect on the decisions of employees to leave their organisation in that the greater the work demands, the higher the intention to leave, and having childcare makes it less likely that individuals will leave. Again though, over and above childcare and work demands, it was support that predicted turnover intention. The less support experienced at work, the more likely an employee is to leave their organisation. That employees' decisions to leave their organisation are affected not just by work demands but by the amount of support they have at work is an important indicator to organisations, since turnover produces significant administrative and training costs when employees have to be replaced (DTI, 2000). Control was not significant, indicating that control is not as important to individuals when making decisions to leave their organisation as the amount of support they have. Although previous work has shown turnover as an outcome of poor work-life balance (e.g. Greenhaus, et al., 2001; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999), work-life conflict did not predict turnover intention in this study.

Men and Women and the effects of Parenthood

Psychological Health

Men and women with children had better psychological health and felt more in control at work than those without children. As there was no significant effect of age, this finding cannot be explained by life stage, which might otherwise argue that individuals with children are more settled and therefore more involved in their working role or that individuals with young families early in their careers are work orientated with a sense of control over their aims.

Work-life and Life-work Conflicts

This study also showed that men without children experienced more work-life conflict than men or women with children. These findings support those of Houston and Waumsley (2003) and Parasurman and Simmers (2001) who found that men reported higher levels of both work-family and family-work conflict than women, but are contrary to the findings of Beatty (1996), Hochschild (1997) and Kossek, et al., (2001), who showed that people with children have more demands made on them than those without children. It is possible that work demands impact on life more greatly for men without children perhaps because they don't have outside commitments considered worthy of support in the way that children are so considered in some workplaces. Another explanation for these findings may be that early in their careers men are investing long hours and devoting time to work, creating conflict between work and life outside work. It may also be that the use of the work-life scale was able to tease out these reported differences in a way that use of the work-family scale might not have done. Conversely though, it may be that the use of the work-life scale resulted in an under reporting of work-family conflict for men and women. It is noteworthy that there are no differences shown for women. This may be explained by differing attitudes held by men and women about work. Despite an increased number of women participating in the workforce, evidence continues to suggest that women carry the primary responsibility for family work (Cinamon & Rich, 2002; White, 2004). This may be because, although there have been many changes in actual gender roles in recent years as more women have entered the workforce (McRae, 2003), research by Warin, et al., (1999) has shown attitudes toward gender roles to differ little from a decade ago, with men still placing a strong emphasis on the provider role and women on the social side of work. White (2004) suggests that because of the increase in dual-earner couples, men work long hours on paid work with women working shorter hours in paid work but retaining the majority of the domestic and caring responsibilities. In keeping with this explanation, many women with caring responsibilities work part-time (Stevens, et al., 2004; White, 2004) or spend periods of time out of the labour market (Houston & Marks, 2005), whereas men continue to work full-time.

A further explanation for the gender differences found herein comes from Pleck's (1977) influential model of the work-family role system, which holds that family is allowed to intrude more into women's working lives than into men's. This suggests an expectation and perhaps acceptance by women, rather than men, that this spillover will occur. Frone, et al., (1992b) failed to confirm Pleck's hypothesis, finding work-family conflict to be more common than family-work conflict for both males and females, but this does suggest that family boundaries in general are more permeable to work demands than vice versa. Conversely, Duxbury and Higgins (1991) and Kinnunen and Gerris (1996) found some support for Pleck's view in that men were more likely to allow work conflict to spill over into the home than women. Beatty (1996) also found some gender differences in relation to work-life conflict and psychological health, with depression being significantly related to work-family conflict for women with children but not to those without. The same author also found work-family conflict was associated with fewer negative health effects for women without children than for women with children.

Despite the significant gender differences found in this study, it is noteworthy that the effects of control and support accounted for further variance in the regression models. Thus, whilst there are clear differences in men and women's experience of conflict, control and support play an important role in determining the level of conflict experienced.

Theoretical Implications

The data did not provide support for a three-way interaction between control, support and demands in relation to psychological health. However, evidence with respect to this interaction effect is mixed (de Lange, et al., 2003). Whilst Karasek's model has provided the theoretical basis for the majority of research on control and support in the workplace, it has generally received only weak support (Ganster & Fusilier, 1989; Terry & Jimmieson, 1999). Several explanations have been offered as to why the interactive effects of the expanded three-dimensional demand-control-support model have also not been upheld. One explanation is that the way in which the job demand construct is conceptualised may confound the interactive relationship (Wall, et al., 1996). There has also been some debate in the literature that the model is only supported when interaction effects are shown. Karasek (1989) argues that focusing on statistical interactions "is not the main issue" (p. 143) and that control and support are important to well-being and productivity (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). Some empirical studies have shown interactive effects between demand and control predicting psychological strain (de Jong & Kompier, 1997; Schnall, Landsbergis & Baker, 1994) and the interaction of job demands, control and support influencing psychological health and job satisfaction (Dollard, et al., 2000).

The findings that less control in the workplace predicts greater work-life conflict, that more work-life conflict predicts poorer psychological health, and that support predicts better psychological health, not only add support for Karasek and Theorell (1990) contentions about the importance of control and support to well-being, but also offer support to Behson's (2005) findings. This author showed that employee autonomy and supportive supervisors decrease employee stress, work-family conflict, and turnover intentions. Whilst the findings from this study did not offer full support to the findings of Dollard, et al., (2000), who showed that jobs combining high demands, low control and low support produced the lowest levels of satisfaction in workers, they do illustrate the importance of work demands, support and control to turnover intention, conflict and psychological health. Of importance here is that whilst the Analysis of Variance showed some gender differences in work-life conflict and psychological health, gender in the regression models did not account for a significant amount of the variance in work-life conflict, life-work conflict, turnover intention, or psychological health once control and support were added to the equation. This indicates strong support for control and support driving the findings herein over and above demographic variables.

That the regression models found work support to be predictive of work-life conflict, turnover intention, and psychological health, whilst support at home was predictive of life-work conflict and psychological health, is indicative of the importance placed on support by respondents in chapter two, and also highlights a number of theoretical implications. Primarily, these findings suggest that the concept of support is, as Thoits (1995) describes, a social "fund" from which people may draw to help them cope when handling stressors. In addition, the findings in this study also suggest that perceived support can be broadly defined as "the resources provided by other persons" (Cohen & Syme, 1985, p.4). The findings support the two dominant models of social support (Cohen & Wills, 1985): The 'main effect model', involving large social networks which have positive effects on well being unrelated to stress, providing structural support, and the 'buffering' model, depicting the general effects of a supportive working environment, which may have a positive effect on any possible conflict resulting from work. The buffering effect may also explain the importance placed on support at home.

The findings herein also support and enhance the findings of previous research (e.g. Allen, 2001; Behson, 2002a, 2005; Frone, et al., 1997; Lobel & Kossek, 1996; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 1997; Thompson, et al., 1999), which suggests that informal means of organisational support (e.g. organisational culture, supportive supervisors, and increased employee autonomy) can play an important role in employee ability to balance work and family. This study provides strong empirical evidence in favour of support in the workplace

leading to reduced work-life conflict, reduced turnover, and good psychological health, and support at home leading to reduced life-work conflict and better psychological health. In doing so, this study supports the contention that unless organisations are concerned for employee well-being, implementation of work-family policies alone will probably fail to generate beneficial effects for either employees or organisations. As Thompson et al., (1999) stated, "despite formal policies and programs designed to help individuals balance work and family, it appears that unsupportive cultures and managers who enforce the norms associated with such cultures may undermine the potential effectiveness of these programs." (p. 393).

Applied Implications

The implications of these findings are noteworthy in that the results can be applied to organisations that are concerned about work-life balance. A sense of support and control are two critical psychological states identified by this study and are at least two of the means by which personal and work factors may affect work-family conflict. As such, they can be used by organisations and managers when planning programs and interventions to reduce work-life conflict for employees. Specific interventions that enhance employees' sense of control and of being supported might be created that would reduce employees' work-life conflict. The major implication from this study is that a reduction in stress from improved psychological health, thereby increasing productivity, might be achieved in organisations, not necessarily by decreasing job demands, but by increasing levels of control and support.

In previous research, high levels of psychological strain have been found to increase the duration of absences (Eagle, et al., 1998). Kossek and Ozeki (1999) also found that lack of care related support was associated with absence. Thomas and Ganster (1995) showed lack of work support to be associated with more depression in the workforce. Since stress costs the health service two billion pounds and industry a further five billion pounds a year (Department of Health, 2002) and absenteeism costs UK employers 567 pounds a year per employee (CIPD, 2004), fiscal savings might be made in the workplace by paying attention to support systems. This study would suggest that ensuring employees have support and a sense of control in the workplace, ensuring working hours are not too long nor work demands too high, will reduce work-life conflict, reduce turnover intention and improve psychological health. This, then, will have a positive effect on productivity.

Bailyn (1997), Thompson et al., (1999) and Allen (2001), who discuss the importance of work cultures, may be correct in that policies and practices may not be sufficient to create work-life balance for employees. The study herein indicates that having control over working hours

and work demands, as well as having support from managers and colleagues, may be as beneficial to creating a sense of work-life balance and as having a positive effect on psychological health, as do policies in the workplace. It may be that only organisations that take the time to create workplace cultures and management styles that are truly supportive of employees are likely to see results from their formal work-family programs. This suggests that, to be effective, family supportive policies need to be complemented by the organisation's informal processes. Interventions must create psychological changes in employees such as a greater sense of support and a greater sense of control.

Given the negative consequences of long working hours and heavy work demands on work-life conflict and psychological health, in contrast to the positive outcomes of support and control at work, it is important to further examine attitudes towards differing working hours. This will provide a richer insight into the ways in which hours of work impact on people's lives. The following chapter investigates attitudes towards long hours and flexible working hours.

Chapter 5

Long Hours, Flexible Working and Work Performance – What do Tomorrow's Managers Think?

Introduction

As described in chapter 1, the UK government launched a campaign in 2000 to encourage employers to introduce flexible and family-friendly working practices. One key aspect of the campaign was to encourage flexible working as part of HR policy for all employees, not just those with caring responsibilities. However, in April 2003, a legislative measure was introduced giving parents with children aged under six, or disabled children under 18, the right to request a flexible working pattern and their employers a duty to consider their applications seriously. To reiterate, the findings of the WLB1 (Hogarth, et al., 2000) and WLB2 (Woodland, et al., 2003; Stevens, et al., 2004) studies (that undertook to monitor attitudes, demand and uptake of work-life balance policies and to examine the impact of such policies on business) suggest that, whilst there is much support for the concept of work-life balance (Woodland, et al., 2003; Stevens, et al., 2004), flexible working is viewed with suspicion amongst those who pursue a successful career path, and a working culture of long hours in the U.K. prevails (Powell, 1997; Hogarth, et al., 2000; Stevens, et al., 2004; Woodland, et al., 2003). In order to investigate attitudes towards flexible working and long hours at work among undergraduate students, many of whom are managers of the future, the study in this chapter examined and compared attitudes towards men and women who used flexible working practices with those who worked long or structured working hours. It also compared attitudes towards employees as a function of the reason as to why they used flexible working practices.

Attitudes towards Men and Women who use Flexible Working Arrangements

Kinnunen and Gerris (1996) suggested that work and family represent two of the most central realms of adult life and, for many employed adults, balancing the demands made by these two areas is their most important daily task. The conflict that develops from juggling multiple roles can have a detrimental effect on performance in both domains (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999). In addition, business needs to draw on a deep and diverse pool of skills and experience. As the number of dual-earner and single-parent households continues to grow, the need for both men and women to strike a balance between home and work becomes an important issue in order that they are effective workers, effective parents and maintain psychological and physical health. Thus, as was suggested in chapter 1, there is a growing interest within human resource management in helping employees balance their work and

their life outside work in order to attract and retain the best people to enhance their organisation (Lewis & Cooper, 1995). Flexible working patterns have been identified as one of the key ingredients of the labour market (Confederation of British Industry, 2000) and one of the most popular working benefits to help employees with work-life balance (Allen, 2001). An international survey of managers found that balancing the needs of work and personal life was selected as the most or second most important attribute in a job (Gemini, 1998).

At this juncture, and to put this chapter into context, it is worth summarising the findings from the most recent UK government surveys shown in chapter 1. In keeping with the value placed on work-life balance, findings from these surveys showed there to be a high level of support for it, with 94 per cent of employers (Woodland, et al., 2003) and 95 per cent of employees (Stevens, et al., 2004) agreeing that 'people work best when they can balance their work and other aspects of their lives'. Amongst employers, only 3 per cent felt that work-life balance practices had a negative effect on employee motivation and turnover, and only 12 per cent felt that they had a negative effect on productivity (Woodland, et al., 2003). However the employee survey (Stevens, et al., 2004) revealed clear anxiety about the impact of flexible working on job security and career prospects. Fifty-one percent of employees agreed that working reduced hours would negatively affect their career – and only 38 per cent disagreed. Not being able to work beyond their contracted hours was seen as having a negative effect on career by 42 per cent, as was leaving to look after a child (37 per cent) and working from home (25 per cent). Men were more likely than women to consider that flexible-working patterns would damage their career prospects and job security.

These rather contradictory findings are consistent with those from recent academic research in the UK. In an analysis of the Workplace Employment Relations Survey (WERS) (Cully, et al., 1998), Dex and Smith (2002) found that family-friendly policies were associated with employee commitment and work performance. Despite a common belief from employers that flexible working among their senior executives cannot work, with the knock-on effect that often senior managers regard making such a request as 'career death', the findings of Janman, et al., (2001), who examined flexible working in managerial roles, showed that managers of both job sharers and flexible workers rated them as providing a higher level of output than traditional full-time employers. As was highlighted in chapter 1, this study demonstrates not only the business benefit of flexible work over more traditional roles, but challenges the myth that job sharing has traditionally been regarded as more suitable for 'lower grade' positions. In a survey of over 1500 members of the Amalgamated Engineering and Electrical Union (now known as AMICUS), Houston and Waumsley (2003) found that 72 per cent of employees said that they would use some form of flexible working if it became

available, and women and those with caring responsibilities were most positive about flexible working. However, whilst the majority of men and women in this study thought that flexible working was beneficial to both employers and employees, there was, as has been discussed in chapter 1, a high level of concern that flexible working would damage their promotion prospects and their relationship with their colleagues.

In the USA, family-friendly employment is entirely at the discretion of employers and thus its availability could be argued to be purely a product of organisational culture. In this context, a high level of uptake when it is available might be expected. However, as chapter 1 has already shown, research evidence still suggests reluctance on the part of employees. The study of eighty major American employers by Galinsky, Bond & Friedman (1993), found that less than 2 per cent of their employees made use of flexible programmes. Perlow's (1995) study of engineers found that employees were reluctant to take advantage of flexible working benefits because of fear of damage to career prospects. Chapter 1 also showed, however, that Thompson, et al., (1999) did find that employees in organisations where there was a positive work-family culture had a higher uptake of provision, findings that were echoed by Kossek & Ozeki (1999). These authors conducted a review of studies that examined the effects of family-friendly policies on a variety of outcomes. They concluded that work-family policies result in higher levels of actual individual productivity and positive attitudes to the employer/organisation. However, they also found mixed evidence for the impact of flexible working on turnover and organisational commitment. These psychological measures seem to be more influenced by traditional notions of long hours demonstrating commitment.

A recent UK study (Bond & Wise, 2003) found that the management of family leave policies was one of the increasing number of practices that are devolved to line managers, and managerial discretion was often a critical part of the formal provision within an organisation. However, they also found that most operated with little training and there was a low level of awareness of recent statutory changes in relation to parental leave. Whilst it has been shown that flexibility in the workplace reduces turnover and increases commitment (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999), and managerial support for workplace flexibility encourages a working culture which enhances their use (Thompson, et al., 1999), decisions about the implementation of flexible working have considerable impact on individual managers. As has been discussed (chapter 1) the 'work disruption theory' (Powell & Mainiero, 1999) posits flexible working arrangements to make managers' jobs more complex and difficult by placing demands that are over and above traditional supervisory demands. In the context of research evidence that shows that managers are primarily rewarded for the results of their work, rather than for any concern shown to their employees, Powell and Mainiero (1999) argued that it was not

surprising that managers tend to focus on their own short-term best interests when making decisions about the implementation of the organisation's flexible working policies.   The authors of both these studies raise concern about the inevitable consequences of this on the consistency of application within any one organisation.   Inconsistency of implementation of flexible working practices is one possible explanation for findings from the WLB1 survey (Hogarth, et al., 2000) where 43 per cent of employers thought flexible working was unfair to some staff and 26 per cent of employees believed that flexible working practices were unfair to people like them.

The current situation in the UK appears to be one in which employees recognise the benefits of flexible working in terms of a better balance in their lives and employers recognise some overall benefits of flexibility. However at the level of individual managers there can be conflicting pressures of implementing HR policies and actual delivery. In addition, there is considerable concern about the conflict between work-life balance and how the individual feels s/he will be perceived as a colleague and employee. Perhaps these contradictions in the way people feel about work-life balance and the use of flexible working explain why full-time employees in the United Kingdom work the longest hours of any European country (Kodz, et al., 2002), as was depicted in detail in chapter 1.

There are clearly conflicting cognitions held about flexible working options. Succinctly, employees see their worth in terms of a better balance in their lives, but as damaging to career prospects (Perlow, 1995; Powell, 1997, Houston & Waumsley, 2003). Long hours and presenteeism are seen as beneficial to career enhancement (Worrall & Cooper, 1999). Employers and managerial staff see flexible hours as a way to improve morale and increase productivity (Lewis & Cooper, 1995), but also as difficult and time consuming to manage (Powell & Mainiero, 1999). In addition, there is considerable concern about the conflict between work-life balance and how individuals feel they might be perceived as colleagues and employees (Hogarth, et al., 2000).

In order to understand more about perceptions of flexible working, this study asked raters to evaluate a selection of employees. The aim was to control the type and amount of information available to raters in order to gain a clearer sense of how employees are perceived as a result of differing work patterns and interests/responsibilities outside work. Final year undergraduate students – *tomorrow's managers* – were used as the raters in the study. This population all had work history but were anticipated to be more objective judges than those who were already experienced in a particular work culture or sector. However, as research has shown, students find flexible working useful to facilitate combining work with

study (Purcell, et al., 1999), implying that students are aware of the benefits of flexible working. As this generation have been identified as having a primary aim of 'working to live' rather than 'living to work' (Guest & Sturges, 1999; Sturgess, et al., 2000), it was also expected that they might have more positive views about flexible working than *today's managers.*

The study examined attitudes towards men and women who used different working styles; long hours, regular hours from 9 to 5, and a variety of full-time flexible working options in order to fulfil personal and caring responsibilities. A series of vignettes was created describing men and women who worked different patterns of hours for a fictitious 'successful' company. No information was given about their work performance, only about their working patterns and reasons for using these patterns. With the exception of the long hours worker, all worked the same number of actual hours.

In the context of much of the literature described above, the first hypothesis was that individuals who worked long hours would be perceived to have better work performance when compared to those who either worked regular hours or who worked flexible hours. Following Hogarth, et al.'s (2000) findings that a substantial number of employers felt flexible working practices were unfair to some staff, the second hypothesis predicted that those who worked regular hours would be perceived with greater approval as work colleagues than those who worked long hours or some kind of flexible working option. In the context of the mixed results of the review by Kossek and Ozeki (1999), the relationship between working patterns and perceptions of turnover intention was also investigated. In addition, it was considered that there might be a hierarchy of justifications for working flexibly and to this end, the study also examined relative evaluations in the context of reasons for working flexibly. Finally, it was also expected that the raters would recognise the negative effects of working long hours and rate these employees as having low levels of work-life balance.

As flexible working has a higher uptake and is perceived more positively by women (Houston & Waumsely, 2003), the effects of gender of both participant and target on the evaluations were also examined.

In order to examine the reliability of scales in this study, a pilot study was carried out before the main study was conducted.

Pilot Study

Participants

Participants were 27 undergraduate students from the University of Kent. The sample consisted of 8 males and 19 females, with a mean age of 20 years.

Design

Two questionnaire surveys containing descriptions of six employees, three male and three female, each using different working practices (flexible working to either look after a child, an elderly parent, play sport, play music; working regular hours; working long hours) were conducted. Survey one depicted male employees working flexible hours for childcare, and to play music, and working regular hours; and depicted female employees working flexible hours to play hockey and for elder care, and working long hours. Survey two swapped gender within the working scenario. Except for the individual who worked long hours, all worked the same actual number of hours in a week, but varied in their construction of those hours.

Procedure

Participants were asked to read all six descriptions and then rate each employee on a series of 7-point Likert scales (1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely) relating to work performance, turnover intention, colleagues' attitude, and work-life balance.

Factor Analysis

Factor analysis using principle components with Oblimin rotation was conducted to confirm the underlying dimensions in the employee profile scale. This supported the four-factor solution: Work Performance, Turnover Intention, Colleagues' Attitude and Work-Life Balance.

Evaluation Scales

Work Performance was measured using 10 items, (e.g. John's work productivity is above average). Cronbach's Alpha = .72.

Turnover Intention was measured using 2 items, (e.g. Jane will leave the company within the next two years). Cronbach's Alpha = .68.

Colleagues' Attitudes was measured using 2 items, (e.g. Sarah's colleagues enjoy working with her). Cronbach's Alpha = .67.

Work-Life Balance was measured using 3 items, (e.g. Matt is happy with his lifestyle). Cronbach's Alpha = .66.

On the basis of this small pilot study, scales were considered reliable enough to proceed on to the main study without dropping items from all scales except work performance. In order to capture a full range of work performance, a ten-item scale was used with a wide range of performance measures. To reduce this scale, the top five loading items from factor analysis were chosen for the main study. Reliability of these five items was .70, which was considered reliable enough to proceed. In order that any perceived differences by male and female raters toward male and female targets using different working styles could be measured, two questionnaires were again used, crossing gender within scenarios.

Main Study
Method

Participants

Participants were 266 undergraduate students who completed the questionnaires as part of the research participation scheme at the University of Kent. There was therefore a response rate of 100 percent. The sample consisted of 97 males and 169 females, with a mean age of 20 years. Average work experience was between one and two years of part-time work.

Design and Procedure

A questionnaire survey containing descriptions in vignettes of six employees, each using different working practices, was conducted. In order that any perceived differences by male and female participants toward male and female targets using different working styles could be measured, two questionnaires were used, crossing gender within scenarios. An example copy of the questionnaire can be found at appendix 4.2. Participants were asked to read all six descriptions of employees. The descriptions were of individuals who either worked long hours, worked regular hours, or worked flexible hours either to look after a child, an elderly parent, to play sport, or to play music. Except for the individual who worked long hours, all worked the same actual number of hours in a week, but varied in their construction of those hours. Participants were then asked to rate each employee on a series of 7-point Likert scales (1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely) relating to performance at work, turnover intention, colleagues' approval, and work-life balance.

All ethical guidelines set out by the British Psychological Society were followed. At the beginning of each questionnaire, there were clear instructions about confidentiality and

anonymity. It was also made clear that completion of the questionnaire was not compulsory. No formal de-brief was provided because no active deception was used but all questionnaires contained contact details of the researcher for those who wanted to ask questions about the study. All respondents were thanked for their participation.

Evaluation Scales

Work Performance was measured using 5 items, (e.g. John's work productivity is above average). Cronbach's Alpha = .86. The higher the mean response, the better work performance was perceived to be.

Turnover Intention was measured using 2 items, (e.g. Jane will leave the company within the next two years). Cronbach's Alpha = .75. The higher the mean response, the more likely the individual was perceived to leave the organisation.

Colleagues' Attitudes was measured using 2 items, (e.g. Sarah's colleagues enjoy working with her). Cronbach's Alpha = .73. The higher the mean response, the more positively colleagues were perceived to feel toward the individual.

Work-Life Balance was measured using 3 items, (e.g. Matt will suffer stress-related illness). Cronbach's Alpha = .71. The higher the mean response, the better work-life balance was perceived to be (the individual has less work-life conflict).

Respondents were also asked to complete their demographic details at the end of the questionnaire, which included age, gender, whether they worked full-time or part-time, and years of working experience.

Results

The first hypothesis predicted that individuals who worked long hours would be perceived to have better work performance when compared to those who either worked regular hours or worked flexible hours. The second hypothesis predicted that those who worked regular hours would be perceived with greater approval as work colleagues than those who worked long hours or some kind of flexible working option. The relationship between working patterns and perceptions of turnover intention was investigated. Whether or not there was a hierarchy of justifications for working flexibly was also examined. It was expected that employees working long hours would be seen as having low levels of work-life balance. The effects of gender of both participant and target on the evaluations were also examined.

Factor Analysis

Factor analysis using principle components with Oblimin Rotation was conducted to confirm the underlying dimensions in the employee profile scale. This supported the four-factor solution: Work Performance (Eigenvalue = 6.43, % of variance explained = 37.83), Turnover Intention (Eigenvalue = 1.79, % of variance explained = 10.52), Colleagues' Attitudes (Eigenvalue = 1.08, % of variance explained = 6.33), Work-Life Balance (Eigenvalue = .96, % of variance explained = 5.62).

Analysis of Variance and t-tests

The assumptions of normality, independence and homogeneity of variance for mixed ANOVA were met. The additional assumption of compound symmetry for repeated-measures ANOVA was violated for 'work performance' (Mauchley's W = .89, chi-squared = 30.42, (2), $p < .001$), 'turnover intention' (Mauchley's W = .85, chi-squared = 41.19, (2), $p < .001$ 'colleagues attitudes' (Mauchley's W = .81, chi-squared = 55.05, (2), $p < .001$) and 'work-life balance' (Mauchley's W = .81, chi-squared = 54.93, (2), $p < .001$). This was dealt with by adjusting the degrees of freedom, thus losing power (Howell, 1992). To this end, the Lower Bound epsilon, as the most conservative estimate of all the epsilons, is reported.

Analysis of variance showed a main effect of 'work performance', $F(1, 262) = 228.72$, $p < .001$, $Ms = 2.01$; a main effect of 'turnover intention', $F(1, 262) = 11.72$, $p = .001$, $Ms = 3.37$; a main effect of 'colleagues attitudes', $F(1, 262) = 7.296$, $p = .007$, $Ms = 2.589$; and a main effect of 'work-life balance', $F(1, 262) = 334.13$, $p < .001$, $Ms = 3.229$. A three-way interaction effect was found between turnover intention, gender of participant and gender of target, $F(1, 262) = 3.88$, $p = .05$, $Ms = 3.67$. Post-hoc paired t-tests with Holm's Sequential Bonferoni adjustment were used to ensure a family wise alpha of .05.

Cohen's Effect Size (d)

Even though statistical significance is an important component of psychological research, it may not say very much about the magnitude or the importance of any results. In essence, statistical significance does not say any thing about effect size. Effect size refers to the size or magnitude of the effect an IV produces in a study, or the size or magnitude of a correlation. A research result can be significant yet the effect size may be quite small. Generally speaking, as a sample size gets larger, the critical value needed to achieve significance becomes smaller. Hence, particularly with large sample sizes, reporting the effect size provides a better indication of magnitude of effect than does significance level. To this end, Cohen's d (Cohen, 1988) has been reported in addition to significance levels to

determine the effect size of differences found in work performance, turnover intention, colleagues' attitude and work-life balance. Cohen's rule of thumb is:

Effect size	d
Small	.20
Medium	.50
Large	.80

Work Performance

Individuals working long hours ($M = 5.78$, $SD = .88$), $t = -15.60$ (265), $p < .001$, $d = 1.8$, were perceived to significantly outperform all others who worked fewer hours. Hypothesis 1 is therefore supported. Working regular hours ($M = 4.85$, $SD = .71$), $d = 0.8$. was perceived to be significantly better in terms of work productivity than working any kind of flexible option (Figure 5.1).

Figure 5.1: Work Performance as a function of different working patterns
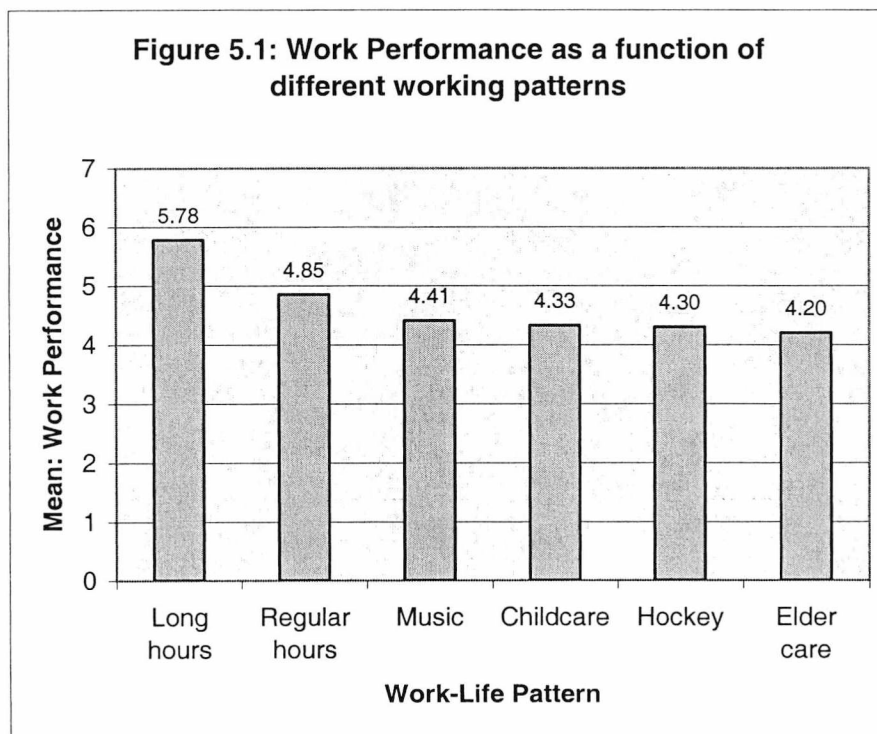
Turnover Intention

Those working long hours ($M = 3.36$, $SD = 1.27$), regular hours ($M = 3.38$, $SD = 1.01$) and having child-care responsibilities ($M = 3.39$, $SD = .95$), $t = -10.20$ (265), $p < .001$, $d = 0.3$,

were seen as significantly less likely to leave the organisation when compared to individuals using flexible working for elder care and leisure pursuits (Figure 5.2).
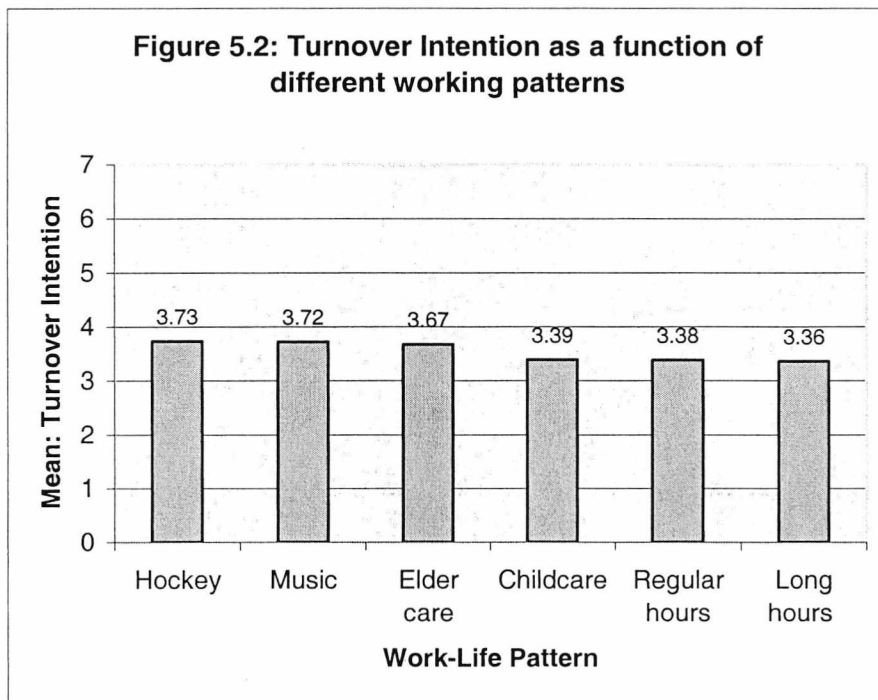
Figure 5.2: Turnover Intention as a function of different working patterns

A three-way interaction effect was found between turnover intention, gender of participant and gender of target, $F(1, 262) = 3.88$, $p = .05$, $Ms = 3.67$. Pair-wise comparisons showed differences in childcare, regular hours of work and working long hours. Overall, male raters perceived women as more likely to leave their organisation than men, whatever hours they worked, and employees who worked flexible hours were seen as more likely to leave their organisation than those who either worked regular hours or long hours. Male raters perceived women who worked flexible hours to care for a child ($M = 3.75$, $SD = 1.01$) to be more likely to leave an organisation than men who worked flexible hours to care for a child ($M = 3.08$, $SD = .92$, $p < .001$). Interestingly, male raters perceived women who worked flexible hours to care for a child ($M = 3.75$, $SD = 1.01$) as more likely to leave an organisation than female raters ($M = 3.42$, $SD = .93$, $p = .041$). With regard to working regular hours, male raters ($M = 3.83$, $SD = .87$) perceived women who worked regular hours as more likely to leave an organisation than did female raters ($M = 3.26$, $SD = .93$, $p = .002$). Male raters also perceived women who worked regular hours ($M = 3.83$, $SD = .87$) as more likely to leave an organisation than men who worked regular hours ($M = 3.37$, $SD = 1.45$, $p = .002$). With regard to long hours of work, male raters ($M = 2.97$, $SD = 1.21$) perceived men who worked long hours as more likely to stay with an organisation than did female raters ($M = 3.47$, $SD = 1.15$, $p = .028$). Male raters also perceived women who worked long hours ($M = 3.50$, $SD =$

1.32) as more likely to leave an organisation than men who worked long hours ($M = 2.97$, SD = 1.21, $p = .039$).

Colleagues' Attitudes

The individual who worked regular hours ($M = 5.03$, $SD = .78$), $t = -2.924$ (265), $p = .004$, $d = 0.3$, was more positively thought of as a work colleague than all others in the workplace who either worked long hours or chose to work any kind of flexible style (Figure 5.3).

Figure 5.3: Colleagues' Attitudes as a function of different working patterns
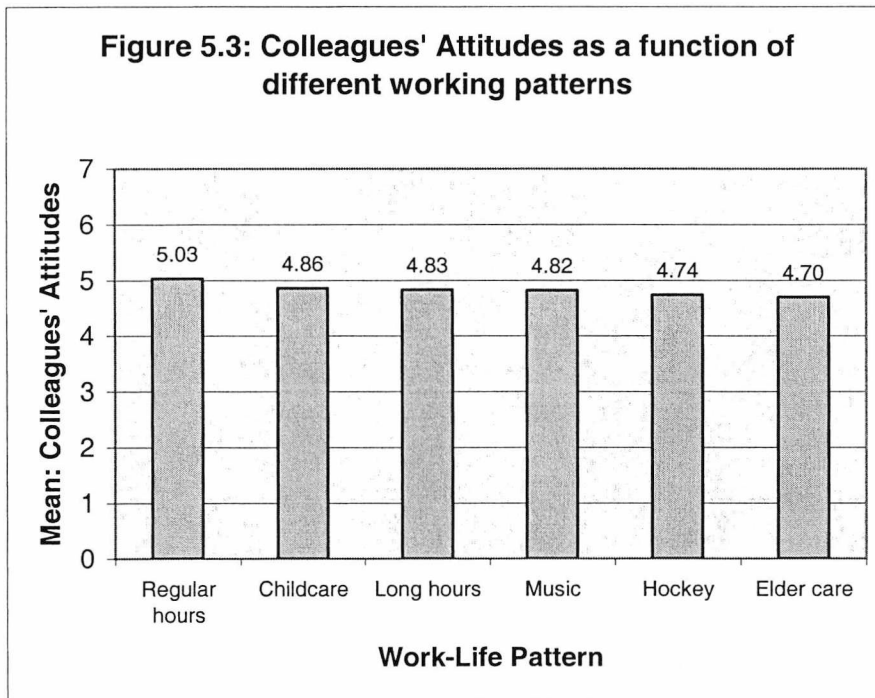
Work-Life Balance

Working long hours ($M = 2.96$, $SD = .97$), $t = 6.323$ (265), $p < .001$, $d = 1.9$, was perceived to have a significantly greater negative impact on personal life than working regular hours or working any kind of flexible option. Further to this, elder care ($M = 3.42$, $SD = .83$), $d = 1.9$, was perceived as having a greater negative impact on personal life than all other activities except working long hours (Figure 5.4).

Figure 5.4: Work-Life Balance as a function of different working patterns

A bar chart titled "Figure 5.4: Work-Life Balance as a function of different working patterns". The y-axis is labelled "Mean: Work-Life Balance" ranging from 0 to 7. The x-axis is labelled "Work-Life Pattern" with categories: Regular hours, Hockey, Music, Childcare, Elder care, Long hours. Bar values: Regular hours 5.05, Hockey 5.05, Music 5.03, Childcare 4.78, Elder care 3.42, Long hours 2.96.

Discussion

The Findings

In line with the first hypothesis, employees who worked long hours were rated as having better work performance when compared to those who worked regular hours or any kind of flexible working option. Working regular hours was perceived to be significantly better in terms of work productivity than working some kind of flexible option. Interestingly, having elder care responsibilities was perceived as having a negative impact on work performance.

Results also supported the second hypothesis. Those who worked regular hours were rated more positively as colleagues than those who worked long hours or any flexible option, despite the fact that the actual number of hours worked did not differ between regular and flexible hours.

With regard to turnover intention, results showed that those who worked long or regular hours were perceived to be the least likely to leave their employer. Employees with childcare were seen as less likely to leave their organisation than those who used flexible working options to care for older people or to take part in leisure pursuits, and who were seen to be the most likely to leave their organisation. Rather surprisingly, male raters perceived female targets as more likely to leave their employer than any of the male targets, no matter what pattern of hours they worked.

Despite viewing long hours positively in terms of work performance, the raters did reflect on its potential negative impact. They perceived these employees to have significantly less work-life balance than those working regular hours or working any kind of flexible option. In addition, the raters acknowledged the double burden faced by those who combine work with caring for an older person. This was perceived to have a greater negative impact on personal life than any other working option other than long hours. The effect on personal life of caring for a child was also seen as more negative than being able to work regular hours or working flexible hours for leisure pursuits.

The Meaning and Implications of the Findings

That long hours are perceived as important for work performance is reflected in the working culture of the United Kingdom, where full-time employees work the longest hours of any European country (Kodz, et al., 2002). It is interesting that this perception persists in the light of growing evidence that flexible policies increase motivation, reduce absenteeism, and improve productivity (Janman, et al., 2001; Dex & Smith 2002).

Whilst long hours may be seen to optimise career progress (Worrall & Cooper, 1999), they are also seen to have a significantly negative impact on personal life. This finding supports those of Kodz et al., (2002) and Smith-Major, et al., (2002) who reported long working hours to have an adverse impact on an employee's health. It further supports findings that work-family conflict negatively affects family life (e.g. Carlson, 1999; Frone, et al., 1992a; Frone & Yardley, 1996; Hyman, et al., 2001; Hyman, et al., 2003; Hyman, et al., 2005). The dissonant attitudes found in this study toward working long hours in terms of work productivity but also having an adverse impact on personal life, lends support to some aspects of the model of work-family conflict proposed by Senécal, et al., (2001). Specifically, motivation toward work leading to family alienation, which, in turn, leads to work-family conflict, was implied. Further research is needed however, to test the theory, specifically in the areas of feeling valued and supported by work and family.

Those who work regular hours were thought of more positively as colleagues than those who work long hours or flexible working hours. Either those working regular hours are seen as more reliable because they did not appear to have any significant commitments outside work, or, their actual working pattern made raters feel more positively towards them. One explanation of this finding is that when considering collegiality, there is a tendency to favour reliability and avoid competition. Colleagues who work regular hours with no apparent external interests are seen to be more likely to be reliable; those working long hours may be perceived as a threat.

Previous research (Eby, Freeman, Rush & Lance, 1999) has shown that commitment to the organisation is strongly negatively related to turnover intention. In the present study, it may be that the raters were equating working patterns with work commitment. Simpson (1998) argued that those unable to compete with long hours and presenteeism (mainly women) might be seen as uncommitted to their organisation. In this study, those working long or regular hours were seen both less likely to leave and more productive than those who worked flexibly. Those who had responsibilities and interests other than childcare were viewed as most likely to leave. This finding hints at the notion of there being a hierarchy of reasons for using flexible working practices, with childcare being more acceptable than hobbies and interests.

The finding that elder care was perceived as having a negative impact on work productivity and having the greatest negative impact on personal life than all other working patterns except working long hours, is disturbing, although perhaps not surprising. One explanation for these attitudes can be found in the spillover hypothesis, where negative experiences and moods are particularly likely to spill over from work to the family and vice versa, whereas positive and pleasant experiences appear to show rather modest spillover effects (Williams & Alliger, 1994). There appears to be an inherent assumption that caring for an elderly relative is a negative process, with the knock-on negative spillover effects to personal life and in the workplace. This might be because elder care is seen as a forced option, rather than a chosen one, with demands that make employees prone to unreliability in the workplace. These attitudes seem to prevail despite findings that show flexible working policies reduce conflict experienced by individuals trying to fulfil multiple roles (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999). Notwithstanding this, it must not be assumed that the availability and use of flexible working options results in a balanced lifestyle. An individual who returns home from work to care for an elderly relative, leaving little or no time for other interests, may not feel they experience much reward, or work-life-balance. This perhaps offers the best explanation for the negative finding of the effects of elder care on personal life.

Perhaps the most surprising finding in the present study was that male raters perceived female targets as more likely to leave their employer than any of the male targets, no matter what pattern of hours they worked. These findings endorse societal norms in terms of women remaining chief carers and bearing the greater proportion of domestic responsibility, despite their increasing numbers in the workplace over the past decade (DTI, 2000; Higgins, Duxbury & Lee, 1994; White, 2004). As previous research has shown turnover intention often to be highly related to work commitment (Eby, et al., 1999), this study raises concerns that young male managers of tomorrow view women as less committed to employment and

careers than men. There has been considerable controversy around the conceptualisation of women's work commitment (Hakim, 1991, 2000; Crompton & Harris, 1998). Hakim has argued that women have a real choice between market work and family work and that the majority opt to fluctuate between working and caring roles in a way that is inconsistent with career progression. In the present study, male, but not female, raters appear to hold views consistent with the view that women were more likely to leave their organisation, regardless of their working pattern.

Conclusion

Many of the final year undergraduate students in this study will be *tomorrow's managers*. While recent research has identified this group as having a primary aim of 'working to live' rather than 'living to work' (Guest & Sturges, 1999; Sturgess, et al., 2000), it appears that rather traditional views about women, work performance and working patterns persist. Of interest here is that the attitudes found are not coloured by current and specific organisational culture. Existing research carried out with employees in specific organisations shows work-life balance to be thought of as a positive concept (Woodland, et al., 2003; Stevens, et al., 2004). Conversely, conflict exists between using flexible working practices and the perceived effect this may have on career opportunities (Powell, 1997; Hogarth, et al., 2000; Houston & Waumsley, 2003; Woodland, et al., 2003). This study examined whether beliefs about working hours persisted amongst the young managers of tomorrow and not only found they do but, also that male managers of tomorrow believe women to be less likely than men to stay with their employer.

Whilst this study offers much in the way of recognising workplace attitudes towards a culture of long hours, its limitations are recognised. Coupled with participants being asked to rate hypothetical situations, the average work experience of the participants was between one and two years of part-time work. Whilst findings suggest students find flexible working facilitates combining work with study (Purcell, et al., 1999), implying students are aware of the benefits of flexible working, the type of work presented in the scenarios was of an administrative full-time role. This may not be a work situation that most students would be familiar with in their relatively short working lives. However, given that these students will be *tomorrow's managers*, their perceptions and attitudes of working hours and career success will also be tomorrow's workplace culture. This raises the issue of further research investigating the attitudes toward flexible working policies of employees in an organisational setting. Although research has shown long hours and presenteeism to be believed to enhance career progression (Worrall & Cooper, 1999), the main question arising from this study is why flexible working is seen as detrimental to work performance. There may be a

hint in the finding over employees working regular hours being seen as the most popular, perhaps because they are seen as more reliable than those working other working patterns, but this requires investigation. In an attempt to find answers to this question, not only does the following chapter examine attitudes towards long hours and flexible working in an organisational setting, but investigates reasons as to why employees believe certain working patterns to be more preferable than others.

Chapter 6

Are Professional Success and Flexible Working seen as Mutually Exclusive?

Introduction

The findings of the previous chapter indicate *tomorrow's managers* hold attitudes about long and flexible working hours that will perpetuate the long hours culture in the UK. This chapter attempts to generalise these findings to employees in an occupational setting by replicating the previous study in the workplace. In addition, in order to examine the reasons for the belief that work performance is enhanced by long working hours, this chapter investigates perceived success in the workplace as a function of various working practices.

Background

Chapters 1 and 5 have shown that whilst work-life balance is valued, many workers are unable to attain a reasonable level of balance between their home and working lives (Houston & Waumsley, 2003). Research shows work overload to be associated with long hours (Wallace, 1997; Greenhaus, et al., 1997); and long hours to be prevalent in the UK (Cooper, et al., 2001; Hyman, et al., 2001; Worrall & Cooper, 1999). In short, it is commonly believed that in middle and senior managerial positions across both public and private sector organisations in the United Kingdom, flexible working cannot work, and making a request for such a working pattern will result in 'career death' (Janman, et al., 2001). Houston and Waumsley (2003) also found that respondents were not positive about the impact of flexible working on careers and job security. Their findings showed that forty-five per cent of respondents felt that those who used flexible working were unlikely to be promoted, 38 per cent felt that managers would not respect them, and 28 per cent reported that they felt that colleagues would not respect those using flexible working options. Fifty per cent of respondents agreed that to be viewed favourably by management they have to put their jobs ahead of their personal life. Managerial employees who did not have children under the age of 18 were most likely to agree that working long hours would lead to promotion and being a good colleague. Women were significantly more positive about flexible working than men, but there were no gender differences in the negative views people held about the impact of flexible working on career success. This was demonstrated when an interviewee explained:

> "The boss of our unit has expressed if line managers want to get on they won't claim flexitime. They're paid a salary and can therefore stay until the job is done. People are intimidated into not claiming flexitime if they want to get on." Female employee. (Houston & Waumsley, 2003).

Overall, the findings from the Houston and Waumsley (2003) study convey a picture of employees experiencing work-life conflict, viewing flexible working practices positively, but being afraid to use them for fear of job loss or lack of career progression. These findings are consistent with recent research on career promotion prospects in the UK. Using longitudinal data from the British Household Panel Survey, 1991 to 1995, Francesconi (2001) found that two determinants of promotion are having a full-time job, and working overtime. Similarly, an examination of the perceived impact of flexible work arrangements on professional opportunities in public accounting revealed that participation in a flexible work arrangement evoked pessimistic predictions of career success (Cohen & Single, 2001). Succinctly, and as has already become salient in previous chapters, whilst flexible working is seen in a positive way in terms of personal life and family, it seems that it is viewed negatively in terms of career progression.

In addition to this chapter attempting to replicate the findings of the previous study in an occupational setting, it will investigate why flexible working is seen to be incompatible with career success, why long hours are believed to enhance work performance, and why working regular hours appears to make people popular in the workplace. In light of the previous chapter's findings that long and regular hours were considered compatible with work performance, hypothesis 1 predicted long and regular hours to be the patterns of working seen as most attractive for promotion. In the context of managers believing that making a request for flexible working will result in 'career death' (Janman, et al., 2001; Houston & Waumsley, 2003), hypothesis 2 predicted that managerial raters will be more likely than non-managerial raters to promote employees working long hours. Given the attitudes of male raters towards female employees in the previous chapter, gender differences in promotion prospects will also be examined.

Method

Participants and Procedure

500 male and 500 female managerial raters were asked to complete the male managerial employee questionnaire. 500 male and 500 female managerial raters were asked to complete the female managerial employee questionnaire. 500 male and 500 female non-managerial raters were asked to complete the male administrative employee questionnaire, and 500 male and 500 female non-managerial raters were asked to complete the female administrative employee questionnaire. Raters were asked to read all six descriptions of the different working styles, and rate each employee on a series of 7-point Likert scales (1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely) relating to work performance, turnover intention, colleagues'

attitudes, work-life balance and life-work balance. Raters were then asked whom they would be most, and least, likely to promote, and why. All ethical guidelines set out by the British Psychological Society were followed. At the beginning of each questionnaire there were clear instructions about confidentiality and anonymity. It was also made clear that completion of the questionnaire was not compulsory. No formal de-brief was provided because no active deception was used but all questionnaires contained contact details of the researcher for those who wanted to ask questions about the study. All respondents were thanked for their participation.

Design

A questionnaire survey containing descriptions of six employees, each using different working practices was conducted. The descriptions were of individuals who either worked long hours, worked regular hours, or worked flexible hours, either to look after a child, an elderly parent, to play sport, or to play music. Except for the individual who worked long hours, all worked the same actual number of hours in a week, but varied in their construction of those hours. In order that any perceived differences by male and female raters toward male and female targets using different working styles, and any differences between work category could be measured, four questionnaires were used, crossing gender and work category within scenarios.

Materials

Four questionnaires were used, each containing six hypothetical descriptions of employees working in a successful hypothetical British company. Questionnaires differed only in that questionnaire one depicted male managerial employees, questionnaire two depicted female managerial employees, questionnaire three depicted male administrative employees, and questionnaire four depicted female administrative employees. An example copy of a questionnaire can be found at Appendix 5.1. Section 1 of each questionnaire contained fifteen questions relating to each of the six hypothetical working scenarios of the six employees in a British company. Items factored into five constructs: Work Performance, Turnover Intention, Colleagues' Attitudes, Work-Life Conflict and Life-Work Conflict. Section 2 of each questionnaire asked about promotion prospects of the employees depicted in section 1. Section 3 contained demographic items. Section 4 contained items relating to the participant, to include items examining work-life and life-work conflict, organisational identity, turnover intention, and organisational support. All except the demographic questions were measured using Likert scales.

Response Rates and Demographics

Participants (raters) were 281 male managers, 375 female managers, 210 male non-managers and 227 female non-managers (Total N = 1093). Taking into account incomplete, and therefore un-coded, questionnaires, this comprised a 30 per cent response rate. All participants (raters) had a mean age of 43 years and were all members of a large British union. Eighty-eight percent worked full-time; 12 percent worked part-time. Seventy-six percent were married or cohabiting; 24 percent were single, divorced, separated or widowed. Average hours spent on childcare per week was 16.02; on elder care the average was 1.15 hours; on disabled care the average was .76 hours, and average hours spent on general unspecified care per week was 6.19. The study took place in the United Kingdom.

Evaluation Scales

Work Performance was measured using 5 items, (e.g. Peter's work productivity is above average). Cronbach's Alpha = .83. The higher the mean response, the better work performance was perceived to be.

Turnover Intention was measured using 3 items, (e.g. Liz will leave the company within the next two years). Cronbach's Alpha = .76. The higher the mean response, the more likely the individual was perceived to leave the organisation.

Colleagues' Attitudes was measured using 3 items, (e.g. Sarah's colleagues enjoy working with her). Cronbach's Alpha = .84. The higher the mean response, the more positively colleagues were perceived to feel toward the individual.

Work-Life Balance/Conflict was measured using 2 items taken from Netemeyer *et al.* (1996) work-family conflict scale, (e.g. Matt's job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil home responsibilities). Cronbach's Alpha = .77. The higher the mean response, the more work-life conflict there was perceived to be (the individual has less work-life balance).

Life-Work Balance (not included in previous study) was measured using 2 items taken from Netemeyer *et al.* (1996) family-work conflict scale (e.g. The demands of Kate's home life interfere with her responsibilities at work). Cronbach's Alpha = .82. The higher the mean response, the more life-work conflict there was perceived to be (the individual has less life-work balance).

Sociodemographic questions included age, gender, marital status, whether they worked full-time or part-time, hours worked per week, hours spent on caring responsibilities, ages of children, socio-economic status and their job title.

Results

The first hypothesis predicted long hours to be the pattern of working seen as most compatible with promotion. The second hypothesis predicted that managerial raters would be more likely than non-managerial raters to promote employees working long hours. Gender differences in promotion prospects were also examined.

Factor Analysis

Factor analysis using principle components with Oblimin Rotation was conducted to confirm the underlying dimensions in the employee profile scale. This supported the five-factor solution: Work Performance (Eigenvalue = 3.79, % of variance explained = 42.06), Turnover Intention (Eigenvalue = 1.08, % of variance explained = 12.01), Colleagues' Attitudes (Eigenvalue = .89, % of variance explained = 9.91), Work-Life Balance (Eigenvalue = .87, % of variance explained = 9.62) and Life-Work Balance (Eigenvalue = .74, % of variance explained = 8.17).

Analysis of Variance and t-tests

The assumptions of normality, independence and homogeneity of variance for mixed ANOVA were met. The additional assumption of compound symmetry for repeated-measures ANOVA was violated for 'work performance' (Mauchley's W = .49, chi-squared = 734.230, (14), $p <$ .001), 'turnover intention' (Mauchley's W = .64, chi-squared = 468.42, (14), $p <$ .001 'colleagues attitudes' (Mauchley's W = .61, chi-squared = 516.26, (14), $p <$ .001) and 'work-life balance' (Mauchley's W = .81, chi-squared = 216.06, (14), $p <$ .001). This was dealt with by adjusting the degrees of freedom, thus losing power (Howell, 1992). To this end, the Lower Bound epsilon, as the most conservative estimate of all the epsilons, is reported.

Analysis of variance showed a main effect of 'work performance', $F (1, 1031)$ = 214.88, p <.001, Ms = 3.37; a main effect of 'turnover intention', $F (1, 1032)$ = 81.55, $p <$ .001, Ms = 5.77; a main effect of 'colleagues attitudes', $F (1, 1029)$ = 48.98, $p <$ .001, Ms = 3.63; a main effect of 'work-life balance', $F (1, 1029)$ = 338.68, $p <$ .001, Ms = 7.87; and a main effect of 'life-work balance', $F (1, 1032)$ = 586.97, $p <$ .001, Ms = 6.79. A two-way interaction effect was found between work performance and gender of rater, $F (1, 1031)$ = 3.77, $p <$ .05, Ms =

3.37, and between work performance and gender and status of target, $F(3, 1031) = 6.52$, $p <$ .001, $Ms = 3.37$. A two-way interaction effect was found between turnover intention and gender of rater $F(1, 1032) = 8.11$, $p < .01$, $Ms = 5.77$, and between turnover intention and gender and status of target, $F(3, 1032) = 12.67$, $p < .001$, $Ms = 5.77$. A two-way interaction effect was found between colleagues' attitudes and gender and status of target, $F(3, 1029) = 2.67$, $p < .05$, $Ms = 3.63$. A two-way interaction effect was found between work-life balance and gender of rater, $F(1, 1029) = 4.32$, $p < .05$, $Ms = 7.87$, and between work-life balance and gender and status of target, $F(3, 1029) = 7.48$, $p < .001$, $Ms = 7.87$. A two-way interaction effect was found between life-work balance and gender of rater, $F(1, 1032) = 5.37$, $p < .05$, $Ms = 6.79$, and between life-work balance and gender and status of target, $F(3, 1032) = 4.76$, $p < .01$, $Ms = 6.79$. Post-hoc paired t-tests with Holm's Sequential Bonferoni adjustment were used to ensure a family wise alpha of .05. No effects were found between status of rater.

Terminology

Given these findings, and for ease of reference, participants will now be referred to as male and female raters (since there are no differences found between status of rater) and individuals depicted in the questionnaires will be referred to as managerial employees and administrative employees.

Cohen's Effect Size (d)

Cohen's d (Cohen, 1988) has been reported to determine the effect size of differences found in work performance, turnover intention, colleagues' attitude, work-life balance and life-work balance. Cohen's rule of thumb is:

Effect size	d
Small	.20
Medium	.50
Large	.80

Work Performance

Individuals working long hours ($M = 5.33$, $SD = 1.14$), $t = -20.87$ (1068), $p < .001$, $d = 0.6$, were perceived to significantly outperform all others who worked fewer hours. Working regular hours ($M = 5.03$, $SD = .92$), $d = 0.5$, was perceived to be significantly better in terms of work productivity than working any kind of flexible option (Figure 6.1).

Figure 6.1: Work Performance as a function of working long hours, regular hours, and a variety of flexible hours

Mean: Work Performance

Long Hours	Regular Hours	Childcare	Music	Hockey	Elderly care
5.33	5.03	4.73	4.63	4.57	4.39

Working Option
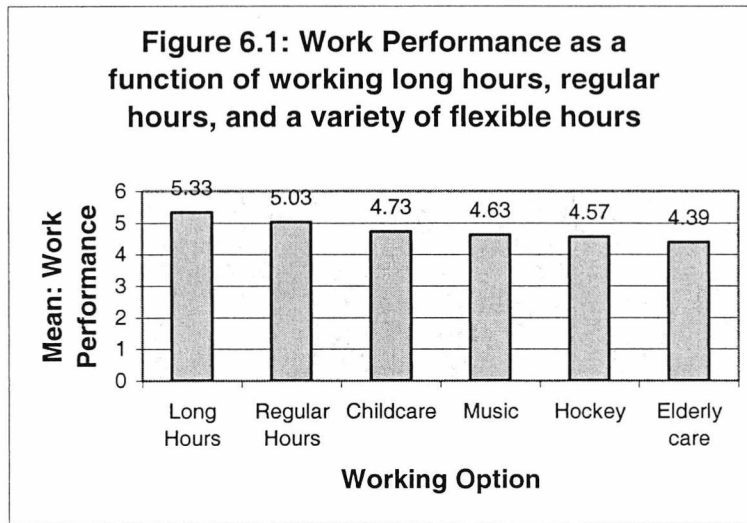
Pairwise comparisons showed that female (*M* = 4.93, *SD* = .84) raters perceived work performance to be better than did male raters (*M* = 4.24, *SD* = .93, p < .001) for male and female administrative employees and managerial employees working flexible hours for any reason.

Turnover Intention

Those working regular hours (*M* = 3.40, *SD* = 1.21), with elder care responsibilities (*M* = 3.36, *SD* = 1.10) and with child-care responsibilities (*M* = 3.16, *SD* = 1.12), *t* = -15.02 (1085), *p* < .001, *d* = 0.5, were rated as significantly less likely to leave the organisation when compared to employees working long hours or using flexible working for leisure pursuits (Figure 6.2).

Figure 6.2: Turnover Intention as a function of working long hours, regular hours, and a variety of flexible hours

Mean: Turnover Intention

Long hours	Hockey	Music	Regular hours	Elderly care	Childcare
4.05	3.87	3.62	3.4	3.36	3.16

Working Option
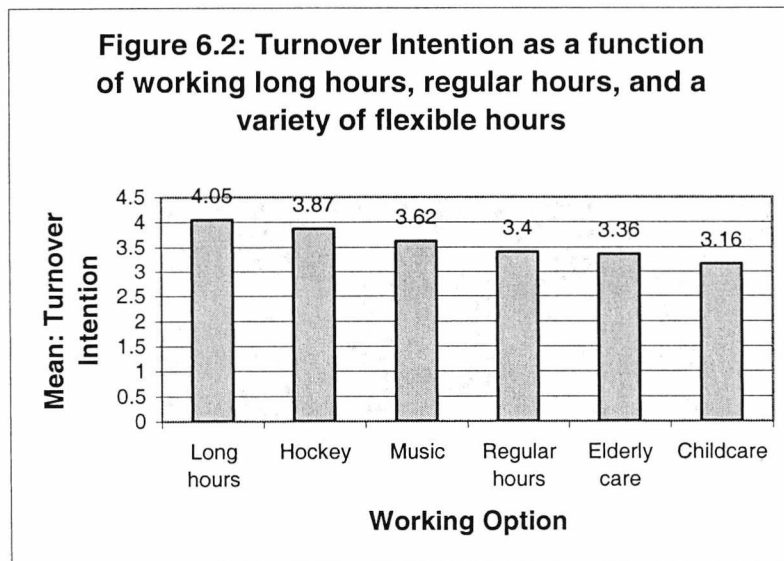
Pairwise comparisons showed that female managerial employees working long hours were thought to want to leave their organisation more by female raters ($M = 4.47$, $SD = 1.39$) than by male raters ($M = 4.13$, $SD = 1.40$, $p < .05$). Also, male and female raters perceived that for those who worked long hours, managerial employees ($M = 4.13$, $SD = 1.40$) were more likely to leave their organisation than administrative employees ($M = 3.44$, $SD = 1.54$, $p < .001$).

Colleagues' Attitudes

Individuals working regular hours ($M = 5.03$, $SD = .99$), $t = 13.10$ (1063), $p < .001$, $d = 0.4$, were more positively thought of as work colleagues than all others in the workplace who worked either long hours or who chose to work flexible hours (Figure 6.3).

Figure 6.3: Colleagues' Attitudes as a function of different working patterns
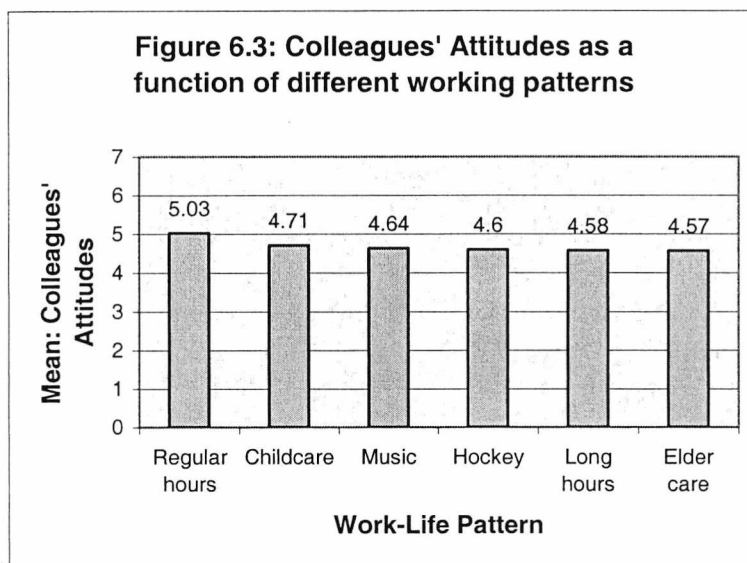
Pairwise comparisons showed that male raters perceived that for those who worked flexible hours, female administrative employees ($M = 4.85$, $SD = 1.08$) were thought more highly of as work colleagues than were male managerial employees ($M = 4.47$ $SD = .99$, $p < .01$) or male administrative employees ($M = 4.39$, $SD = .96$, $p < .05$).

.

Work-Life Balance

Working long hours ($M = 2.58$, $SD = 1.93$), $t = -32.04$ (1082), $p < .001$, $d = 0.9$, was perceived to provide the worst work-life balance when compared to working regular or flexible hours. Working flexible hours for elder care ($M = 3.19$, $SD = 1.41$), $d = 0.8$, was perceived to be more detrimental to personal life than all other variables except working long hours. Working regular hours ($M = 4.61$. $SD = 1.23$), $d = 0.8$, was perceived to provide the best work-life balance (Figure 6.4).

Figure 6.4: Work-life Balance as a function of different working patterns
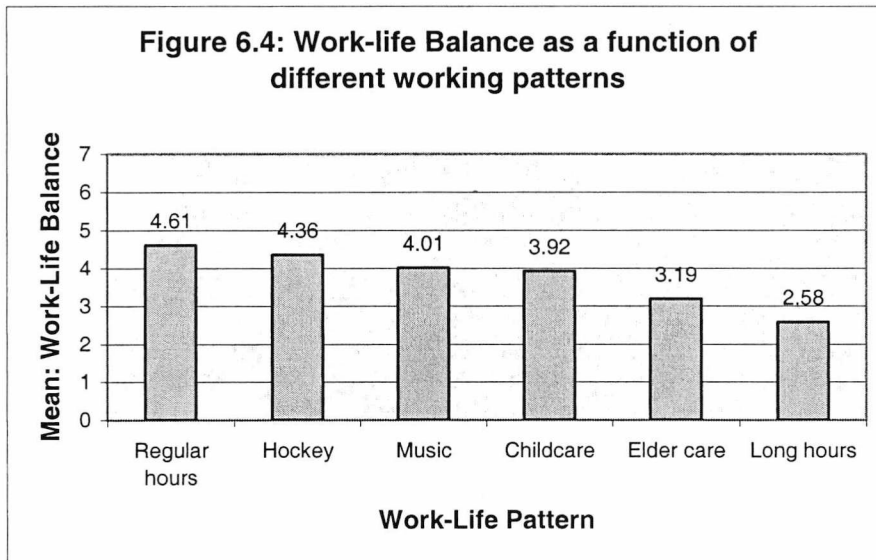
Pairwise comparisons showed that male raters ($M = 3.76$, $SD = 1.49$) perceived work-life balance to be worse for all those working flexible hours than did female raters ($M = 4.22$, $SD = 1.28$, $p < .01$). Also, male and female raters perceived that for those who worked long hours, managerial employees ($M = 2.25$, $SD = 1.89$, $p < .05$) have less work-life balance than administrative employees ($M = 3.22$, $SD = 1.84$, $p < .001$).

Life-Work Balance

Working flexible hours because of elder care ($M = 2.89$, $SD = 1.57$), $t = 37.62$ (1068), $p < .001$, $d = 0.9$, was perceived to provide significantly less life-work balance than working long or regular hours or working flexible hours for any other reason. Further to this, life-work balance was perceived to be worse when working flexible hours for child care ($M = 3.56$, $SD = 1.56$), $d = 0.6$, than all other variables except elder care. Working long ($M = 5.09$, $SD = 1.26$) and regular hours ($M = 4.89$, $SD = 1.06$), $d = 1.1$, were perceived to conflict least with work (Figure 6.5).

Figure 6.5: Life-work Balance as a function of different working patterns
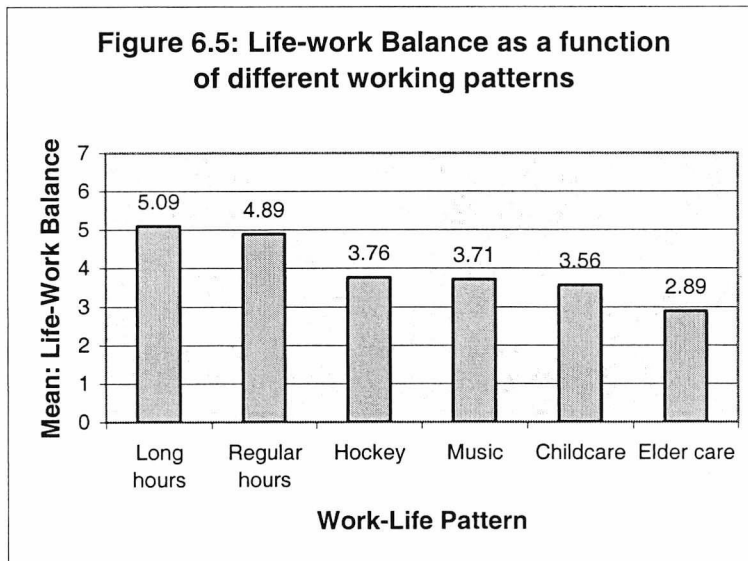
Pairwise comparisons showed that male raters (M = 3.05, SD = 1.70) perceived life-work balance to be worse for a managerial employee working flexible hours than did female raters (M = 3.85, SD = 1.36, p < .001).

Promotion - Content coding

Content coding was carried out by one content coder organising responses into the fifteen specific and appropriate categories stated by the raters (flexibility, organisation, commitment, motivation, productivity, family commitments, experience, reliability, balance/conflict, stress, leisure commitments, burnout, ambition, empathy, team player). The responses were then counted in each of these categories. Fifty per cent of random cases were then checked with a second independent observer. All correlations between coders were significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed). Correlations found are shown in Table 6.1. These were all considered high enough to proceed with analysis.

Table 6.1: Pearson Correlation for two independent observers for content coding

Variable	Observer's correlation
Why promote 1	.995
Why promote 2	1.00
Why not promote 1	.984
Why not promote 2	.955

Who to Promote

Those who worked long hours were significantly more likely to be promoted than those who worked regular hours or flexible hours for any reason. After long hours, those who worked regular hours were considered more attractive for promotion than those who worked flexible hours. No differences were found between male and female raters and managerial and administrative employees in the order of working practices considered most attractive for promotion. Figure 6.6 shows the working practices considered most attractive for promotion.

Figure 6.6: Order of working patterns considered most attractive for promotion
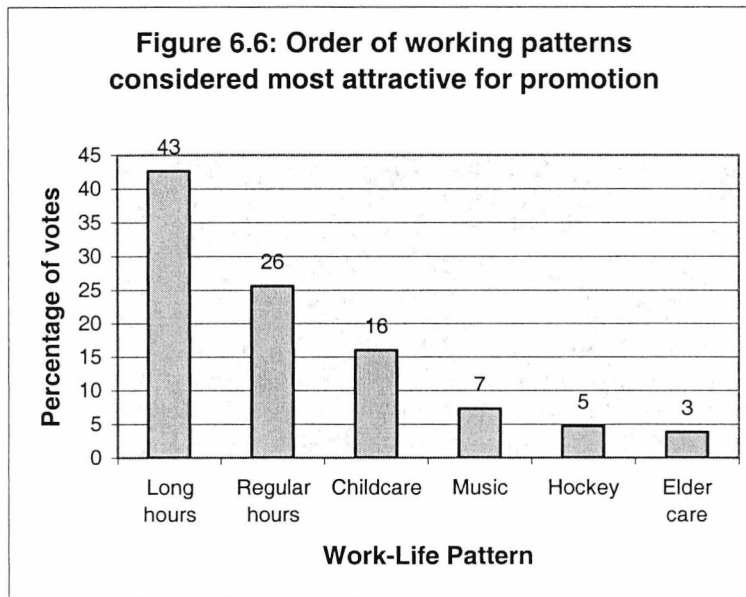
No effect of gender of raters was found between managerial and administrative employees. Chi squared analysis was then carried out between male and female managerial employees and male and female administrative employees. The residuals indicate whether differences are significant. If N is reasonably large, as is the case with this study (N = 1093), the residuals may be regarded as coming from a standardised normal distribution. In the normal distribution, the z value of 1.96 or greater is significantly different from the mean with α equalling 0.05 (Lehman, 1995). The adjusted residuals in Table 6.2 show differences for childcare and long hours. A female administrative employee working flexible hours to care for a child was considered the least likely to be promoted when compared to male and female managerial employees and male administrative employees. The adjusted residuals also show that male managerial employees working long hours were considered least likely to be promoted, and male and female administrative employees working long hours, considered most likely to be promoted, χ^2 (N = 993) = 40.86, df = 15, $p < .001$.

Table 6.2: Most likely to be promoted - differences between male and female managerial employees and male and female administrative employees.

		Child care	Long hours
Male managerial employees	**Total**	20.8%	35.5%
	Count	58	99
	Expected count	44.7	118.8
	% of Total	5.8%	10.0%
	Adjusted Residual	2.6	-2.8
Female managerial employees	**Total**	17.3%	37.9%
	Count	52	114
	Expected count	48.2	128.2
	% of Total	5.2%	11.5%
	Adjusted Residual	.7	-2.0
Male administrative employees	**Total**	15.2%	50.5%
	Count	31	103
	Expected count	32.7	86.9
	% of Total	3.1%	10.4%
	Adjusted Residual	-.3	2.6
Female administrative employees	**Total**	8.6%	51.2%
	Count	18	107
	Expected count	33.5	89.0
	% of Total	8.6%	10.8%
	Adjusted Residual	-3.3	2.8

Effects of gender of rater showed differences between males and females with regard to employees caring for a child and working long hours. Female raters would be significantly more likely to promote an employee with a child than would male raters. Male raters would be significantly more likely to promote an employee who worked long hours than would female raters, χ^2 (N = 993) = 10.95, df = 5, $p <$ .05. Table 6.3 shows these differences.

Table 6.3: Most likely to be promoted - differences between male and female raters

		Child care	Long Hours
% of male raters likely to promote childcare and long hours		12.5%	46.6%
	Count	57	212
	Expected count	72.9	193.8
	% of Total	5.7%	21.3%
	Adjusted Residual	-2.8	2.3
% of female raters likely to promote childcare and long hours		19%	39.2%
	Count	102	211
	Expected count	86.1	229.2
	% of Total	10.3%	21.2%
	Adjusted Residual	2.8	-2.3

Reasons for Promotion

Raters were asked to provide reasons considered important for promotion. These are illustrated in Figure 6.7.

Figure 6.7: Reasons given for promotion
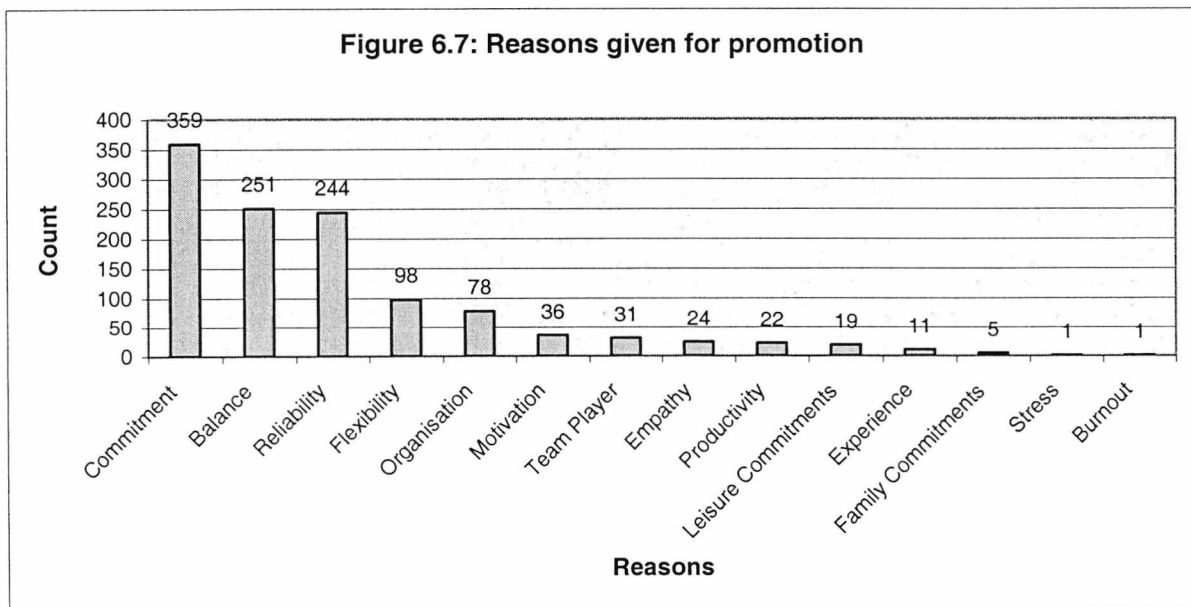
Further analysis was conducted to examine the reasons given for why the two most attractive patterns of working were long hours and regular hours of work when considering employees for promotion. Of those who would promote employees who worked long hours, the most cited reason was because these employees were seen as fully committed to their job. Figure 6.8 shows all the reasons given for promotion for those who work long hours, from the most to the least cited reason.

Figure 6.8: Reasons given for promotion for those who work long hours
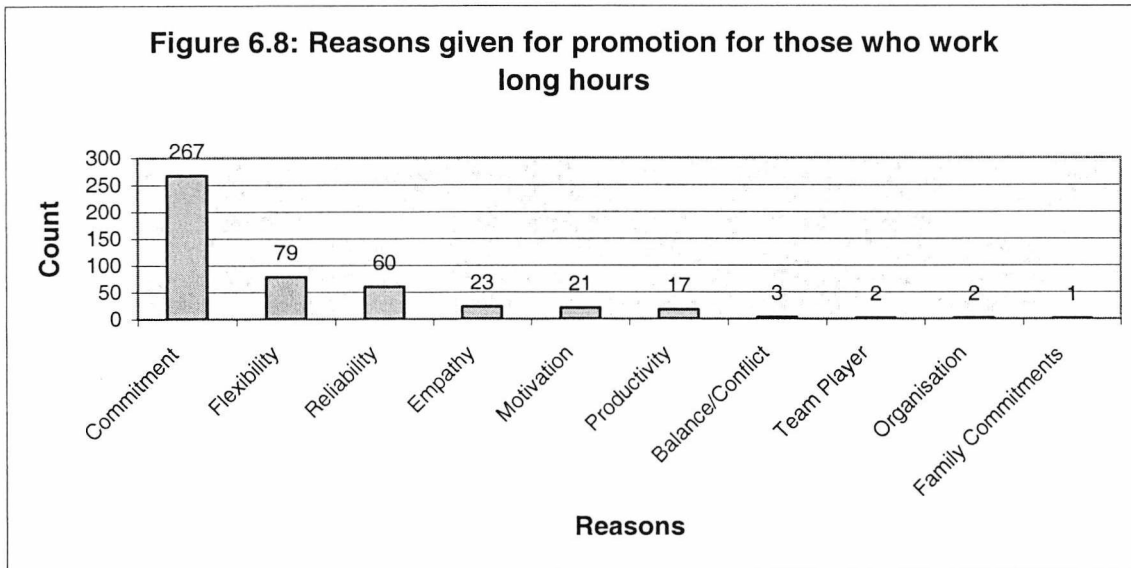
Of those who would promote employees who work long hours, they would be least likely to promote those with caring responsibilities. Figure 6.9 illustrates this.

Figure 6.9: Working pattern considered least attractive for promotion by those who would promote employees who work long hours
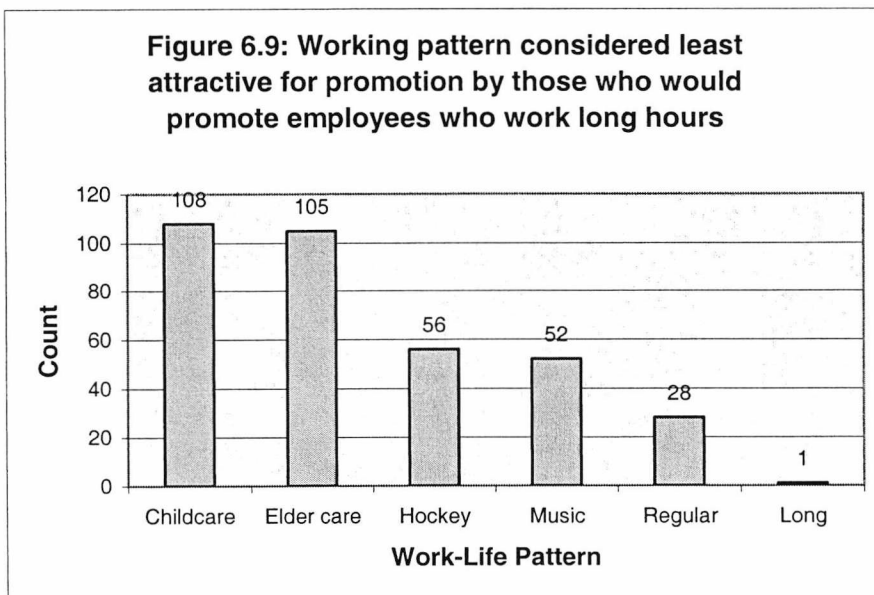
For those who would promote employees who worked regular hours, the most cited reason was because these employees were seen as reliable. Being able to balance their working lives with home life was also seen as important. Figure 6.10 shows all the reasons given for promotion for those who work regular hours, from the most cited reason to the least.

Figure 6.10: Reasons given for promotion for those who work regular hours
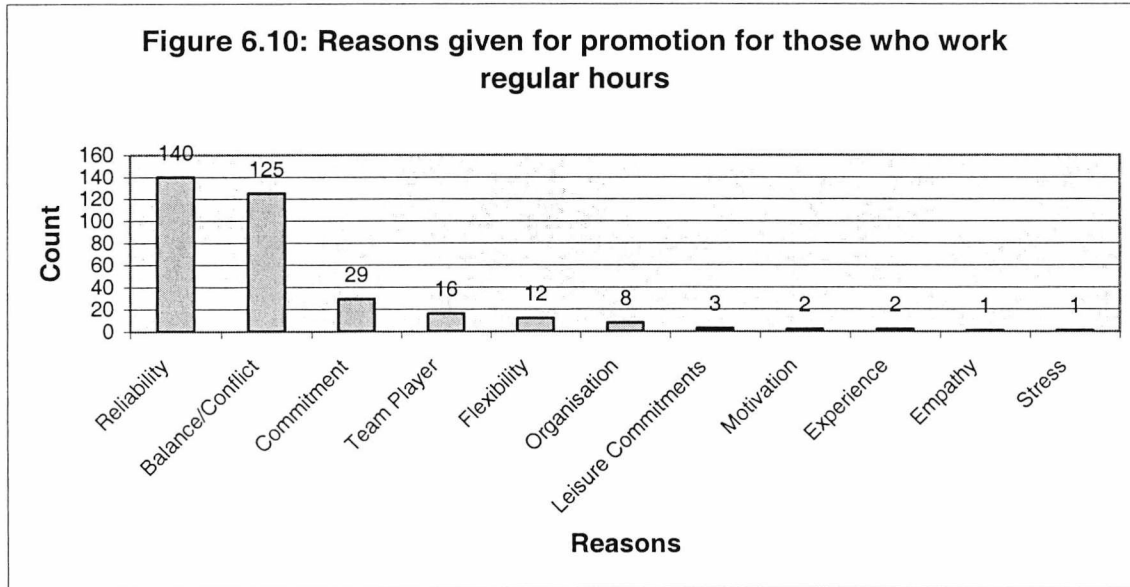
Of those who would promote employees who work regular hours, they would be least likely to promote those who work long hours. Figure 6.11 illustrates this.

Figure 6.11: Work pattern considered least attractive for promotion by those who would promote employees who work regular hours
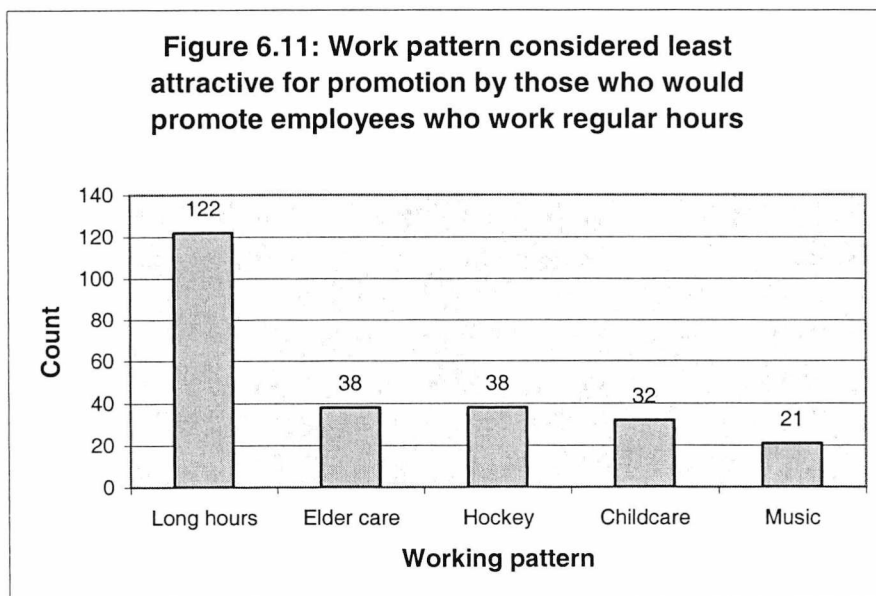
Who Not to Promote

Employees who worked long hours were significantly less likely to be promoted than anyone else. After long hours, employees who have caring responsibilities were significantly less likely to be promoted than those who worked regular hours or flexible hours for any other reason. No differences between managerial and administrative employees, and male and female raters, were found in the order of working practices considered least attractive for promotion. Figure 6.12 shows the working practices considered least attractive for promotion.

Figure 6.12: Order of working patterns considered least attractive for promotion
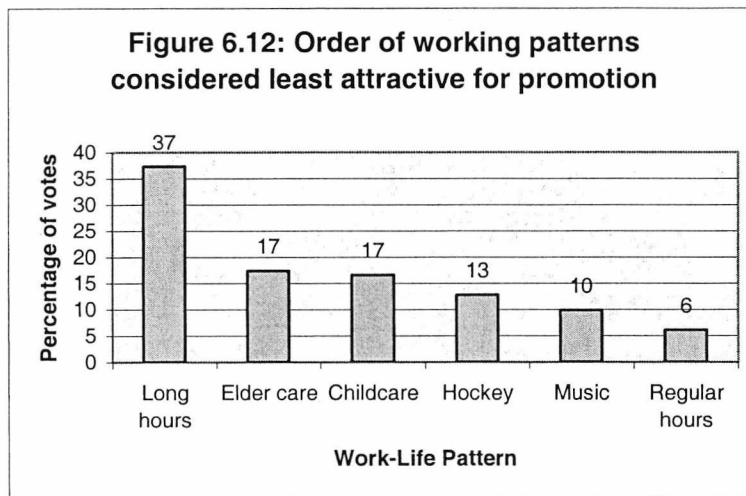
Effects of the gender of rater showed differences between males and females with regard to employees working long hours and flexible hours to play music. Female raters would be significantly less likely to promote an employee who worked long hours than would male raters. Male raters would be significantly less likely to promote an employee working flexible hours to play music than would female raters, χ^2 (N = 993) = 15.19, df = 5, $p < .01$. Table 6.4 shows this difference.

Table 6.4: Most likely not to be promoted - differences between male and female raters.

		Long Hours	Music
% of male raters who would not promote long hours and music		31.5%	12.3%
	Count	131	51
	Expected count	155.2	41
	% of Total	14.0%	5.5%
	Adjusted Residual	-3.3	2.2
% of female raters who would not promote long hours and music		42%	7.9%
	Count	217	41
	Expected count	192.8	51
	% of Total	23.3%	4.4%
	Adjusted Residual	3.3	-2.2

Chi squared analysis was then carried out between male and female managerial employees and male and female administrative employees. Differences were found for elder care and long hours. A female administrative employee working flexible hours for elder care was considered the most likely to remain un-promoted, with male managerial employees the least likely to remain un-promoted. For those working long hours, the adjusted residuals show male managerial employees were considered the most likely to remain un-promoted, with male and female administrative employees working long hours considered least likely to remain un-promoted, χ^2 (N = 993) = 58.84, df = 15, p < .001. Table 6.5 shows these differences.

Table 6.5: Most likely not to be promoted - differences between male and female managerial employees and male and female administrative employees.

		Elder care	Long hours
Male managerial employees	**Total**	11.2%	48.7%
	Count	30	131
	Expected count	46.7	100.3
	% of Total	3.2%	14.0%
	Adjusted Residual	-3.2	4.6
Female managerial employees	**Total**	13.8%	40.6%
	Count	39	115
	Expected count	49.1	105.6
	% of Total	4.2%	12.3%
	Adjusted Residual	-1.9	1.4
Male administrative employees	**Total**	22.3%	26.6%
	Count	42	50
	Expected count	32.6	70.1
	% of Total	4.5%	5.4%
	Adjusted Residual	2.0	-3.4
Female administrative employees	**Total**	26.4%	26.9%
	Count	51	52
	Expected count	33.5	72.0
	% of Total	5.5%	5.6%
	Adjusted Residual	3.7	-3.3

Raters were asked to provide reasons considered important when deciding not to promote an employee. Figure 6.13 illustrates these.

Figure 6.13: Reasons given not to promote
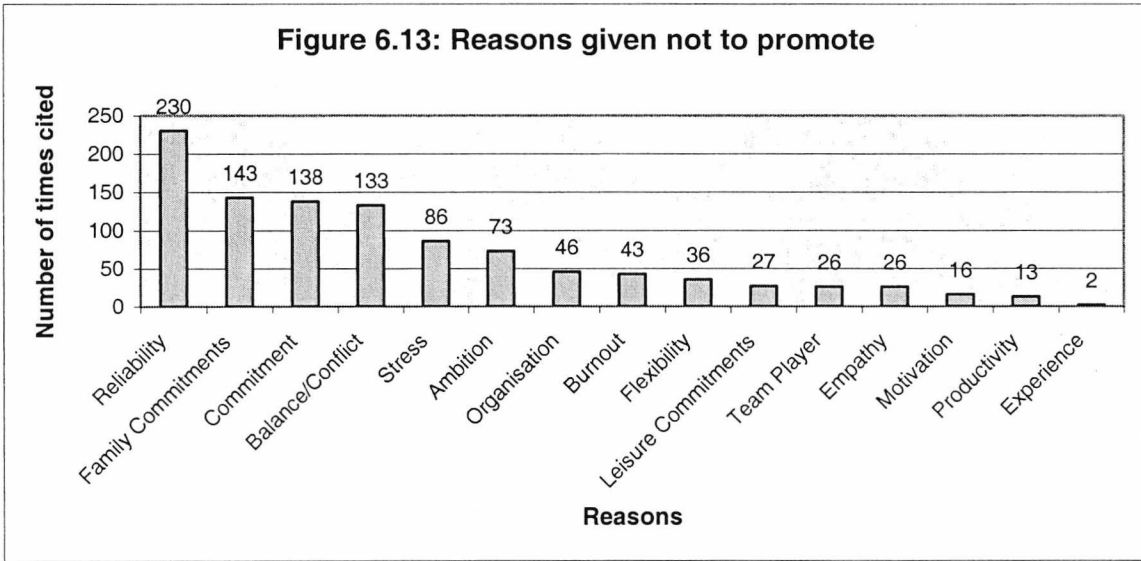
Given that when considering employees for promotion, the two least attractive patterns of working were long hours and elder care, analysis was conducted to investigate the reasons given for this. Of those who would not promote employees who work long hours, the most cited reason was because these employees were seen as having a lack of balance in their lives. Figure 6.14 shows all the reasons given for lack of promotion for those who work long hours, from the most frequently cited to the least.

Figure 6.14: Reasons given for non-promotion for those who work long hours
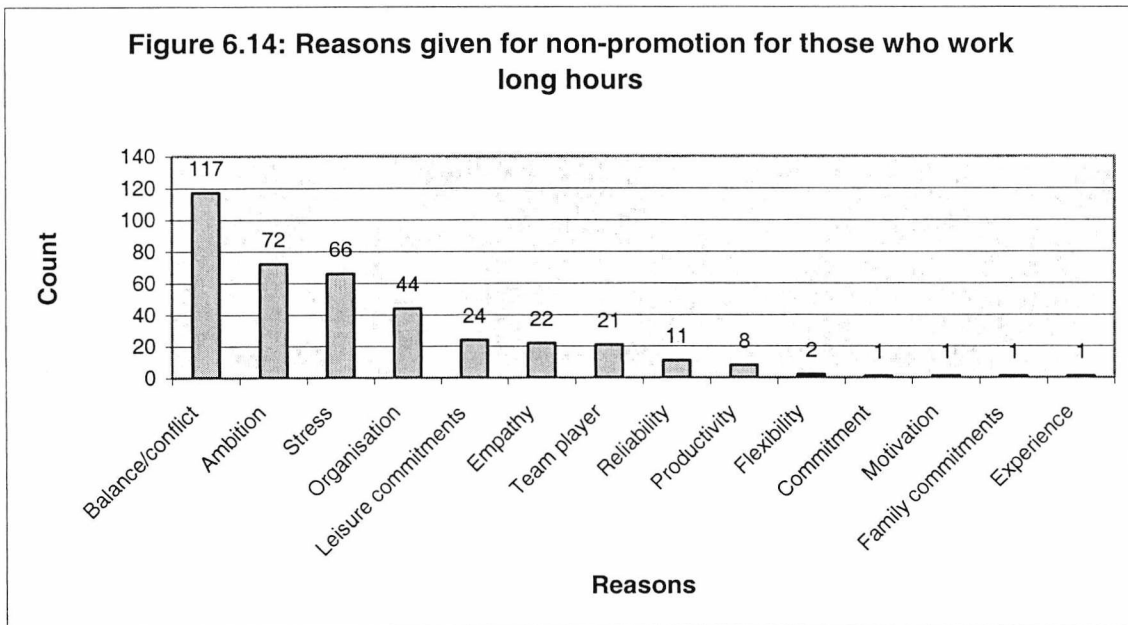
Of those who would not promote employees who worked long hours, they would be most likely to promote those working regular hours. Figure 6.15 illustrates this.

Figure 6.15: Working pattern considered most attractive for promotion by those who would not promote employees who work long hours
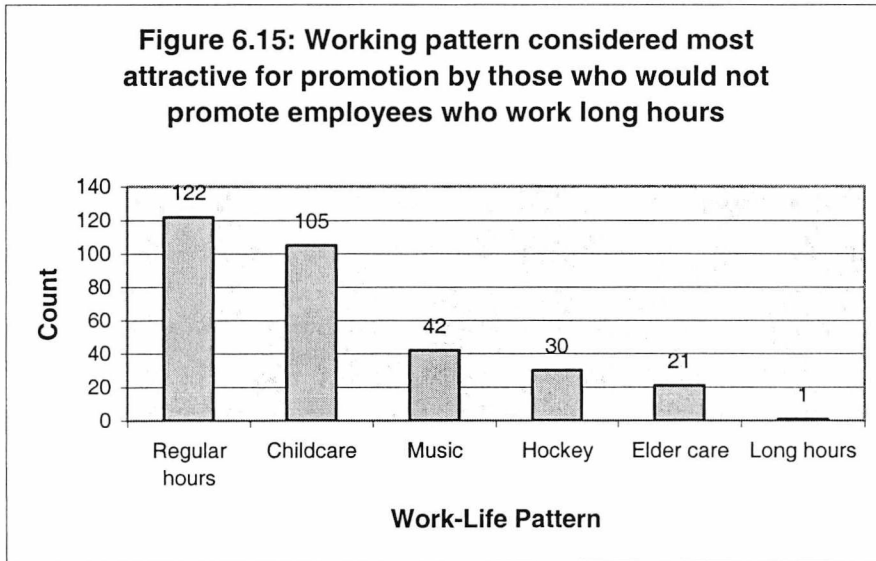
For those who would not promote employees who had elder care, two reasons dominated: family commitments and the perception of a lack of reliability. Figure 6.16 shows all the reasons given for non-promotion for those with elder care responsibilities, from the most cited reason to the least.

Figure 6.16: Reasons given for non-promotion for those with elder care responsibilities
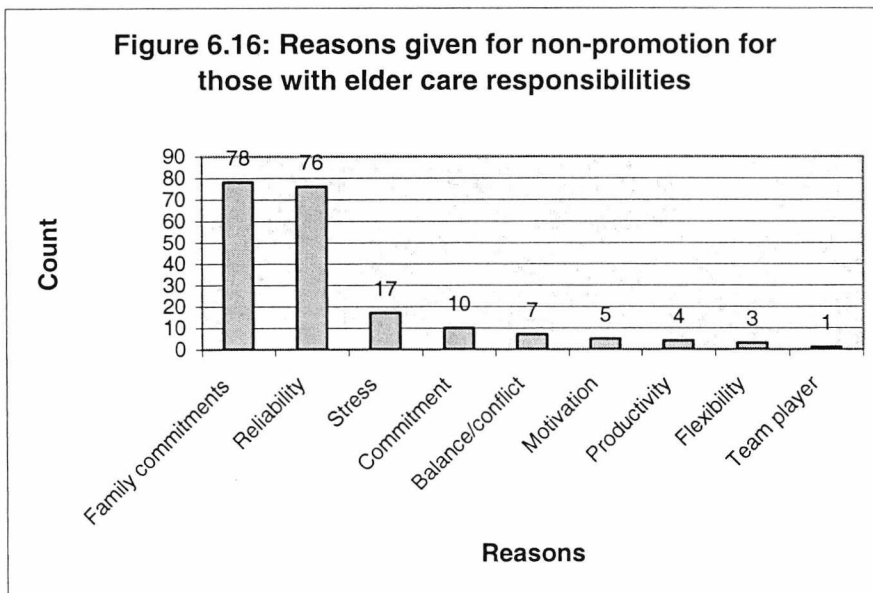
Discussion

The results supported hypothesis 1: the patterns of working seen as most attractive for promotion were long hours and regular hours. Hypothesis 2 was not supported: there were no differences between managerial and non-managerial raters in the order of working patterns considered the most attractive for promotion. With regard to gender differences in promotion prospects, results showed that female administrative employees working flexible hours were less likely to be promoted than male administrative employees, or male and female managerial employees. Also, female raters were more likely than male raters to promote employees with caring responsibilities.

Results also showed that the results from the previous chapter generalise to a working population, with the exception of turnover intention. Employees working long hours were perceived to significantly outperform all others in the workplace who worked less hours because they either worked regular hours or worked some flexible working option. Regular hours were also seen as better in terms of work productivity than any kind of flexible option. As in the previous study, having elder care responsibilities was perceived as having a negative impact on work performance. Working long hours was also seen as having a greater detrimental effect on personal life than any other working option. Regular hours were seen as the most conducive to work-life balance. Also in keeping with the previous study, employees who worked regular hours were perceived to be more positively thought of in the workplace than employees who either worked flexible hours or long hours. Contrary to the findings in the previous chapter, employees working long hours were seen as most likely to leave their organisation when compared to regular and flexible hours of work. Life-work balance was not measured in the previous study, but results in this study showed that employees who worked long hours were perceived to have little conflict between personal life and working life, whereas those with elder care responsibilities were perceived to have significantly more conflict from personal life with work.

Although some research suggests flexible working polices improve productivity (Janman, et al., 2001), other research suggests long hours across the UK are prevalent (Cooper, et al., 2001; Hogarth, et al., 2001; Hyman, et al., 2005; Stevens, et al., 2004). Results in this and the previous study show long hours are perceived to enhance performance at work, although evidence in support of both Janman, et al., (2001) and Cooper, et al., (2001), Hogarth, et al., (2001), Hyman, et al., (2001), and Stevens, et al., (2004) is also evident. Long hours were seen as both the most and least attractive method of working in order to gain promotion at work. Forty-three per cent of raters felt that in order to be successful in the workplace, long hours must prevail, supporting evidence that working overtime is one determinant of career

promotion (Francesconi, 2001). Flexible working was thought of pessimistically in terms of career enhancement, supporting evidence from Cohen and Single (2001) and Houston and Waumsley (2003) although, conversely, in the WLB2 employer survey (Woodland, et al., 2003) findings showed promotion was thought to be equally likely for those who worked flexible hours. Whilst the Woodland, et al., (2004) study had a high response rate (60 per cent), it is possible that those who agreed to take part did so because they already held positive attitudes towards flexible working practices and work-life balance. In keeping with this perception, the current study showed that 37 per cent of raters felt that long hours were the least preferred working option when considering an employee for promotion. This is in keeping with the finding that the employee working long hours has the worst work-life balance, supporting evidence that long hours have a detrimental effect on health and spousal relationships (Worrall & Cooper, 1999). Another explanation for long hours being viewed unfavourably when considering an employee for promotion is that this study has taken place in a climate where people are becoming more and more aware of the term work-life balance (Sturgess, et al., 2000). Long hours of working have had some critical media coverage (e.g. Weathers, 2002) and employers are beginning to add 'flexible working' and 'work-life balance' to job advertisements. Thus, some people support the view that long hours are detrimental to work performance and work-life balance, whilst others understand the detrimental effect of long hours to work-life balance, but still believe them to be necessary for ambitious employees who seek a successful career path.

Role theory offers some explanation for these findings. Role theory predicts that multiple life roles result in inter-role conflict as individuals experience difficulty performing each role successfully because of conflicting demands (Kahn, et al., 1964). According to the theory, cumulative demands of multiple roles can result in role strain. Perhaps employees who work long hours are perceived not to be coping with the conflict others see as inevitable when work demands clash with personal demands. They are therefore seen, by some, as unsuitable for promotion. As in the previous chapter, conflicting views are evident with regard to the merits, or otherwise, of working long hours. On the one hand, they are seen to increase productivity and enhance chances of promotion. On the other, they are seen as the instigator of role conflicts between work and personal life and as detrimental to promotion prospects.

The dissonance experienced with long hours appears to extend to flexible working. In comparison to working long hours, working some sort of flexible option was seen to improve work-life balance, but all flexible options were seen as the least attractive working style in terms of promotion prospects. This supports previous research which suggests that flexible

working is not compatible with career prospects (Houston & Waumsley, 2003; Janman, et al., 2001). Role theory might explain this by suggesting that whilst available resources may prevent or reduce role strain by enabling individuals to cope with these demands, (and flexible working options, supportive supervisors and the overall working environment should all serve as employee resources (Allen, 2001)), it is perhaps that simply having this conflict of interests at all means that, to other work colleagues, employees who use flexible working have too much to do, are barely able to cope with what they have, and are unable to take on any more. They therefore are not considered suitable for promotion.

Notwithstanding these suggestions, results provide other reasons for decisions on promotion. Raters most frequently cited commitment, followed by work-life balance and reliability when considering promotion, and most cited lack of reliability, followed by family-commitments (implying life-work conflict) and lack of general commitment when considering non-promotion. For raters who saw long hours favourably in terms of enhancing promotion prospects, commitment was cited significantly more than any other reason. However, this was not supported by the findings on turnover intention, where employees who worked long hours were seen to be the most likely to leave an organisation. Perhaps this can be explained by the finding that whilst conflict was the most cited reason not to promote an employee who worked long hours, the next most cited reason was ambition. These findings imply that employees who work long hours are seen, by some, as ambitious and therefore unsuitable for promotion because they are the most likely to move on to other organisations.

The contradictory way in which the desire to embrace flexible working policies in terms of work-life balance conflicts with the perception of the necessity to work long hours in order to enhance promotion prospects, might be explained by cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957). Festinger (1957) suggests that when two or more attitudes are inconsistent with each other, or attitudes and behaviour are inconsistent, cognitive dissonance is experienced. When dissonance occurs, there is usually motivation to reduce this unpleasant state by adjusting one of the attitudes, or the behaviour involved in the inconsistency, so that the conflict disappears. It is hard to imagine how dissonance over positive attitudes towards flexible working practices and the perceived need to work long hours to enhance career prospects can be easily reduced. However, it might be that the dissonance involved will manifest itself in greater stress levels and related ill health, as suggested by the lack of work-life balance involved with working long hours, and greater employee turnover, as also suggested by those working long hours. This might provide one explanation for absence due to stress related illness costing the economy thousands of pounds a year (Cooper, et al., 2001).

Whilst there is dissonance over long and flexible hours of work and their desirability with regard to promotion prospects and work-life balance, there appears to be little ambiguity over regular hours of work. After long hours, it was considered the most attractive working pattern in terms of promotion prospects. For those respondents who considered long hours to be detrimental to promotion prospects, regular hours were considered to be the most attractive. The most cited reason for the promotion of employees who worked regular hours, was reliability. They were also seen as having a good work-life balance, implying that working regular hours is seen to avoid the conflict with personal life experienced by working long hours, and the perceived lack of reliability experienced by those who work flexible hours. The finding that those who work regular hours were more positively thought of as work colleagues than any one else who either worked long or flexible hours enhanced this.

The lack of reliability perceived by employees who work flexible hours was expressed most strongly by those having elder care responsibilities. Employees with elder care responsibilities were seen to have the lowest work performance of all working options, to be the most negatively thought of as work colleagues, to have the worst life-work balance of all working options and to have the worst work-life balance, next to long hours. In addition, of all the working patterns considered most attractive for promotion, working flexible hours for elder care fared least well. Reasons given by respondents who would not promote an employee with elder care responsibilities were family commitments and lack of reliability. This trend is worrying given that elder care responsibilities are becoming more prevalent due to an increasing elderly population in the UK (Population Trends, 2003). Perhaps elder care, as opposed to childcare, is perceived as an un-pleasurable task; one forced upon the carer rather than chosen. Coupled with this is perhaps the lack of community support networks for the elderly (Phillips, et al., 2002) which means the carer is more likely to be faced with demands that conflict with work. Contrast this with childcare responsibilities, where community support in the guise of crèches, nurseries and schools provide structure to childcare responsibilities. In addition, childcare may be seen as disruptive in the short term, but as children get older they become less reliant on parents' time. Elder care responsibilities are perhaps seen as longer term; with disruption to the carer likely to get worse as the elderly person grows older.

As well as elder care responsibilities being thought of negatively, employees with childcare were still not considered particularly suitable for promotion, coming after long hours and elder care when looking at working patterns considered least attractive for promotion. Of those who would promote employees who worked long hours, the same raters would be least likely to promote those with childcare. This finding was supported by the result that female

administrative employees working flexible hours for childcare were seen as less likely to be promoted than male administrative employees, or male and female managerial employees. This raises some concern since women continue to carry the majority of childcare responsibilities (White, 2004) and are therefore the ones most likely to use flexible working practices (Stevens, et al., 2004). That male managerial employees and male administrative employees are unlikely to take the burden of childcare responsibilities, and, to support their careers, female managerial employees may be more likely than female administrative workers to have childcare support, women in the early stages of their working lives appear to be at the greatest disadvantage with regard to career prospects. Moreover, work performance was perceived to be worse when employees worked flexible hours than when they worked either long hours or regular hours. Also, using flexible working practices was considered less attractive than long or regular hours when considering an employee for promotion. Since the majority of employees using flexible working practices are women with childcare responsibilities (Thompson, et al., 1999; Stevens, et al., 2004), there is a danger of creating a two-tier workforce: those who use flexible working practices (mainly women) and whose careers will not progress, and those who work long or regular hours, and who are professionally successful. Furthermore, the introduction of the statutory right to request flexible working hours from their employer for those with childcare responsibilities may only serve to widen the career gap between those who use flexible working (mostly women with childcare responsibilities) and others in the workplace. In the light of these suggestions, it is interesting to note that female raters were more likely than male raters to promote employees with childcare responsibilities.

Conclusion

The findings from chapters 5 and 6 seem to indicate that flexible working practices will not necessarily change the patterns of work currently found in the UK. Attitudes of managerial and non-managerial raters towards those who take part in some kind of flexible working option do not differ; flexible working hours are seen as detrimental to work performance and career progression when compared to long and regular hours of work. The reasons given for this were that employees who work flexible hours are seen as less reliable and less committed than those who work long or regular hours. The provision of flexible working patterns by an organisation may not necessarily mean that it is valued or approved by managerial employees or by non-managerial employees. It is likely that women, as chief carers, will make more use of the provision of flexible working options than men, and as a result, the gender gap in the workplace is in danger of further widening. Despite growing initiatives toward work-life balance, flexible working is also seen to be at odds with career advancement. In the process of trying to fulfil multiple roles at work and home, significant

levels of conflict are being experienced between working life and life outside work. Nonetheless, working long hours is still viewed as one of the key ways of showing job commitment, and obtaining career success.

The findings herein contradict previous research findings (e.g. Janman, et al., 2001; Kossek & Ozeki; 1999; Scheibl & Dex, 1998) that suggest flexibility in the workplace appears to increase commitment and improve productivity. However, the findings in this, and the previous study, do support findings that long hours are expected (Hogarth, et al., 2001; Stevens et al., 2004; Worrall & Cooper, 1999), are perceived as showing job commitment (Cooper, 1996) and that flexible working is seen as 'career death' (Houston & Waumsley, 2003; Thompson, et al., 1999). Establishing work-life balance and being professionally successful appear to be viewed as two mutually exclusive constructs. It seems that the government's initiative to introduce flexible working hours for all employees in order to enhance work-life balance has a long way to go before being seen as compatible with professional success. If the government's initiative is to succeed, the perception that employees who work flexible hours are unreliable and lack commitment needs to change. One dominant question requiring investigation presents: 'What is it that might begin to change the existing negative attitudes towards flexible working hours when they are linked with career success and might begin acceptance of flexible working practices?' Perhaps the answer lies in social exchange theory, reciprocity and the psychological contract. The following chapter will investigate.

Chapter 7

Reciprocity, Social Exchange Theory and The Psychological Contract

Introduction

The findings in chapter six showed that employees who worked flexible hours were seen as less reliable and less committed than those who worked long hours. Working long hours was seen as related to career success, in part, because of the commitment this pattern of working illustrated. Following these findings, this chapter investigates possible reasons for these attitudes. Of interest here is to better understand individual work orientations in terms of reciprocity, social exchange theory and the psychological contract. Specifically, the psychological contract has been characterised as:

> 'An implicit understanding by employees that they and their employer will consider each other's needs and desires when taking actions that affect the other. The psychological contract would be strengthened by continued reciprocal behaviour beyond that required by formal agreements. In contrast, any failure to fulfil the terms of the psychological contract would both reduce employees' inclination to work beyond their explicit job responsibilities, and reduce an employer's desire to offer any benefits beyond those formally agreed' (Robinson & Wolfe-Morrison, 1995; Rousseau & McLean-Parks, 1993).

Guest (2004) suggests that within contemporary society, smaller workplaces, increasing flexibility and fragmentation, pervasiveness and urgency of change, growing interest in work-life balance, a decline in the proportion of workers who are covered by established systems of negotiation and a decline in collective orientation are all changing more traditional employment relations. In this context, the psychological contract offers a framework for exploring the changing employment relationship. It is proposed in this chapter that attitudes to flexible working might vary as a function of the psychological contract.

Reciprocity, Social Exchange Theory and The Psychological Contract

The condition of being reciprocal is a relationship in which there is "mutual giving and taking between two parties" (Oxford Dictionary, 2004). The basic tenet of reciprocity is that people should help, and not injure, those who have helped them (Gouldner, 1960). Thus the need to reciprocate is universal but conditional on the receipt of benefits. In an organisational context, the norm of reciprocity provides a framework for understanding employee attitudes and behaviour. Social exchange theory, developed by Homans (1958, 1974) to explain the initiation, strengthening, and continued maintenance of interpersonal relationships, provides a conceptual basis for understanding relationships between individuals and their place of

work. Central to social exchange theory is the norm of reciprocity, which obligates people to respond positively to favourable treatment received from others (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). Falling within the domain of social exchange is the psychological contract, which is "an individual's beliefs about terms and conditions of a reciprocal exchange agreement between that person and another party" (Rousseau, 1989, p. 123).

The term 'psychological contract', with its concept of reciprocal obligations, is often originally credited to Argyis (1960) and Levinson, Price, Munden, and Solley (1962). Initially, however, it evolved from the theory of equilibrium and the concept of mutual expectations (Barnard, 1938). Nonetheless, the central idea of reciprocity and exchange has endured throughout its development. As Argyis notes: "the employee will maintain the high production, low grievances...if the foreman guarantees and respects the norms of the employee informal culture" (1960, p. 97).

The norm of reciprocity underlies psychological contract theory. Rousseau (1989, 1990) characterised the psychological contract as 'an implicit understanding by employees that they and their employer will consider each other's needs and desires when taking actions that affect the other'. Adequate performance by an employee will result in various forms of compensation from the employer (Rousseau & McLean-Parks, 1993). The psychological contract is strengthened by continued reciprocal behaviour beyond that required by formal agreements. In contrast, any failure to fulfil the terms of the psychological contract would both reduce employees' inclination to work beyond their explicit job responsibilities, and reduce an employer's desire to offer any benefits beyond those formally agreed (Robinson & Wolfe-Morrison, 1995; Rousseau & McLean-Parks, 1993). According to social exchange theory, the more favourable an employee perceives his or her job conditions to be, the more they will perceive their organisation to be supportive and appreciative of them as employees (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986; Shore & Shore, 1995) and the more they will respond with favourable attitudes and behaviour towards work.

Psychological contracts, comprising perceived obligations, must be distinguished from expectations, which are general beliefs held by employees about what they will find in their job and the organisation. For example, a new manager may expect to receive a high salary, to be promoted, or to find he/she has a comfortable office. These expectations emanate from sources such as past experience and social norms. Psychological contracts, by contrast, entail beliefs about what employees believe they are entitled to receive from their employer, and what the employer believes they are entitled to receive from their employee because they perceived each to have conveyed promises to provide those things. Thus, the present

conceptualisation of the psychological contract focuses on individuals' belief and interpretation of a promissory contract. Unlike formal or implied contracts, the psychological contract is inherently perceptual, and one party's understanding of the contract may not be shared by the other party. Psychological contract breach is a subjective experience; referring to the perception that another has failed to fulfil adequately the promised obligations of the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1989). Psychological contract breach can and does occur in the absence of an actual breach. It is an employee's or employer's belief that a breach has occurred that affects his or her behaviour and attitude, regardless of whether that belief is valid according to whether an actual breach took place.

Empirically, numerous studies have shown employees to reciprocate a perceived breach in the psychological contract by an employer by reducing their commitment to the organisation (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000), lowering their trust in the employer (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994), socially withdrawing (Robinson & Wolfe-Morrison, 1995) and reducing their performance (Robinson, 1996). Employees therefore reciprocate treatment by the employer by adjusting their attitudes and behaviour accordingly.

The majority of studies examining the psychological contract concentrate on the employee perspective rather than the employer perspective. This may be because the latter is more difficult to define, given that it involves issues about who speaks for the organisation (Schalk & Rousseau, 2001). However, as Rousseau and Tijorowala (1998) note, "central to the workings of psychological contracts is the interplay between employee and employer obligations, their relative magnitude and contingent relations" (p. 692). The focus of this interplay has generally taken the direction from employer to employee. The employee may perceive a breach of contract when, having fulfilled its obligations to the employer, the employer does not reciprocate. If the norm of reciprocity holds true, then the reverse direction should also apply, whereby when employers fulfil their obligations to their employees, an obligation is generated on the part of the employee. This was examined in a study by Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler (2002). Using a longitudinal survey of 1400 public sector employees and 84 managers, results showed evidence of the reciprocal influence that occurs in the exchange relationship between the employee and employer. Their findings demonstrated the norm of reciprocity from both parties in which fulfilling obligations created a perceived obligation on the part of the recipient to reciprocate.

When examining the psychological contract from a management perspective, Guest (2002) acknowledges that the extent to which employers adopt people management practices will influence the state of the psychological contract because the contract is based on

employees' sense of fairness and trust and their belief that the employer is honouring the 'deal' between them. Where the psychological contract is positive, and employees reciprocate with commitment and satisfaction, there will be a positive impact on business performance. However, in a recent report by CIPD (2004), managers felt that employees were better at delivering their side of the 'deal' than employers, highlighting that line managers have high expectations of employees, often expecting them to take on tasks outside their job descriptions and to be flexible in the hours they work to suit the organisation. There are good arguments to support this. As noted by Thompson (2003), whilst the rhetoric of the psychological contract is sound, it can seem a little idealistic in real terms. It is often difficult for managers to keep their side of the deal when issues such as productivity, hours of work, budgets, deadlines and globalizing markets pressurise day-to-day functioning. The same author notes:

> There are periods when work relations are not the focal point or at least the driver... An emphasis solely on the workplace is likely to neglect the underlying machinery of markets. This is not, by and large, a question of mendacious exploiters and obstructive middle management, but the structural characteristics of shareholder-driven, de-regulated and globalizing markets on the one hand, and the extended hierarchies that constitute forms of co-ordination within and between firms on the other. (Thompson, 2003, p. 366).

Although it may be difficult for managers to prioritise their employees in the face of market pressures, psychological contract theory is, nonetheless, based on a perception of mutuality. It has also been argued that 'actual' mutuality is essential for employer and employee if they are to achieve their goals (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004). Mutuality provides the opportunity for both behaviours and commitments to be accepted in the context of the relationship (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004). Creating and sustaining mutuality of understanding between employers and employee facilitates not only better quality employment relationships, but also contributes to improved individual performance and career success. Efforts to create common information and shared understandings between workers and their managers are likely to enhance mutuality (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004).

Thus, the psychological contract is a useful concept for understanding what employees and employers expect from a working environment, not only in terms of job demands but also in terms of entitlements to work-life benefits and flexible working arrangements. Indeed, it has recently been argued that, based on mutual trust, work-life balance can be a key factor in establishing a positive psychological contract (Coussey, 2000). Few work-life studies have

explicitly addressed psychological contract theory, although Roehling, Roehling and Moen (2001) found that flexible working policies are consistently related to employee loyalty, particularly for parents of young children. Interestingly, perceptions of informal support were also strongly related to employee loyalty. UK research (Rice, 2002) suggests that British employees now have a higher sense of entitlement to flexible working arrangements than in the past and they feel that the psychological contract may be violated when flexible working or work-life benefits are not available to them.

Despite these insights, there has been no published research into managers' attitudes about the way in which employees working flexible options impacts on the psychological contract. Specifically, if an employer permits flexible hours to be worked on the implicit understanding that it will not negatively affect work performance, and the employee does not reciprocate with flexibility, good performance, reliability or the like, then the psychological contract will weaken. The employer may feel they are not getting an exchange of reciprocity and therefore perceive a violation of the psychological contract. This builds on the idea of the exchange relationship and of a contract involving at least two parties and, as Guest and Conway (2002) note: "The perception of both parties to the employment relationship, organisation and individual, of the reciprocal promises and obligations implied in that relationship" (p. 22). The primary focus of the psychological contract is therefore the employment relationship at the individual level between the employer and employee. It enables the exploration of perceptions of both parties to the employment relationship when flexible working is negotiated between employer and employee to determine the level of mutuality of perceptions of promises and obligations and their fulfilment, and the extent to which there is a shared view of the attitudinal and behavioural consequences.

Thus, when couched in the terminology of the work-life balance literature, the degree to which an employee perceives support and reciprocity in the work-place might be affected by the level of flexibility in working hours offered by the employer or by their attitude towards flexible working practices. In keeping with social exchange theory, if both the employer is supportive of employees using flexible working practices, and the employee offers flexibility in hours without performance deficit, loyalty to the organisation, commitment, or the like, as a result, then the psychological contract will remain strong. If either side fails to reciprocate in a fair way, the psychological contract will deteriorate.

Aims of this study

In light of the knowledge of the psychological contract, the focal point of interest in this chapter was to examine the attitudes of the employer and the employee about working hours

and reciprocity. The aim of the chapter was to investigate how different orientations to work might predict attitudes to flexible working. According to social exchange theory and the tenet of reciprocity, it was predicted that mutual beliefs would be related to having positive attitudes towards flexible working.

Given the findings in previous chapters that success in the workplace is driven by long working hours, this chapter also explored attitudes towards the psychological contract with those who favour long hours of work. It was expected that, although the psychological contract may be weighted in favour of the employer, holding employer-orientated beliefs would be related to having favourable attitudes towards long hours. In contrast, it was expected that employee-orientated beliefs would be related to having negative attitudes towards long hours.

If there is a disregard for reciprocity by individuals holding favourable attitudes towards long hours it suggests that attitudes towards flexible working are either positive or negative rather than held on a continuum between the two. Whilst much research has shown that social attitudes have usually been considered unidimensional and bipolar by researchers who have conducted attitude scales (e.g. Guttman, 1944; Likert, 1932; Thurston, 1928), research by Kerlinger (1984) has shown that social attitudes often have a bidimensional and unipolar structure in the population at large. Kerlinger (1984) presented numerous factor analytic studies, typically obtaining a two-factor structure of social attitudes that supported his claim that such two dimensional structures are common. Whether or not attitudes towards flexible working are unipolar will be examined in this chapter using factor analysis. If the two-factor hypothesis of positive and negative attitudes towards flexible working is upheld, it will support the contention that individuals can hold both positive and negative attitudes towards the same concept. This idea, known as 'attitude ambivalence', has been operationalised by authors such as Jonas, Diehl and Brömer (1997); Sparks, Connor, James, Shepherd and Povey (2001) and Thompson, Zanna, and Griffin (1995) within the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991, 2002).

In line with the attitudes towards long hours of working and the rather traditional attitudes towards women, childcare and flexible working shown in chapters five and six, differences in attitudes with regard to reciprocity and the psychological contract were expected in this study. More specifically, managers were expected to believe that long hours lead to achievement, and for their staff to perform, regardless of any reciprocal arrangement. It was also expected that women with childcare responsibilities would believe most in a reciprocal

relationship between managers and staff. Women, more than men, were predicted to hold favourable attitudes towards flexible working arrangements.

Previous research has illustrated that perceptions of working long hours lead to career success (Cohen & Single, 2001; Houston & Waumsley, 2003; Worral & Cooper, 1999), that sustaining mutuality of understanding between employers and employee facilitates a better quality of employment relationship (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004), and, conversely, that those working flexible hours are equally worthy of career success as others (Woodland, et al., 2003). Building on these findings, the hypothesised model in this chapter measures attitudes about reciprocity between managers and staff in the workplace and the way in which these relate to attitudes towards long hours of work and flexible working. Structural equation modelling was conducted to analyse the data because the interpretation of a final structural equation model, if it fits the data well, is more meaningful than regression models. A regression analysis provides a set of parameter estimates and a set of standard errors for those parameter estimates. Because of the nature of the equations for the regression analysis, it is always possible to find satisfactory solutions to the equations. The model obtained from a regression analysis can never be 'wrong' in the sense of it not fitting the data (Miles & Shevlin, 2001). When data is analysed using a structural equation modelling approach, a hypothesis is formulated about the underlying model, and it is that hypothesis that is tested. If the model is appropriate, the parameter estimates can be interpreted. However, it is possible to be wrong about the model. If this is the case and the model does not fit the data, the parameter estimates will not be meaningful and cannot be interpreted.

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was conducted to investigate whether or not individuals might be categorised into different orientations towards work. Three 'types' of individuals holding specific attitudes towards work orientation are predicted. The first are individuals who hold employer-orientated beliefs, who expect high performance from work colleagues regardless of reciprocity and believe long hours to be necessary for career success. It is also expected that there will be a negative relationship with individuals who hold employer-orientated beliefs and positive attitudes towards alternative working practices. The second are individuals who hold employee-orientated beliefs, who are mainly concerned with the rights of the worker. These individuals will hold negative attitudes towards long hours and positive attitudes towards alternative working arrangements. Finally, there will be individuals who hold mutual beliefs, who believe reciprocity between employees and employers to be important to overall results in the workplace, leading to favourable attitudes towards flexible working arrangements. It is also expected that individuals who hold mutual beliefs will hold positive attitudes towards long hours of work and success and that there will be a negative

relationship between individuals who hold mutual beliefs and negative attitudes towards long hours. The hypothesised model is depicted in Figure 7.1.

Figure 7.1: Hypothesised model of orientation to work
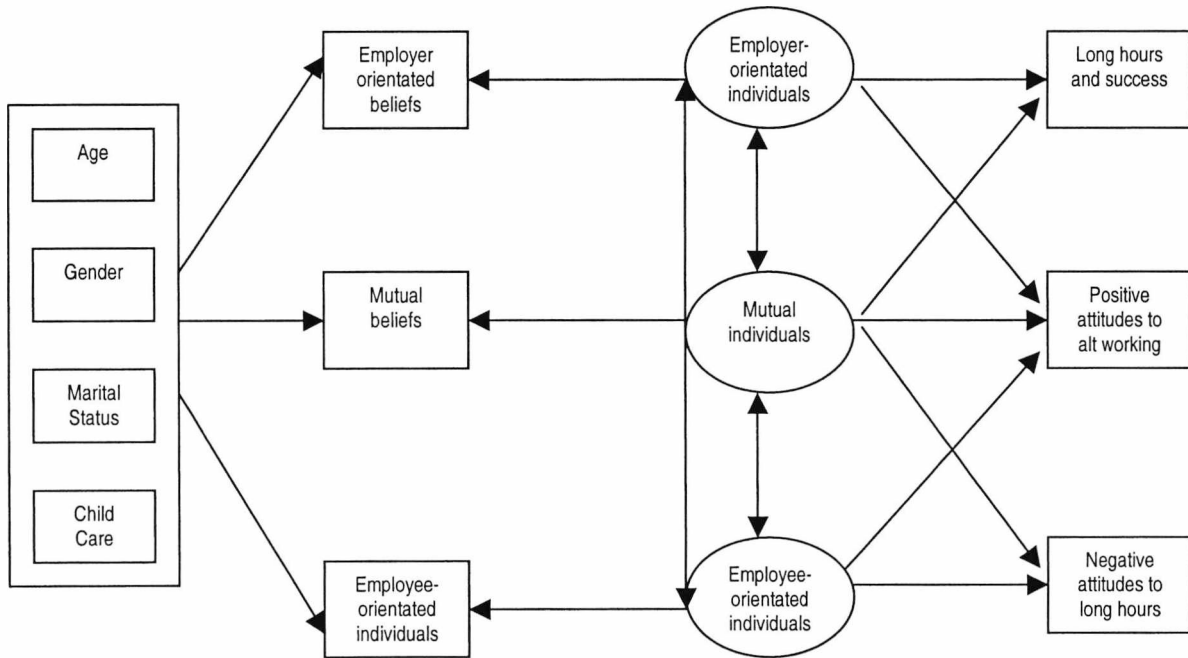
To develop and assess the reliability of scales in this survey, a pilot study was carried out before the main study was conducted.

Pilot Study

Design

A questionnaire survey was conducted. In addition to the socio-demographic questions, the questionnaire consisted of a number of items making up scales to investigate attitudes towards work, long hours of work, and alternative working practices. Further included were items that made up scales to examine attitudes towards the psychological contract, organisational identity (Abrams, et al., 1998), turnover intention (Abrams, et al., 1998), and work performance (Robinson, 1996). The questionnaire used for the pilot study can be found at Appendix 6.1.

Participants

Thirty-three participants took part in this survey. Twenty-four were female and nine were male. The participants varied in age from 21 to 63 years of age, with a mean of 39 years. Twenty-six were married or cohabiting, seven were single or divorced. All participants were British civilians working full-time for a British Police Force.

Procedure

Fifty questionnaires were sent out to civilian personnel in the British Police Force. Distribution of the questionnaires was random. All ethical guidelines set out by the British Psychological Society were followed. At the beginning of each questionnaire, there were clear instructions about confidentiality and anonymity. It was also made clear that completion of the questionnaire was not compulsory. No formal de-brief was provided because no active deception was used but all questionnaires contained contact details of the researcher for those who wanted to ask questions about the study. All respondents were thanked for their participation. Thirty-three completed questionnaires were returned, a response rate of sixty six percent.

Evaluation Scales

Task orientation at work was measured using three items (e.g. It is important to be reliable at work).

Long hours leading to achievement was measured using four items (e.g. Working longer hours than contracted makes it possible to meet deadlines at work).

Negative attitudes towards long hours were measured using three items (e.g. Working long hours leads to errors).

Negative attitudes towards flexible working were measured using nine items (e.g. Alternative working practices mean leaving work undone to get home).

Positive attitudes towards flexible working were measured using ten items (e.g. Alternative working practices enhance production at work).

Employer orientated beliefs were measured using seven items (e.g. Managers have the right to expect flexibility from their staff).

Employee orientated beliefs were measured using four items (e.g. Staff have the right to expect flexibility from their managers).

Mutual beliefs were measured using seven items (e.g. There should be mutual give and take between managers and staff in the workplace).

Own psychological contract was measured using five items (e.g. In my organisation, my manager has the right to expect mutual give and take).

Organisational identity was measured using five items taken from Abrams, et al., 1998 (e.g. My organisation is important to me).

Turnover intention was measured using three items taken from Abrams, et al., 1998 (e.g. I think about leaving this organisation).

Performance was measured using two items from Robinson, 1996 (e.g. How would your employer probably rate your work performance).

Sociodemographic Questions

Included in the sociodemographic questions were: Age, gender, ethnic category, ages of children, marital status, actual working hours

Scale Reliability

The estimates of internal consistency for each of the scales were calculated utilising Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Table P7.1 shows the reliability of each of the scales

Table P7.1: Cronbach Alpha for scales on working practices pilot survey

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	N
Task orientation at work	.5275	33
Long hours and achievement	.8000	33
Negative attitudes to long hours	.6588	33
Negative attitudes to flexible working	.8011	33
Positive attitudes to flexible working	.8599	33
Employer-orientated beliefs	.5947	33
Employee-orientated beliefs	.4309	33
Mutual beliefs	.7436	33
Own Psychological Contract	.5423	33
Organisational Identity	.9576	33
Turnover Intention	.7542	33
Performance	.6248	33

Task orientation showed particularly low reliability, despite the low number of participants in this study. This could not be improved by deleting items. It was therefore decided to measure this concept using the three items making up this scale as three independent items in the main study. Three further scales: Employer-orientated beliefs, Employee-orientated beliefs and Own Psychological Contract, also showed low reliability. The reliability statistic suggested reliability on all three scales would be increased if specific items were removed. Confirmatory factor analysis with oblique rotation was performed on the scales, which confirmed some of the items loaded on different factors. Both the reliability statistic and confirmatory factor analysis lead to the exclusion of two items from Employer-orientated beliefs (Managers have the right to lay staff off if work demands are low; Managers have the right to have profit/performance as their highest priority); two items from Employee-orientated beliefs (Staff have the right to expect loyalty from their managers; Staff should expect to meet deadlines no matter what); two items from Own Psychological Contract (In my organisation my manager is appreciative of my efforts; In my organisation, my manager gives time off in lieu if I work extra hours). Table P7.2 shows the revised reliability of each of the scales.

Table P7.2: Cronbach Alpha for revised scales on working practices pilot survey

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	N
Long hours and achievement	.8000	33
Negative attitudes to long hours	.6588	33
Negative attitudes to flexible working	.8011	33
Positive attitudes to flexible working	.8599	33
Employer-orientated	.6647	33
Employee-orientated beliefs	.6509	33
Mutual beliefs	.7436	33
Own Psychological Contract	.7365	33
Organisational Identity	.9576	33
Turnover Intention	.7542	33
Performance	.6248	33

On the basis of the small pilot study, the revised scales were considered reliable. This pilot work and communication with the organisation led to the phrase 'flexible working' being changed to 'alternative working practices' in the main questionnaire. This was to prevent respondents from confusing or misinterpreting 'flexible working' with the term 'flexi-time'. In the socio-demographics section the question that asked 'What organisation do you work for'? was deleted since all participants worked for the same British Police Force.

Main Study
Method

Participants

All participants (Total N = 393) were civilians working full-time for a British Police Force and comprised of 80 male managerial employees, 83 female managerial employees, 114 male non-managerial employees and 116 female non-managerial employees. Age ranged from 18 to 64 years with a mean of 41 years. Two hundred and seventy-two were married or cohabiting, 104 were single, separated, widowed or divorced. Two hundred and twenty had children, 156 did not.

Design and Procedure

A questionnaire survey was conducted. Questionnaires were sent to a central police office and distributed in the internal mail of each police department under the understanding that

employees could complete them during working hours. 139 male managers, 151 female managers, 250 male non-managers and 250 female non-managers were asked to complete the questionnaire before returning it to Kent University in a pre-paid envelope. All ethical guidelines set out by the British Psychological Society were followed. At the beginning of each questionnaire, there were clear instructions about confidentiality and anonymity. It was also made clear that completion of the questionnaire was not compulsory. No formal de-brief was provided because no active deception was used, but all questionnaires contained contact details of the researcher for those who wanted to ask questions about the study. All respondents were thanked for their participation. The response rate for managerial employees was 56 per cent. The response rate for non-managerial employees was 45 per cent.

Materials

In addition to the socio-demographic questions, the questionnaire consisted of a number of items making up scales to investigate attitudes towards work, long hours of work, and alternative working practices. Further included were scales to examine work-orientated beliefs, organisational identity, turnover intention and work performance. All except the demographic questions were measured using 7-point Likert scales (1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely). A copy of the questionnaire can be found at Appendix 6.2.

Evaluation Scales

Task orientation at work did not form a reliable scale and was therefore measured using three independent items: At work it is important to keep on top of workload; at work it is important to meet deadlines; it is important to be reliable at work. The higher the mean response on each item, the better the attitude toward work was perceived to be.

Long hours leading to achievement was measured using four items (e.g. Working longer hours than contracted makes it possible to meet deadlines at work). Cronbach's Alpha = .84. The higher the mean response, the more positive the attitude toward long hours of work.

Negative attitudes towards long hours were measured using three items (e.g. Working long hours leads to errors). Cronbach's Alpha = .74. The higher the mean response, the more negative the attitude toward long hours of work.

Negative attitudes towards alternative working practices were measured using nine items (e.g. Alternative working practices mean leaving work undone to get home). Cronbach's Alpha = .85. The higher the mean response, the more negative the attitude toward alternative working hours.

Positive attitudes towards alternative working practices were measured using ten items (e.g. Alternative working practices enhance production at work). Cronbach's Alpha = .88. The higher the mean response, the more positive the attitude toward alternative working hours.

Employer-orientated beliefs were measured using five items (e.g. Managers have the right to expect flexibility from their staff). Cronbach's Alpha = .70. The higher the mean response, the higher the emphasis on the belief that managers have the right to expect their employees to perform.

Employee-orientated beliefs were measured using two items (e.g. Staff have the right to expect flexibility from their managers). Cronbach's Alpha = .70. The higher the mean response, the higher the emphasis on the belief towards the rights of the worker.

Mutual beliefs were measured using seven items (e.g. There should be mutual give and take between managers and staff in the workplace). Cronbach's Alpha = .82. The higher the mean response, the higher the emphasis on mutuality between staff and managers.

Own psychological contract was measured using three items (e.g. In my organisation, my manager has the right to expect mutual give and take). Cronbach's Alpha = .81. The higher the mean response, the stronger the psychological contract is believed to be in own workplace.

Organisational identity was measured using five items taken from Abrams, et al., 1998 (e.g. My organisation is important to me). Cronbach's alpha = .97. The higher the mean response, the stronger the organisational identity.

Turnover intention was measured using three items taken from Abrams, et al., 1998 (e.g. I think about leaving this organisation). Cronbach's alpha = .81. The higher the mean response the higher the turnover intention.

Subjective perception of Work Performance was measured using two items from Robinson, 1996 (e.g. How would your employer probably rate your work performance). Cronbach's alpha = .75. The higher the mean response the better the work performance was perceived to be.

Sociodemographic Questions

Included in the sociodemographic questions were: Age, gender, ethnic category, ages of children, marital status, actual working hours

Results

Following estimates of internal consistency utilising Cronbach's coefficient alpha being carried out for each of the scales (already reported in the evaluation scales above), descriptive statistics were conducted and are reported in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1: Means and standard deviations of all variables

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
At work it is important to keep on top of workload	6.41	.88	392
At work it is important to meet deadlines	6.13	.96	392
It is important to be reliable at work	6.55	.66	391
Working long hours leads to achievement	4.93	1.34	393
Negative attitudes towards long hours	5.64	1.13	392
Negative attitudes towards alternative working hours	3.54	.99	393
Positive attitudes towards alternative working hours	4.91	.98	393
Employer-orientated beliefs	4.79	1.01	393
Employee-orientated beliefs	5.68	1.02	393
Mutual beliefs	5.66	.69	393
Own psychological contract	5.94	.99	393
Organisational identity	5.07	1.37	393
Turnover intention	3.75	1.77	393
Subjective perception of work performance	5.70	.75	390

Positive and negative attitudes towards alternative working practices were examined to see if the items measuring both concepts were distinct, rather than existing on a continuum from positive to negative. Although both positive and negative attitudes to alternative working practices in this study were correlated, the reliability of one scale was not as high as the reliability of two separate scales. Furthermore, factor analysis showed the items factored into two distinct factors, justifying the use of two discrete scales to explore attitudes towards alternative working practices. Table 7.2 shows the correlation and reliability of scales. Table 7.3 shows the factor analysis.

Table 7.2: Pearson correlation between positive and negative attitudes to alternative working practices; reliability of positive and negative attitudes to alternative working practices as one scale and two separate scales

Pearson correlation between positive and negative attitudes to alternative working practices	Cronbach's alpha for positive and negative attitudes to alternative working practices	Cronbach's alpha for positive attitudes to alternative working practices	Cronbach's alpha for negative attitudes to alternative working practices
-.344**	.67	.88	.80

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

Table 7.3: Factor analysis for positive and negative attitudes to alternative working practices

Item	Factor 1 Positive attitudes towards alternative working practices Eigenvalue = 5.92 % of Variance Explained = 31.15	Factor 2 Negative attitudes towards alternative working practices Eigenvalue = 2.75 % of Variance Explained = 14.47
Alternative working practices mean people are absent from work less	.609	-.026
Alternative working practices mean people stay with the organisation longer	.762	.038
Alternative working practices enhance productivity at work	.715	-.231
Alternative working practices allow people to meet responsibilities away from work	.694	-.150
Alternative working practices result in loyalty from employees	.716	-.044
Alternative working practices reduce stress at work	.732	-.133
If alternative working practices were not available, some people would not be able to work	.547	.025
Alternative working practices help to balance work with home life	.778	-.111
Alternative working practices relieve the pressures of the standard 9-5 working week	.586	-.239
Alternative working practices make for a more committed workforce	.751	-.251
Alternative working practices lead to poor work performance	-.309	.512
Alternative working practices mean leaving work undone to get home	-.158	.657
Alternative working practices mean that sometimes the job does not get finished	-.161	.717
Alternative working practices create strain for colleagues who do not use them	-.001	.635
Alternative working practices mean that workload sometimes mounts up	-.162	.602
Alternative working practices mean having to leave work at specific times to meet outside responsibilities	.122	.425
Alternative working practices make employees appear to be inflexible at work	-.066	.601
Alternative working practices make employees appear to be unreliable	-.084	.633
Alternative working practices mean other colleagues are sometimes let down	-.168	.699

Relationship between variables

The patterns of relationships between the different variables were examined by Pearson product-moment correlations. These correlations are presented in Table 7.4, which shows most to be significant at $p < .01$ level (two-tailed). It must be noted, however, that with a relatively large sample size even the effects that are, in reality, very small, will appear significant in statistical tests. Therefore the analysis of results should be based on the size of the standardised coefficients rather than their mere significance levels.

Table 7.4: Pearson correlations between all evaluation scales

N = 390	Imp to meet dead lines	Imp to be rel at work	Long hrs lead to achiev	Neg att to long hours	Neg att to alt work pract	Pos att to alt work pract	Employer orient belief	Employee orient belief	Mut belief	Own Psy cont	Org id	Turn	Perf
At work it is important to keep on top of workload (single item)	.383**	.233**	.196**	.140**	-.032	.034	.284**	.225**	.268**	.244**	.127*	-.073	.161**
At work it is important to meet deadlines (single item)		.188**	.353**	.069	-.060	.141**	.325**	.095	.358**	.221**	.109**	-.082	.111*
It is important to be reliable at work (single item)			.041	.093	.069	.033	.193**	.129*	.230**	.238**	.177**	-.086	.147**
Working long hours leads to achievement				-.080	.103*	.138**	.287**	.139**	.350**	.215**	.070	.021	.017
Negative attitudes towards long hours					.119*	.020	-.099	.199**	-.035	-.027	-.169**	.081	.001
Negative attitudes towards alternative working practices						-.344**	.050	.054	-.030	.031	.017	.035	.069
Positive attitudes towards alternative working practices							.109*	.062	.210**	.181**	.093	-.003	-.078
Employer-orientated beliefs								.309**	.484**	.448**	.291**	-.133**	.073
Employee-orientated beliefs									.345**	.214**	.052	.010	.061
Mutual beliefs										.487**	.178**	-.116*	.110*
Own psychological contract											.234**	-.143**	.176**
Organisational identity												-.534**	.262**
Turnover intention													-.140**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Believing it to be important to keep on top of workload and to meet deadlines are correlated. Believing it to be important to meet deadlines at work is positively related to employer orientated beliefs, and mutual beliefs. Organisational identity and turnover intention are strongly negatively related, showing that the more one identifies with their organisation, the less likely they are to leave it.

Analysis of Variance

The assumptions of normality, independence and homogeneity of variance for between-subjects ANOVA were met. Childcare responsibilities, gender, marital status and management versus non-management, with age as a covariate, were examined with regard to the measurement scales.

Task Orientation:

At work, it is important to keep on top of workload

Analysis of variance showed a main effect of gender, $F(1, 340) = 4.24$, $p < .05$, $Ms = .69$; marital status, $F(1, 340) = 6.99$, $p < .01$, $Ms = .69$; and childcare, $F(1, 340) = 6.69$, $p < .01$, $Ms = .69$. A two-way interaction was found between gender and marital status, $F(1, 340) = 9.18$, $p < .01$, $Ms = .69$; and between gender and childcare, $F(1, 340) = 5.15$, $p < .05$, $Ms = .69$. Three-way interactions were found between management versus non-management, gender and marital status, $F(1, 340) = 4.36$, $p < .05$, $Ms = .69$; and between gender, marital status and childcare, $F(1, 340) = 6.13$, $p < .01$, $Ms = .69$.

Females ($M = 6.42$, $SD = .67$) were more likely to believe that, at work, it is important to keep on top of workload, than were males ($M = 6.17$, $SD = .92$). Married or cohabiting individuals ($M = 6.45$, $SD = .79$) were the most likely marital category to believe that, at work, it is important to keep on top of workload. Individuals without childcare responsibilities ($M = 6.47$, $SD = .85$) were more likely to believe it important to keep on top of workload than those with childcare responsibilities ($M = 6.11$, $SD = .74$). Married or cohabiting males ($M = 6.52$, $SD = .77$) and females ($M = 6.40$, $SD = .73$) and females without a partner ($M = 6.45$, $SD = .64$) were all more likely to believe it important to keep on top of workload than males without a partner ($M = 5.81$, $SD = 1.35$). The same pattern was evident for those with childcare responsibilities. Males (6.48, $SD = .70$) and females ($M = 6.46$, $SD = .63$) without childcare responsibilities and females with childcare responsibilities ($M = 6.38$, $SD = .79$) were all more likely to believe it important to keep on top of workload than males with childcare responsibilities ($M = 5.81$, $SD = 1.35$). Non-managerial males without a partner ($M = 5.57$, $SD = 1.03$) were the least likely to believe it important to keep on top of workload. Males with

childcare responsibilities, but without a partner (M = 5.25, SD = .92) were also the least likely to believe it important to keep on top of workload.

Task Orientation:
At work, it is important to meet deadlines

Analysis of variance showed a main effect of marital status, $F(1, 340) = 3.83$, $p < .05$, $Ms = .94$, and of childcare $F(1, 340) = 4.50$, $p < .05$, $Ms = .94$. A three-way interaction was found between gender, marital status and childcare, $F(1, 340) = 4.40$, $p < .05$, $Ms = .94$.

Individuals with partners ($M = 6.18$, $SD = .52$) were more likely to believe in the importance of meeting deadlines at work than those without partners ($M = 5.90$, $SD = .64$). Those without childcare responsibilities ($M = 6.21$, $SD = .42$) were more likely to believe in the importance of meeting work deadlines than those with childcare responsibilities ($M = 5.87$, $SD = .34$). Males without partners but with childcare responsibilities (M = 5.25, SD = 1.08) were the least likely to believe in the importance of meeting work deadlines.

Task Orientation:
It is important to be reliable at work

Analysis of variance showed a main effect of age, $F(1, 339) = 8.25$, $p < .01$, $Ms = .44$. The older individuals were the more they believed it important to be reliable at work.

Working long hours leads to achievement
No effects were found.

Negative attitudes towards long hours
No effects were found.

Negative attitudes towards alternative working hours

Analysis of variance showed a main effect of age, $F(1, 341) = 7.38$, $p < .01$, $Ms = .96$. The older individuals are, the more negatively they feel towards alternative working arrangements.

Positive attitudes towards alternative working hours

Analysis of variance showed a main effect of gender, $F(1, 321) = 6.28$, $p < .01$, $Ms = 1.02$. Females (M = 5.07, SD = .69) held more positive attitudes towards alternative working hours than did males (M= 4.62, SD = .94).

Employer Orientated Beliefs

Analysis of variance showed a main effect of gender, $F(1, 341) = 4.71$, $p < .05$, $Ms = .99$. A three-way interaction was found between gender, marital status and childcare, $F(1, 341) = 8.59$, $p < .01$, $Ms = .99$.

Females ($M = 4.92$, $SD = .37$) held employer orientated beliefs more strongly than males ($M = 4.59$, $SD = .78$). Males without partners but with childcare responsibilities ($M = 3.98$, $SD = .51$) held employer orientated beliefs less strongly than any male or female in any other marital category ($M = 4.98$, $SD = 1.03$).

Employee Orientated Beliefs

No effects were found.

Mutual Beliefs

Analysis of variance showed a two-way interaction between non-managerial and managerial staff and childcare, $F(1, 341) = 5.33$, $p < .05$, $Ms = .49$. Managerial staff with childcare ($M = 5.88$, $SD = .34$) held mutual beliefs the most. Managerial staff without childcare responsibilities ($M = 5.57$, $SD = .42$) held mutual beliefs the least.

Own Psychological Contract

Analysis of variance showed a two-way interaction between marital status and childcare, $F(1, 342) = 4.37$, $p < .05$, $Ms = .97$. Individuals without a partner but with childcare responsibilities believed most that their own psychological contract was strong ($M = 6.32$, $SD = 1.02$). Those who thought their own psychological contract was least strong were individuals with a partner and childcare responsibilities ($M = 5.86$, $SD = .58$) although the mean is still high.

Organisational Identity

Analysis of variance showed a main effect of age, $F(1, 342) = 6.21$, $p < .01$, $Ms = 1.69$. A four-way way interaction was found between management versus non-management, gender, marital status and childcare, $F(1, 342) = 5.23$, $p < .01$, $Ms = 1.69$. The older people are, the more they identify with their organisation. Managerial males with partners but no childcare responsibilities identified least with their organisation ($M = 3.31$, $SD = 1.00$). Managerial females with childcare responsibilities but no partner identified most with their organisation ($M = 5.75$, $SD = 1.11$).

Turnover Intention

Analysis of variance showed a main effect of gender, $F(1, 342) = 4.18$, $p < .05$, $Ms = 2.98$. A two-way interaction was found between management versus non-management and gender, $F(1, 342) = 4.19$, $p < .05$, $Ms = 2.98$.

Males ($M = 4.11$, $SD = 1.03$) were more likely to leave their organisation than females ($M = 3.59$, $SD = .82$). Male managers were the most likely to leave ($M = 4.59$, $SD = .67$) with female managers the least likely to leave ($M = 3.55$, $SD = .72$).

Perception of Performance

Analysis of variance showed a main effect of age, $F(1, 341) = 8.08$, $p < .01$, $Ms = .55$. The older individuals are, the higher they believe their performance at work to be.

Hierarchical Multiple Regression

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine the contribution of the psychological contract to positive attitudes towards alternative working practices, negative attitudes towards alternative working practices, long hours and success in the workplace, and negative attitudes towards long working hours. Before the regression analysis was performed, the key assumptions in multiple regression analysis were checked. The residuals scatter plot showed the assumptions of normality, homoscedasticity and linearity were all met. The independent variables were also examined for collinearity. The Durbin-Watson statistic ranged from 1.8 to 2.1 suggested the assumption of independence was met in all the regression analyses conducted. Results of the variance inflation factor (all less than 2.0), and collinearity tolerance (all greater than .70) suggested that the estimated βs are well established in the following regression models. Casewise diagnostics identified three outliers among the cases, which were subsequently excluded from the regression models.

Positive attitudes towards alternative working practices

To examine the contribution of the psychological contract to positive attitudes towards alternative working practices, the demographic variables of age, gender, marital status, management or non-management, job contract (types of hours worked), and childcare responsibilities were entered in the first step of the analysis. Measures of employer-orientated beliefs, employee-orientated beliefs, mutual beliefs, own psychological contract, and organisational identity were entered into the second step. This allowed for an examination of the extent to which beliefs in work orientation accounted for additional variance in the dependent variable once the effects of the demographic variables were controlled. At step 1, with age, gender, marital status, managerial or non-managerial, job

contract and childcare responsibilities in the equation, $R^2 = .05$, $F (6, 344) = 3.11$, $p < .01$. Gender ($\beta = .22$, $p < .001$) was a significant predictor of positive attitudes towards alternative working practices. At step 2, mutual beliefs ($\beta = .18$, $p < .01$) significantly contributed to the variance in positive attitudes towards alternative working practices, $R^2 = .11$, $F (5, 339) = 4.56$, $p < .001$. In the final model, $R = .33$, $F (11, 339) = 3.86$, $p < .001$. Table 7.5 summarises the regression analyses.

Table 7.5: Regression analyses designed to test the prediction of positive attitudes towards alternative working practices

Order of entry in set	Predictors in set	Cumulative R^2	Increment in R^2 for set	F for increment in R^2 for set	t for within set predictor	df	Partial correlation (pr)	Squared Partial correlation (pr^2)
1	Age				-.33		-.017	.000
	Gender				3.98***		.209	.044
	Marital status				1.34		.071	.005
	Childcare				.55		.029	.001
	Managerial or non-managerial	.051	.051	3.11	-.44	6, 344	-.023	.001
	Job contract				.34		.018	.000
2	Employer-orientated beliefs				-1.21		-.062	.004
	Employee-orientated beliefs	.111	.060	4.56	.43	5, 399	.022	.000
	Mutual beliefs				2.75**		.141	.019
	Own Psychological contract				1.62		.083	.007
	Organisational identity				1.46		.075	.006

*** Significant at the 0.001 level
** Significant at the 0.01 level

Negative attitudes towards alternative working practices

To examine the contribution of the psychological contract to negative attitudes towards alternative working practices, the demographic variables of age, gender, marital status, management or non-management, job contract (types of hours worked), and childcare responsibilities were entered in the first step of the analysis. Measures of employer-orientated beliefs, employee-orientated beliefs, mutual beliefs, own psychological contract, and organisational identity were entered into the second step. This allowed for an examination of the extent to which beliefs in work orientation accounted for additional

variance in the dependent variable once the effects of the demographic variables were controlled. At step 1, with age, gender, marital status, managerial or non-managerial, job contract and childcare responsibilities in the equation, $R^2 = .06$, $F(6, 347) = 3.55$, $p < .001$. Age ($\beta = .16$, $p < .05$), and job contract ($\beta = -.12$, $p < .05$) were significant predictors of negative attitudes towards alternative working practices. At step 2, employer orientated beliefs, employee orientated beliefs, mutual beliefs, own psychological contract, and organisational identity did not account for any further variance in negative attitudes towards alternative working practices, $R^2 = .07$, $F(5, 342) = .53$, $p = .76$. In the final model, $R = .26$, $F(11, 342) = 2.16$, $p < .05$. Table 7.6 summarises the regression analyses.

Table 7.6: Regression analyses designed to test the prediction of negative attitudes towards alternative working practices

Order of entry in set	Predictors in set	Cumulative R²	Increment in R² for set	F for increment in R² for set	t for within set predictor	df	Partial correlation (pr)	Squared Partial correlation (pr²)
1	Age				2.45*		.128	.016
	Gender				-.18		-.009	.000
	Marital status				-.15		-.008	.000
	Childcare				.61		.032	.001
	Managerial or non-managerial	.058	.058	3.55	1.01	6, 347	.052	.003
	Job contract				-2.34*		-.122	.015
2	Employer-orientated beliefs				.74		.039	.002
	Employee-orientated beliefs	.065	.007	.525	.54	5, 342	.028	.000
	Mutual beliefs				-1.41		-.073	.005
	Own psychological contract				.71		.037	.001
	Organisational identity				-.48		-.025	.001

* Significant at the 0.05 level

Positive attitudes towards long hours and success

To examine the contribution of the psychological contract to positive attitudes toward long hours and success in the workplace, the demographic variables of age, gender, marital status, management or non-management, job contract (types of hours worked), and childcare responsibilities were entered in the first step of the analysis. Measures of employer-

orientated beliefs, employee-orientated beliefs, mutual beliefs, own psychological contract, and organisational identity were entered into the second step. This allowed for an examination of the extent to which work-orientated beliefs accounted for additional variance in the dependent variable once the effects of the demographic variables were controlled. At step 1, with age, gender, marital status, managerial or non-managerial, job contract and childcare responsibilities in the equation, $R^2 = .03$, $F(6, 347) = 1.82$, $p = .09$. There were no significant predictors of positive attitudes toward long hours and success in the workplace. At step 2, employer-orientated beliefs ($\beta = .15$, $p < .05$) and mutual beliefs ($\beta = .25$, $p < .001$) predicted positive attitudes toward long hours and success in the workplace, $R^2 = .16$, $F(5, 342) = 10.38$, $p < .001$. In the final model, $R = .40$, $F(11, 342) = 5.84$, $p < .001$. Table 7.7 summarises the regression analyses.

Table 7.7: Regression analyses designed to test the prediction of positive attitudes toward long hours and success in the workplace

Order of entry in set	Predictors in set	Cumulative R²	Increment in R² for set	F for increment in R² for set	t for within set predictor	df	Partial correlation (pr)	Squared Partial correlation (pr²)
1	Age				-.76		-.040	.001
	Gender				1.59		.084	.007
	Marital status				1.62		.086	.007
	Childcare				-.63		-.033	.001
	Managerial or non-managerial	.031	.031	1.82	-1.68	6, 347	-.089	.008
	Job contract				-.47		-.025	.001
2	Employer-orientated beliefs				2.41*		.119	.014
	Employee-orientated beliefs	.158	.128	10.38	-.21	5, 342	-.010	.000
	Mutual Beliefs				4.06***		.201	.040
	Own psychological contract				.51		.025	.001
	Organisational identity				-.32		-.016	.000

*** Significant at the 0.001 level
* Significant at the 0.05 level

Negative attitudes towards long working hours

To examine the contribution of the psychological contract to negative attitudes towards long working hours, the demographic variables of age, gender, marital status, management or

non-management, job contract (types of hours worked), and childcare responsibilities were entered in the first step of the analysis. Measures of employer-orientated beliefs, employee-orientated beliefs, mutual beliefs, own psychological contract, and organisational identity were entered into the second step. This allowed for an examination of the extent to which work-orientated beliefs accounted for additional variance in the dependent variable once the effects of the demographic variables were controlled. At step 1, with age, gender, marital status, managerial or non-managerial, job contract and childcare responsibilities in the equation, $R^2 = .06$, F (6, 342) = 3.75, $p < .01$. Age ($\beta = .17$, $p < .01$), gender ($\beta = .13$, $p < .05$), and managerial or non-managerial questionnaire ($\beta = .16$, $p < .01$) were significant predictors of negative attitudes towards long working hours. At step 2, employee-orientated beliefs ($\beta = .22$, $p < .001$), and organisational identity ($\beta = -.17$, $p < .01$) accounted for further variance in negative attitudes towards long working hours, $R^2 = .14$, $F (5, 337) = 6.19$, $p < .001$. In the final model, $R = .38$, $F (11, 337) = 5.02$, $p < .001$. Table 7.8 summarises the regression analyses.

Table 7.8: Regression analyses designed to test the prediction of negative attitudes towards long working hours

Order of entry in set	Predictors in set	Cumulative R^2	Increment in R^2 for set	F for increment in R^2 for set	t for within set predictor	df	Partial correlation (pr)	Squared Partial correlation (pr^2)
1	Age				2.55**		.133	.018
	Gender				2.37*		.124	.015
	Marital status				1.47		.077	.006
	Childcare				-1.58		-.083	.007
	Managerial or non-managerial	.062	.062	3.75	3.06**	6, 342	.160	.026
	Job contract				-1.07		-.056	.003
2	Employer-orientated beliefs				-1.84		-.093	.009
	Employee-orientated beliefs	.141	.079	6.19	3.93***	5, 337	.199	.040
	Mutual beliefs				-.72		-.036	.001
	Own psychological contract				1.02		.051	.003
	Organisational identity				-3.13**		-.158	.025

*** Significant at the 0.001 level
** Significant at the 0.01 level
* Significant at the 0.05 level

Structural Equation Modelling

To build on the regression analysis, confirmatory factor analysis using EQS 6 (Bentler, 1995) was conducted. After controlling for age, marital status, gender and childcare, this examined the work attitudes of employers and employees to better understand whether attitudes about reciprocity in the workplace lead to different orientations about working patterns and the work ethic.

The hypothesised model of work orientation did not fit the data. The Legrange test did not suggest any further paths of theoretical relevance to be added. On the basis of the Wald tests, several paths were dropped consecutively in a series of subsequent models. These were: the path between employer-orientated individuals and positive attitudes to flexible working; the paths between mutual individuals and long hours leading to work success and negative attitudes towards long hours; the path between employee-orientated individuals and positive attitudes towards alternative working hours. The final model, which fitted the data well, is described below.

Model of orientation to work

The 'determinant of the input matrix' was .96, suggesting there was no problem with multicolinearity. The variables, therefore, were not linearly related. The standardised residual matrix showed all correlations between the variables to be close to zero. The independence model chi-square that tests the hypothesis that the variables are uncorrelated with one another was rejected, χ^2 indep (45, N = 383) = 437.52, $p < .001$. Although the chi-square hypothesised model indicated an improvement in fit in comparison to the independent model, χ^2 (15, N = 383) = 47.30, $p < .001$, it did not allow the null hypothesis to fail to be rejected. The model χ^2 in this case is significant, but it is also less than two times the model degrees of freedom. This ratio gives a very rough indication that the model may fit the data (Bentler, 1990a). EQS output includes many other fit indices. Inspection of these indicated the solution fitted the data well, with the goodness of fit index ranging from .80 to .98. Although the chi-squared test was significant, the goodness of fit indices and the residuals (with RMSEA = .08) all indicate a good fitting model. Although the Normed Fit Index (NFI) used to be the practical criterion of choice (See Bentler, 1992b; Bentler & Bonett, 1987), addressing evidence that the NFI has shown a tendency to underestimate fit in small samples, Bentler (1990a) revised the NFI to take sample size into account and proposed the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) as the index of choice (Bentler, 1990b). Both the NFI and CFI provide a measure of complete covariation in the data, a value of .90 or greater indicating an acceptable fit to the data (Bentler, 1992b). As shown in table 7.9, the NFI (.90) and CFI (.92) were consistent

in suggesting that the hypothesised model represented an adequate fit to the data. All comparative fit indices and residual-based fit indices are shown in Table 7.9.

Table 7.9: Confirmatory factor analysis – Comparative fit indices and residual-based fit indices showing goodness of fit for work orientation model

	Goodness of fit indices	
NFI	=	0.90
NNFI	=	0.80
CFI	=	0.92
IFI	=	0.92
MFI	=	0.96
GFI	=	0.98
AGFI	=	0.91
	Residual-based fit indices	
RMR	=	0.12
Standardised RMR	=	0.05
RMSEA	=	0.08
90% confidence interval of RMSEA	=	0.05

Post hoc modifications were performed in an attempt to develop an even better fitting model. The Legrange multiplier test did not suggest any paths of theoretical relevance to be added. The Wald test did not suggest any paths of theoretical relevance to be deleted. The model, with standardised estimates inserted, is shown in Figure 7.2.

Figure 7.2: Model of orientation to work with standardised estimates
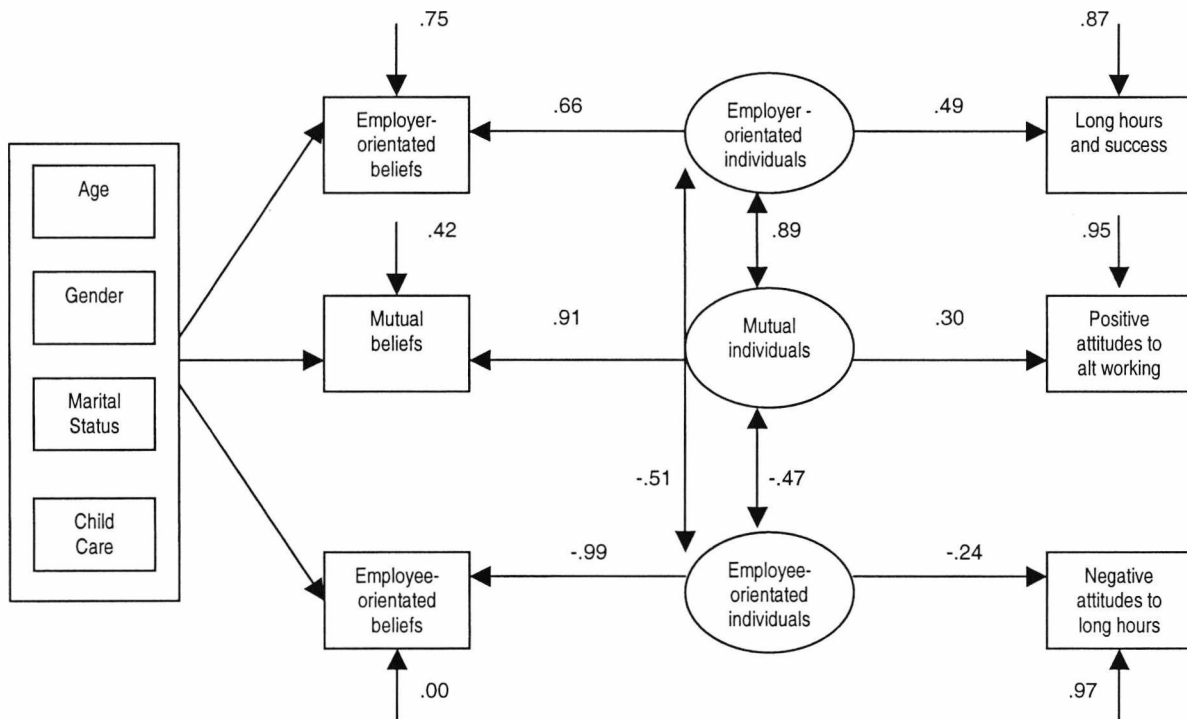
Directs Effects

Three 'types' of individuals holding specific attitudes towards work orientation are shown. Individuals holding employer-orientated beliefs, who expect high performance from work colleagues regardless of reciprocity, believe long hours to be necessary for career success (standardised coefficient = .49). Individuals holding employee-orientated beliefs, who are mainly concerned with the rights of the worker regardless of reciprocity, do not hold negative attitudes towards long hours (standardised coefficient = -.99). Individuals holding mutual beliefs, who believe reciprocity between employees and employers to be important to overall results in the workplace, hold favourable attitudes towards flexible working arrangements (standardised coefficient = .30).

<div align="center">

Discussion

</div>

Men and Women and the effects of Parenthood

Analysis of variance showed that gender and having childcare responsibilities makes a difference when it comes to work attitudes. Results showed some interesting and significant differences due to gender and having children. However, in the regression analysis, these factors play a smaller role in predictions to working arrangements than beliefs about the

psychological contract. Gender was only a significant predictor of positive attitudes towards alternative working practices, with childcare not significant as a predictor in any of the regression models.

Nonetheless, analysis of variance results showed that women, more than men, were likely to believe it important to keep on top of workload, and individuals without childcare responsibilities were more likely to believe it important to keep on top of workload than those with childcare responsibilities. Perhaps these results make some intuitive sense, in that having children provides a comparison of priorities and puts the importance of work into perspective. Empirically, research shows work overload to be associated with long hours (Wallace, 1997; Greenhaus, et al., 1997); and long hours to have a negative impact on relationships with children (Worrall & Cooper, 1999). Bad days and long hours have also been found to have a negative effect on family life (Baines, et al., 2003; Hyman et al., 2005; La Ville, et al., 2002; Reynolds, et al., 2003). Irritability with the family, impatience with children, stress, lack of energy, and time with spouse and children squeezed due to length of time at work have all been shown as evident. Family life has been found to be as central to fathers as for mothers and some fathers see themselves as having an emotional role in the family as well as their main breadwinning role (Baines, et al., 2003; La Ville, et al., 2002; Mauthner, et al., 2001; Reynolds, et al., 2003). Perhaps this provides some explanation as to why men with childcare responsibilities are least likely to think it important to keep on top of workload, and why individuals with childcare responsibilities find meeting deadlines at work less important than individuals without childcare responsibilities.

Findings from various researchers (Backett-Milburn, et al., 2001; La Ville, et al., 2002; Mauthner, et al., 2001; Reynolds, et al., 2003) might explain the finding that women believe it more important to keep on top of workload than men. These researchers showed that aside from the extra income, many working mothers enjoyed the higher status they felt working gave them over staying at home, and found working outside the home satisfying and stimulating. This may also explain the findings in this study that women, more strongly than men, held employer-orientated beliefs.

Age was an important factor in some work attitudes. The older individuals were, the higher they believed their performance at work to be, the more they believed it important to be reliable at work and the more they identified with their organisation. Interestingly, older individuals also felt more negatively towards alternative working arrangements, which is in keeping with the research that suggests graduates have a primary aim of 'working to live' rather than 'living to work'   (Guest and Sturges, 1999), and would therefore be expected to

hold positive attitudes towards alternative working arrangements. Whilst this was not supported in the findings of chapter five, which examined attitudes to flexible working and work performance, Sturgess, et al., (2000) suggested that whilst work-life balance is important to graduates at the beginning of their career, they do submit to the culture of long working hours and presenteeism as their careers progress. It may be the case that, given the findings in this study, younger workers with childcare responsibilities hold more positive attitudes towards alternative working arrangements if they believe the psychological contract in their organisation to be strong, that is, there is mutual give and take between managers and staff.

Whilst there were no differences in attitudes towards long working hours in this study, women were found to hold more positive attitudes towards alternative working arrangements than were men. This is perhaps explained by the findings of White (2004) that the composition of the workforce now reflects rising numbers of working mothers with young children. This means that the 'normal situation' for working age couples in Britain is the dual-earner arrangement, with the man working long paid hours and the woman working short paid hours while retaining the major role in housework and childcare. Having childcare responsibilities features as important again in terms of attitudes towards a strong psychological contract and reciprocity at work. Managers with childcare responsibilities held the most positive attitudes towards mutual give and take, with managers without childcare believing in this the least.

In contrast to the findings in chapter five, where male raters perceived women as more likely to leave their organisation than men, this study showed men's intentions to leave were greater than women's. More specifically, male managers' intentions to leave were the greatest, with female managers intending to leave the least. This may be explained by the findings in both chapters five and six, where individuals with childcare responsibilities were perceived as being the least likely to leave their organisation. Since women are the chief carers (White, 2004), it seems likely that women with childcare responsibilities are less likely to leave their organisation than men, despite 'tomorrow's managers' believing women are the least likely to stay with their employer.

The Psychological Contract as a Predictor of Attitudes towards Working Arrangements

The focal point of interest in this study was whether or not reciprocity is the key to positive attitudes towards flexible working. Results of the regression analysis supported the predictions of the study though, although significant, the amount of variance explained was limited. Nonetheless, positive attitudes towards alternative working arrangements were

predicted by a belief in mutuality. Gender also showed as a predictor of positive attitudes towards alternative working arrangements; women, more than men, held positive attitudes towards alternative working arrangements. Mutuality, though, accounted for an additional eleven per cent of the variance. Also explored were attitudes towards long hours and success. The belief that success at work is being driven by long hours was predicted by mutual beliefs and employer-orientated beliefs, which accounted for sixteen per cent of the variance. Negative attitudes towards long hours were predicted by age, gender and managerial or non-managerial questionnaire. Employee orientated beliefs and organisational identity accounted for an additional fourteen per cent of the variance. Negative attitudes towards alternative working practices were predicted by age and job contract, accounting for just six per cent of the variance.

A Model of Attitudes towards Working Arrangements

Whether or not individuals can be categorised into different orientations towards work was also investigated. Driven by the predictors found in the regression analysis, findings from structural equation modelling confirmed three main orientations to work. Individuals holding employer-orientated beliefs, who believed long hours at work lead to success and that managers have the right to expect their staff to perform, regardless of reciprocity. Individuals holding employee-orientated beliefs, who believe in the rights of the worker, regardless of reciprocity but do not hold negative attitudes towards long hours. Finally, individuals holding mutual beliefs, who believe in reciprocity between managers and staff, which in turn, leads to a positive attitude towards alternative working arrangements.

The Meaning and Implications of the Model Findings

The regression analyses showed a belief in mutuality to predict positive attitudes towards alternative working arrangements, and employer-orientated beliefs to predict positive attitudes towards long hours and success. Both of these predictions were supported with structural equation modelling. However, the regression analysis also showed mutual beliefs to predict positive attitudes towards long hours and success, and employee-orientated individuals to predict negative attitudes towards long hours of work. Structural equation modelling did not support these predictions. Because of the differences between the statistical techniques of regression analysis and structural equation modelling described in the introduction, the interpretation of the final structural equation model in this chapter, which fits the data well, is more meaningful than the regression models conducted.

Though the predictors in the regression models only accounted for up to sixteen per cent of the variance, the structural equation model did support the hypothesis that an orientation

towards mutual beliefs at work lends itself to positive attitudes towards alternative working arrangements. That individuals holding mutual beliefs are those who believe in reciprocity between managers and staff, which in turn, leads to a positive attitude towards alternative working arrangements, is salient. Given the rather negative findings in previous chapters towards flexible working and success in the workplace, the main purpose of this study was to examine what it is that might be needed for flexible working to not only be seen in favourable terms but also, and importantly, not be seen as detrimental to work performance. In line with mutuality (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004), the psychological contract and social exchange theory, results herein suggest that the psychological contract will be strong when managers and employees hold mutual beliefs. When this is the case, and where there is reciprocity between managers and employees, they will also hold positive attitudes towards flexible working. For those whose work beliefs are orientated towards either the employer or the employee, the psychological contract will be weak and attitudes towards flexible working will not be positive. In terms of flexible working, it seems important to endeavour to create a psychological contract in the workplace that is based on mutuality and reciprocity in order for flexible working to be accepted and trusted with regard to performance outcome. As previous research shows (Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Guest, 2004; Robinson & Wolfe-Morrison, 1995; Rousseau & McLean-Parks, 1993; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2002), the psychological contract is strengthened by continual reciprocal behaviour beyond that required by formal agreements. Notwithstanding this argument, it is also recognised that it is difficult for managers to respond to reciprocity when faced with fierce job demands and globalizing market forces that pressurise day-to-day functioning (Thompson, 2003).

It is interesting to note that individuals who hold employer-orientated beliefs favoured a belief in long hours leading to success. It may be that this work orientation leads those who are career-orientated to believe that any request to work flexible hours will lead to career death (Janman et al, 2001; Houston & Waumsley, 2003), and drives the culture of presenteeism in which many British organisations operate (Worral & Cooper, 1999). Research has shown that a breach in the psychological contract by an employer, as perceived by the employee, results in the employee reducing their commitment to the organisation (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000). Rather in contrast, it has also been shown that managers think employees are better at delivering their side of the 'deal' than are managers (CIPD, 2004). Managers often have high expectations of the employees both in terms of the tasks they expect them to undertake and the hours they work (Green, 2001; Guest, 2004). This may also account for employees continuing to work long hours, particularly if their attitudes towards work are employer and career-orientated.

Rather surprisingly the model showed individuals who hold employee-orientated beliefs do not hold negative attitudes towards long hours. This might be explained by long hours being associated with overtime and extra pay, and therefore being welcomed. This cohort of individuals, whose orientations are toward the rights of the worker, may look for the extrinsic rewards of pay for doing their job, viewing reciprocity as unnecessary. This explanation would support findings from the DTI survey (2004) that found that one of the key reasons for people working long hours was to earn extra money. This explanation suggests that individuals who, if they work flexible hours, may not go the 'extra mile' without pay, which may, in turn, create a negative managerial attitude toward flexible working. Research has shown that any failure to fulfil the terms of the psychological contract from either party reduces employees' willingness to go beyond any formal job responsibilities, and reduces an employer's willingness to reciprocate with any benefit beyond those formally agreed (Robinson & Wolfe-Morrison, 1995; Rousseau & McLean-Parks, 1993). Psychological contract breach is a subjective experience (Rousseau, 1989). If either side feels aggrieved in some way, it is easy to see why the psychological contract breaks down and trust and reciprocity are lost, particularly given the specific work attitudes held by 'employer-orientated' and 'employee orientated' individuals.

A non-significant relationship between employer-orientated beliefs and employee-orientated beliefs with regard to positive attitudes towards alternative working arrangements may appear surprising. However, drawing on the findings of chapters five and six of this thesis, there is strong evidence that shows long hours and regular hours to be the working pattern associated with good performance at work. Those individuals who work regular hours are seen as the most popular colleagues and to have the best work-life balance. There is also evidence to suggest that those working alternative hours are seen to be not as reliable or committed as those who work long or regular hours. Individuals working long and regular hours were also shown to be considered more likely for promotion than were those working alternative working hours. Given these findings, and those of Houston and Waumsley (2003), who showed employees were reluctant to use flexible working hours, it may be that individuals holding employer-orientated beliefs feel that alternative working arrangements mean individuals will not be promoted and will not be as reliable as others who work long hours. Individuals holding employee-orientated beliefs may feel that alternative working arrangements are an intrusion by management into their own personal time, and not helpful to other colleagues. These explanations do strengthen the argument for the work orientation in terms of a strong psychological contract to be towards mutuality and reciprocity for the acceptance of alternative working arrangements.

Conclusion

This study has provided an important insight into the attitudes of managers and employees towards reciprocity in the workplace and the relationship this has with alternative working arrangements and long hours of work. Results of regression analysis showed that positive attitudes towards alternative working arrangements were predicted by a belief in mutuality in the workplace. Individuals holding employer-orientated beliefs predicted positive attitudes towards long hours of working. Results of structural equation modelling confirmed three main orientations to work. Individuals holding employer-orientated beliefs, who believed that long hours at work are associated with success and that managers have the right to expect their staff to perform, regardless of reciprocity. Individuals holding employee-orientated beliefs, who believe in the rights of the worker, regardless of reciprocity, but do not hold negative attitudes towards long hours. Finally, individuals holding mutual beliefs, who believe in reciprocity between managers and staff, which in turn, leads to a positive attitude towards alternative working arrangements. It is interesting that this study shows that individuals hold specific attitudes about what creates a strong psychological contract for them, depending on their own individual orientation to work. In terms of flexible working, it seems important to endeavour to create a strong psychological contract in the workplace that is based on mutuality and reciprocity in order for alternative working arrangements to be accepted.

Given the governmental interest in organisations providing alternative working arrangements for everyone, in contrast to research findings that depict the dissonance experienced over their use, the findings in this study have strong implications for organisations. If alternative working arrangements are to be accepted by employers and employees alike, without fear of career detriment, individuals must be aware that mutuality and reciprocity form an essential part of their psychological contract. The findings herein suggest that mutual trust between managers and staff in the workplace results in an acceptance of, and confidence in, alternative working hours.

Chapter 8

Conclusion: Findings and Implications

The main findings of this thesis will be summarised in this chapter, and the implications of those findings discussed. This thesis has measured attitudes with regard to work-life balance and various working patterns that relate to this construct. More specifically, this thesis has attempted to provide insight into the following:

- The factors that influence working and non-working lives for people in the UK.
- The development of a generic work-life / life-work measurement scale.
- The ways in which control and support at work and home affect conflict, turnover intention and psychological health.
- The attitudes held towards flexible working practices by the managers of tomorrow.
- The attitudes held towards flexible working practices by a working population and an understanding as to why such attitudes exist.
- The role of the psychological contract in attitudes towards alternative working practices.

As a result of the empirical work throughout this thesis, the main findings that allow for a better understanding of people's cognitions, affects and behaviours with regard to issues surrounding working patterns and work-life balance are as follows:

- Findings in the UK on antecedents and consequences of work-life conflict support those in the literature from outside the UK.
- Individuals who do not live in a family environment also require recognition when examining work-life and life-work conflict.
- Control and support are two vital psychological constructs that require recognition by organisations over and above work demands to lessen work-life conflict, improve psychological health and decrease absenteeism and turnover intention.
- Even before young individuals (tomorrow's managers) obtain their first employment after university, attitudes towards long and flexible hours prevail in terms of career success - long hours are favoured over flexible hours.
- Dissonant attitudes over flexible working hours and long hours with regard to work-life balance are prevalent.
- Flexible working is not seen as compatible with career success because those who work these hours are seen as less reliable and less committed than others.

- Elder care is perceived negatively in terms of success at work and work-life balance.

- Regular hours of work are perceived as better for work-life balance than flexible working hours.

- There may be cohorts of individuals who hold differing attitudes towards hours of work, which may affect the psychological contract and attitudes towards flexible working.

The Story in Brief - Chapter Summaries

Chapter one gave an overview of the work-life balance research and examined the position on work-life balance and the long hours culture in the UK, concluding with a picture of contradiction. From a business perspective, flexible hours were seen to improve employee morale and have a positive effect on productivity, turnover and absenteeism (e.g. Janmen, et al., 2001; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Scheibl & Dex, 1998). Work-life balance was seen as desirable (e.g. Houston & Waumsley, 2003; Stevens, et al., 2004; Woodland, et al., 2003) and flexible hours were seen as enhancing work-life balance. However, the literature showed that managers had reservations about implementing flexible working, due to increases in their own workloads and fears of staff shortages (Powell & Mainiero, 1999; Woodland, et al., 2003). Employees also felt that to work flexibly would have a detrimental effect on their career (Houston & Waumsley, 2003; Stevens, et al, 2004). Women used flexible working the most and managers the least. Managers also worked the longest hours (Woodland, et al., 2003). The long hours culture was shown to be prevalent in the UK (Hyman, et al., 2001; Kodz, et al., 2002), with many believing long hours to be necessary in order to get ahead in their career (Houston & Waumsley, 2003; Worrall & Cooper, 1999). Not only did these attitudes lead to presenteeism (Cooper, 1996; Hyman, 2001, 2003), but also to an increase in stress-related illness and increasing absences from work (CIPD, 2004).

Although the vast literature on antecedents and consequences of conflict was reviewed at the beginning of chapter two, much of it came from research outside the UK. This chapter examined factors that influenced the working and non-working lives of individuals in the UK. Results supported previous literature findings, with support at work, work flexibility, working environment, work demands and working hours consistently reported as influencing the work experience. In the non-work domain, support, domestic demands, and time for leisure, family and friends were all consistently reported as influencing life outside work. It had been anticipated that respondents would describe processes rather than discrete factors. Whilst respondents did not mention autonomy and control as often as other factors as being important to their experience at work or non-work, issues of time, work demands, work environment and work flexibility are, in many ways, related to aspects of control.

Before going on to examine the effects of control and support in the working and home environments, it was recognised that the work-life balance literature concentrates on the work and family domains, somewhat neglecting individuals who are not part of a family unit but for whom work-life balance requires recognition. Chapter three was therefore concerned with developing a more generic work-life conflict and life-work conflict measurement scale. The results suggested that whilst a work-family conflict scale might not measure the conflicts experienced by people who do not live with family, a work-life conflict scale similarly might not adequately measure the conflicts experienced when living within a family unit. It was suggested that a new scale might be developed using the top loading items from both scales. Conversely, if studies are particularly interested in measuring conflicts with families, the family scale might be used. If not, the life scale might provide more meaningful results.

Building on the findings of chapter two and three, chapter four examined psychological health and turnover intention as outcomes in relation to work-life conflict, control and support at work. Results showed working hours and work demands to predict work-life conflict, and work-life conflict to predict psychological health. In addition, work control and work support were found to be predictive of work-family conflict, and work support to be predictive of turnover intention and psychological health. Support at home was predictive of life-work conflict and psychological health. This supports the work of Bailyn (1997) who suggested that a sense of control at work allows employees to make changes in their environment. Karasek and Theorell (1990) also consider control and support to be important in promoting well-being and productivity when coping with work demands. Importantly, the findings in chapter four highlight the emphasis that individuals placed on support at work and at home, which has also been shown by research findings indicating work-life conflict to be reduced when employees have supportive work supervisors (Allen, 2001; Erdwins et al., 2001; Fu & Shaffer, 2001; Jansen et al., 2003; McManus et al., 2002, Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

In terms of applied implications of these findings for organisations, two main issues arose. The first placed emphasis on organisations recognising control and support as being critical for employee well-being. The second was that a reduction in stress from improved psychological health might be achieved by increasing levels of control and support rather than by decreasing job demands. This improved employee well-being would then reduce absenteeism and lead to an increase in productivity.

Given the negative effects of long working hours on work-life balance and psychological health, and the findings in the literature suggesting that graduates place high value on the concept of work-life balance (Sturges, et al, 2000), chapter five examined the attitudes of

final year undergraduates towards various working arrangements. Despite previous findings suggesting that undergraduates, at the start of their careers, hold the achievement of work-life balance high on their agenda (Guest & Sturgess, 1999), the findings from this study showed that the managers of tomorrow hold positive attitudes towards a long hours working culture, rating employees who work long hours as having better work performance when compared to those who worked regular hours or any kind of flexible working option. These findings support much of the literature reported in chapter one about the UK culture of long hours and presenteeism (Cooper, 1996; Hyman, et al., 2003; Worral and Cooper, 1999). Despite this, working long hours was recognised as having a significantly worse effect on work-life balance than working regular hours or any kind of flexible option. Interestingly, working regular hours was perceived to be significantly better in terms of work productivity than working flexible hours. Those working regular hours were also acknowledged as being the best colleagues and as having good work-life balance. Having elder care responsibilities was perceived as having a negative impact on work performance and as having a detrimental effect on personal life. The dissonant way in which long and flexible hours of working are perceived was supported by these findings. Long hours were perceived as enhancing work performance; flexible hours were not. Long hours were seen as detrimental to work-life balance. Flexible working options and regular hours were seen as enhancing work-life balance.

Chapter six looked to generalise these findings to a working population and found that flexible hours were viewed as detrimental to work performance and career progression when compared to long and regular hours of work. Regular hours were seen as better in terms of work productivity than any kind of flexible option. As in the previous study, having elder care responsibilities was perceived as having a negative impact on work performance and on personal life. The contradictions with long hours prevailed. Whilst they were viewed as enhancing work performance, they were also seen as having a greater detrimental effect on personal life than any other working option. Working regular hours was perceived as the most conducive to work-life balance and those working them were viewed as being the best colleagues. This chapter extended these findings by exploring reasons as to why these attitudes prevailed. Results showed that employees working flexible hours were perceived as less reliable and less committed than those working long or regular hours. Again, the pattern of inconsistency is prevalent, with positive attitudes towards the concept of work-life balance, flexible working being seen to enhance work-life balance, but working flexible options being seen as detrimental to career progression in terms of promotion because to work in this way meant being perceived as less reliable and less committed than those who work regular and long hours.

These findings, which are not out of sync with findings reported in chapter one, served as good indicators for investigating what might be required for positive attitudes towards flexible working to prevail, without it being seen as detrimental to career success. Chapter seven examined different work orientations towards hours of work and whether these affected the way in which individuals viewed the psychological contract. Results of the structural equation modelling showed how work orientation was related to different attitudes to working arrangements. Those holding employer-orientated beliefs are driven by long hours and success in the workplace, believing that managers have the right to expect their staff to perform regardless of reciprocity. It may be that this work orientation leads those who are career-orientated to believe that any request to work flexible hours will lead to career death (Janman et al, 2001; Houston & Waumsley, 2003), and drives the culture of presenteeism in which many British organisations operate (Worral & Cooper, 1999). Individuals holding employee-orientated beliefs hold strong values about the rights of workers regardless of reciprocity, although they do not hold negative attitudes towards long hours, possibly because of the association with paid overtime and the emphasis on extrinsic pay rewards. This explanation would support findings from the DTI survey (2004) which found that one of the key reasons for people working long hours was to earn extra money. The findings of this study also did not show a significant relationship between employee-orientated individuals and positive attitudes towards flexible working, possibly because, drawing on the findings of Houston and Waumsley (2003), this cohort of individuals may feel that flexible working arrangements are an intrusion by management into their own personal time, and drawing on the findings of chapter six, they may feel that working in that way may not be helpful to other colleagues. Finally, individuals holding mutual beliefs were associated with positive attitudes towards flexible working. Thus, in line with social exchange theory, if reciprocity exists for both managerial and non-managerial employees, flexible hours appear to be viewed favourably. It therefore seems important to endeavour to create a strong psychological contract in the workplace that is based on mutuality and reciprocity in order for flexible working to be accepted.

Theoretical Implications of the Findings

Whilst there remains no one dominant theory to drive the work-life balance research, this thesis has suggested ways in which psychological theory can inform research. Role theory (Kahn, et al., 1964) continues to be dominant when examining conflicts between demands at work and at home. According to this theory, when individuals have multiple life roles to carry out, they experience interrole conflict. This is due to the conflicting demands of each role, resulting in difficulties experienced in performing each role successfully. Chapters one, two, three and four highlighted the conflict experienced between work and non-working roles, both

in previous literature and in terms of specific antecedents of conflict/balance causing specific outcomes.

In chapters two and four, support was found to be an important factor influencing attitudes at work and in life outside work, reflecting the salience of social support theory in its explanation. Social support has been defined in many ways (e.g. Cobb, 1976; Thoits, 1982) but, in succinct terms, it might be considered a social "fund" from which people may draw to help them cope when handling stressors (Thoits, 1995). In addition, perceived support can be broadly defined as "the resources provided by other persons' (Cohen & Syme, 1985, p.4). Two dominant models of social support are the 'main effect model' and the 'buffering' model, both of which appear to represent the two different aspects of social support (Cohen & Wills, 1985), and studies have found evidence consistent with both (e.g. Cohen & Syme, 1985; Cohen & Wills, 1985; Pilisuk, et al., 1987; Wortman & Dunkel-Schetter, 1987). In short, the main effect model involves large social networks that have positive effects on well-being unrelated to stress, providing structural support. This may best describe the general effects of a supportive working environment, which, as chapter four suggests, has a positive effect on any possible conflict resulting from work. It also explains the effects found for the importance placed on support from family and a network of friends outside work. The buffering model focuses on interpersonal aspects of social support that act as a 'buffer' to protect against the negative effects of stress. These, in effect, form the 'functional' aspects of social support and might better describe the specific aspects of support offered by supportive colleagues and managers at work, and family and friends in the non-work domain. Several types of support have been postulated and assessed by various researchers, but generally fall into six basic types: appraisal support, emotional support, instrumental or tangible support, informational support, and network support (see Cohen & Wills, 1985, for a review). Tangible support represents the direct provision of needed resources and services by individuals in one's social network (Cohen & Wills, 1985), which might best describe the provision of flexible and alternative working arrangements by an organisation. Given that social support is such a robust finding with regard to an individual's perception of their own work-life balance, the theory of social support offers sound psychological theory from which to draw an explanation of such findings.

Social exchange theory has also been highlighted in explaining the evidence found for the psychological contract. The main tenet of this theory is the norm of reciprocity, which obliges people to respond positively to favourable treatment from others (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). When this is transferred to the workplace, the norm of reciprocity requires employees to respond positively to favourable treatment from their employer, and vice versa. Chapter six

showed that the reasons flexible working were thought of in negative terms, with regard to career enhancement were due to the perception that those who work flexible hours are less reliable and less committed than those who work long or regular hours. However, chapter seven showed that a favourable attitude towards flexible working hours was adopted if both manager and employee felt there was mutual reciprocity. Thus, if a manager offers favourable treatment to an employee by agreeing to them working flexible hours, and that employee responds with a positive work ethic in terms of being reliable and showing the same commitment to work as they otherwise would, both parties will perceive the psychological contract as strong and a positive attitude towards flexible working will ensue. Social exchange theory is at the heart of providing an explanation for this reciprocal behaviour and in positive attitudes toward flexible working.

Future Directions

Some general issues present for reinforcement and suggestion in recommendation for future research. Firstly, as suggested by the findings in chapter three, research should extend the issue of measurement from examining work and family to include the individual who does not reside within a family unit. This will provide a clearer all-round picture of the conflicts experienced between work and life in the UK.

A further suggestion with regard to methodology is in the various attempts in the literature to develop a work-life balance model. Given the differing research aims and different variables used, there is little wonder that resulting models differ extensively. Previous models depicted in chapter one all have slightly different orientations. The work-family interface models put forward by Frone, et al, (1992a) and Frone, et al., (1997) concentrated on family and personal outcomes, such as work distress, family distress and depression. Carlson and Kacmar (2000) examined life role values and their effect on work -family conflict and job, life and family satisfaction. Edwards and Rothbard (2000) concentrated on the effects of mood spillover on role performance. From a work perspective, Dollard, et al., (2000) tested the demand-control-support model when examining levels of strain in terms of emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and job dissatisfaction, and feelings of personal accomplishment in terms of productivity and competency. Senécal, et al., (2001) tested a model of work-family conflict based on self-determination theory and the hierarchical model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Concentrating on the work domain, de Jong, et al., (2001) tested and evaluated the direction of relationships between job characteristics and employee psychological well-being. The model of orientation to work and personal life posited by Houston and Waumsley (2003) concentrated on attitudes to flexible working and

the ways in which these impacted on work outcomes, such as turnover intention, and personal outcomes, such as health.

Building both on the literature review in chapter one and on the findings of chapters two and four, part of the work that initially constituted this thesis was to explore the development of a generic model of work-life balance using structural equation modelling. This examined relationships between antecedents and outcomes of work-life and life-work conflict. Whilst unsuccessful, this should not prevent further model attempts. Testing and developing a generic model of work-life balance will further theory in this domain and continue to drive research forward. Given the variety of variables used throughout the literature with regard to model testing, one solution for an attempt to develop one overall dominant model of work-life balance might be to conduct a meta-analysis on existing models to ascertain common variables. To this end, there are some common findings in the literature that would require acknowledgment and the unsuccessful model tested for this thesis was created from a theoretical basis. The findings of chapters two and four showed work control and work support to be important for a positive work experience. Research offers supports for these findings. Testing the demand-control-support model Dollard, et al., (2000) the authors showed that jobs combining high demands, low control and low support produced the lowest levels of satisfaction in workers, suggesting that an increase in work productivity might be achieved, not by decreasing job demand by increasing the levels of control and support. Clark (2002) also showed perceived control at work reduced work-family conflict and work flexibility to reduce work-family conflict by increasing a sense of control at work. That support at work is a positive experience has been further evidenced by much research (e.g. Allen, 2001; Erdwins, et al., 2001; Fu & Shaffer, 2001; Goff, et al., 1990; Jansen, et al., 2003; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; McManus, et al., 2002; Nielson, et al., 2001; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson, et al., 1999).

Evidence of working long hours (e.g. Cooper, et al., 2001; Hyman, et al., 2005; Kodz, et al., 2002), often necessitated by pressures of workload (e.g. Hogarth, et al., 2000), were well documented in chapter one. Chapter two supported these findings by showing long hours and workload to rate in the top three reasons given for a negative working experience.

Findings of chapter two also showed aspects of life away from work (inadequate time, home demands, control at home and support at home) to affect the non-work experience. Research has also shown that women with family demands are less satisfied with their jobs and life than others (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Time is indicative in that hours spent on housework have been shown to have a significant impact on family-work conflict (Fu &

Shaffer, 2001) and having full responsibility for housekeeping has been found to increase work-family conflict for men (Jansen, et al., 2003). Lack of spousal support and parental workload have been shown to predict conflict between family and work (Behson, 2002a; Beutell & Wittig-Berman, 1999; Carlson, 1999; Frone, et al., 1992a; Frone, et al., 1997; Jansen, et al., 2003).

Outcomes of family-work conflict are less well documented than the outcomes of work-family conflict but it seems reasonable to assume that it will be negatively related to psychological health (as life-work conflict increases so psychological health gets worse) and negatively related to work satisfaction. Empirically, Frone, et al., (1992a; Frone, et al., 1997) have consistently shown family-work conflict to be negatively related to health issues and since Allen, et al (2000) has shown work-family conflict to be negatively related to work and life satisfaction, it also seems conceptually justifiably to consider life-work conflict to be related negatively to work-satisfaction and psychological health.

Negative relationships between work-life conflict and work satisfaction (e.g. Bruck, et al., 2002; Burke & Greenglass, 1999; Parasurman & Simmers, 2001; Perrewe, et al., 1999), and life satisfaction (e.g. Aryee, et al., 1999; Frone, et al., 1992a; Frone, et al., 1996; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Perrewe, et al., 1999) and positive relationships with turnover intention (e.g. Greenhaus, et al., 2001; Houston & Waumsley, 2003), absence (CIPD, 2003) and stress (e.g. Kelloway, et al., 1999; Parasurman & Simmers, 2001), justifying a similar expected direction of results in any future tested model.

Previous models have also concentrated on the measurement of work-family and family-work conflict. Following the findings in chapter three, which suggested the use of the work-life and life-work scale in studies that were particularly interested in examining conflicts that included individuals who did not necessarily live as part of a family unit, development of a work-life balance model rather than a work-family balance model should ensue.

There are intuitive and conceptual reasons for controlling for various demographic variables (age, gender, marital status and whether or not people have children) in any model. Beatty (1996) found depression was significantly related to work-family conflict for women with children but not for those without. The same author also found work-family conflict was associated with fewer negative health effects for women without children than for women with children. Given the growing number of single-parent homes (Dench, et al., 2002), it seems important to control for the effects of marital status. Furthermore, and as noted by Greenhaus and Callanan (1994), work-family conflict is likely to vary along with an

individual's development through different stages of career development, which makes age a factor to be considered.

Bases on these findings, an hypothesised work-life balance model for future development is shown in Figure 8.1.

Figure 8.1: Hypothesised Work-Life Balance Model for Future Development
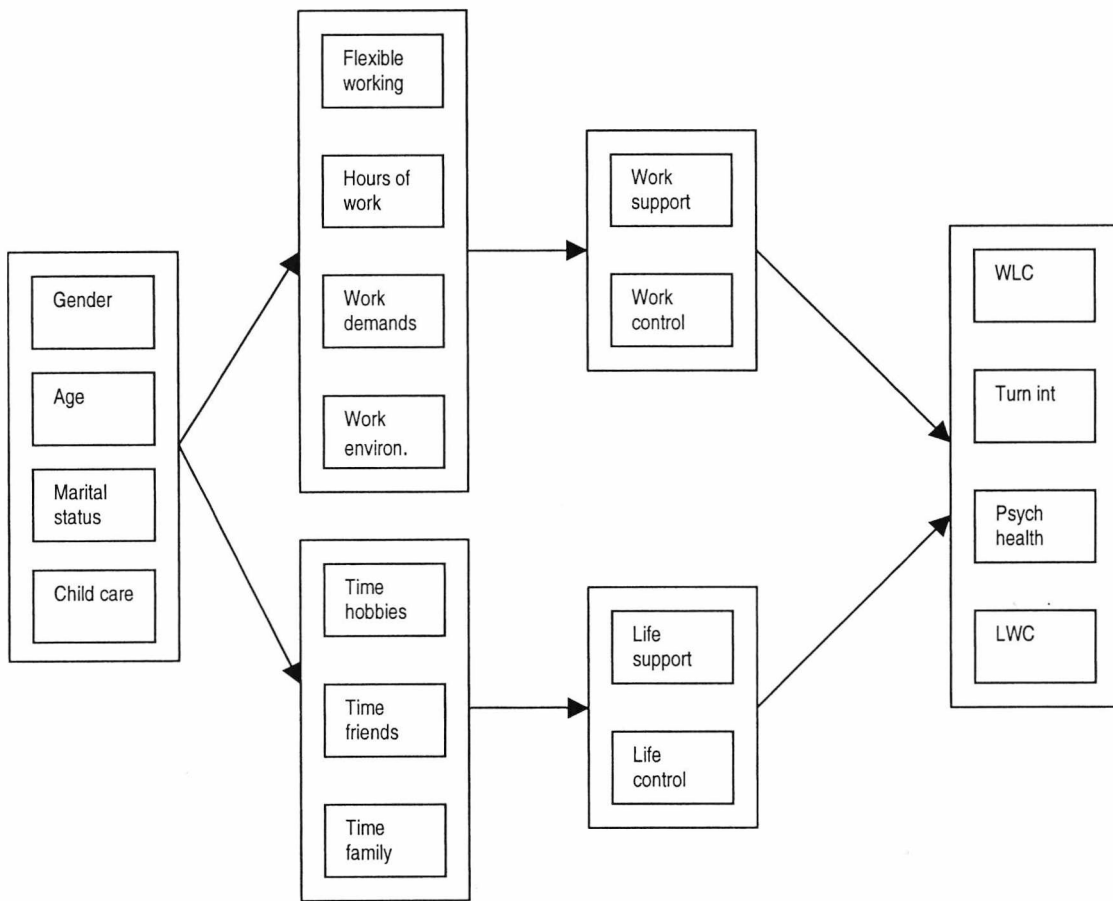
Further research might also examine individual expectations about work and non-work roles and whether or not they are met. This is important since unmet expectations are related to job and work attitudes (Wanous, Poland, Premack & Davis, 1992) and spillover theory suggests that unmet expectations in one domain may affect attitudes in the other domain (Zedek, 1992; Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). One illustration of this is the substantial variability among women in terms of expectations for career and family life (Hakim, 2000, 2005). It is not only important, though, to examine the career expectations and values of women. Career

salience for men and women is likely to affect career decisions, which, in turn, can influence family life. Thus, future research might consider career attitudes as part of the work-life balance literature. Social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978), in conjunction with the examination of expectations, might add much to furthering understanding of the conflicts arising between the work and non-work interface.

Linked to this are the unresolved issues concerning what constitutes acceptable work-life balance. Individual differences mean that there is perhaps no one answer to this; it is a subjective issue and one that may affect the development of a generic work-life balance model. Investigating priorities and values might help an understanding of whether there should indeed be concern with work-life balance issues with those individuals who enjoy working long hours. Indeed, if individuals working long hours are content to do so, working these hours may not necessarily be detrimental to them. This, then, brings into question whether the responsibility of achieving work-life balance is that of the individual, the organisation or the state. Undoubtedly there will be differing views on this and perhaps the answer is generic across all three. It may simply be that, unless long hours of work lead to detrimental consequences for the individual, the organisation or society, then they should not be questioned. However, most research confirms that work-life imbalance, often caused by long working hours, has negative consequences for well-being and effective functioning. Future research might investigate the positive case for long hours of work, linked with individual values and issues of responsibility for work-life balance.

Implications of the Findings

In terms of the business case for flexible working, research indicates the importance of good people management practices positively influencing company performance (e.g. Janmen, et al., 2001; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Scheibl & Dex, 1998). The long-term success of any organisation depends to a large extent on its people, their level of commitment, expertise, creativity and dedication to quality and customer care. There is a growing body of evidence to show that good people management has direct bottom line benefits in terms of overall business performance (Patterson, et al., 1997). The provision and uptake of flexible working policies have been found to increase motivation, reduce turnover, reduce absenteeism and improve productivity (Janman, et al, 2001; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Scheibl & Dex, 1998). Control and support at work have been shown to be important factors for lower levels of work-life conflict and turnover intention, and higher levels of psychological health, to prevail.

Research (e.g. Allen, 2001; Houston & Waumsley, 2003) has also shown that the demand for flexible work arrangements is high. People want to be able to obtain work-life balance

(Stevens, et al, 2004) and are thought to work better when they do (Woodland, et al, 2003). However, important issues must be recognised before any benefits are realised. Firstly, given the concerns of managers with regard to work demands and staff shortages (Powell & Mainairo, 1999; Woodland, et al., 2003) when agreeing to flexible working hours, organisations need to recognise these and support their lower level managers with a view to the long-term benefits of flexible working policies, providing them with incentives to implement such arrangements in a consistent manner.

Secondly, individual differences will mean that needs and attitudes towards working hours and working arrangements will vary. Chapter seven highlighted three different orientations to work. Individuals who hold employer-orientated beliefs and those who hold employee-orientated beliefs do not hold positive views towards flexible working arrangements. Chapters five and six also highlighted that flexible working is perceived as detrimental to work performance and those who work flexible hours are seen as less reliable and less committed than those who work long or regular hours. Many flexible working policies, if available, concentrate on the family-friendly approach. As highlighted in chapter three, and in line with the government initiative, work-life balance should be available to everyone. If organisations are to encourage their employees to adopt a balance between work and non-work, regardless of their marital status, in order, as research suggests, to get the best out of them in terms of productivity (Woodland, et al., 2003), it will be necessary to offer several and differing policies (Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000) to meet different individuals' needs. This should not be at the expense of business needs, but a long-term approach to change organisational culture with regard to attitudes towards flexible working options might, as research suggests (Janman, et al, 2001; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Scheibl & Dex, 1998), be beneficial to both the organisation and its employees. As stated by Thompson, et al., (1999) and Allen (2001) provision of policies is not enough. It is the perception of a favourable organisational culture that encourages the uptake of flexible working practices.

If organisations want to see stress-related sickness levels fall they should discourage the culture of presenteeism (Cooper, 1996). Chapter four illustrated the importance of control and support in the workplace, suggesting that a decrease in job demands would not be as effective to psychological health as would increasing control and support at work. Coupled with this, as depicted in chapter seven, creating a psychological contract that encourages mutuality and reciprocity between managers and staff would encourage positive attitudes towards flexible working. In order to replace the fears of flexible working meaning less productivity, less reliability, less commitment and being detrimental to promotion (see chapter six), organisations would do well to look to create a strong psychological contract between

employees and employers in order to encourage reciprocity, regardless of the preferred working pattern. To reduce a culture of long hours being perceived as necessary to obtain career success, it is important that organisations recognise the worth of all employees for the quality of work they produce and not necessarily for the length of time spent at work, or the type of work pattern preferred.

Flexible working means a negotiation between the employer and the individual about their needs to determine a working pattern that helps them both. It does not mean that employers always have to accommodate demands for specific working hours if the work cannot be done that way. Nor should traditional manager perceptions prevail by thinking that the job can be done only from nine to five, or that the person needs to be in the office at all hours. An employee's work-life balance may stand or fall on a manager's ability to turn policies into workable practice. This can be difficult where managers do not have balance in their own lives or are under particular pressure to achieve targets. Organisations that adopt flexible working policies also need to adopt a culture whereby managers are comfortable using flexible working policies themselves without fear of career detriment. It is also important to educate employees about the benefits of flexible working practices. Many flexible working policies, if available, concentrate on those with childcare responsibilities. In line with the recent government initiative, flexibility should be available to all. Changing corporate culture takes time and effort, but is an important element in non-regulatory solutions to meet the demand for flexible working. To achieve a society where having quality leisure time and being a good employee are not in conflict will have positive health benefits and positive effects on employee productivity. In order to obtain work-life balance in the UK as the norm for working culture, there has to be reciprocity between employer and employee and a culture change in top-level management.

Policy Implications of the Findings

If the government's work-life balance initiative is to succeed, more needs to be done to make flexible working acceptable to everyone. Chapter six showed that regular hours, rather than flexible hours, were seen as providing good balance between work and non-work. Instead of the government getting its message across about flexible working hours being seen as the facilitator of balance between work and life, it appears that they are seen to conflict with work and life, especially when used for caring responsibilities. The findings in chapter six suggest that those who use flexible working hours have less work-life balance than those who work regular hours. Despite this, research also suggests that women use flexible working hours more than men (Stevens, et al., 2004) and managers use it least (Woodland, et al, 2004). This is because women remain the chief carers in UK society (White, 2004) and managers

work the longest hours (Woodland, et al, 2004), believing them to be a necessary sacrifice to get ahead in their career (Worrall & Cooper, 1999). Whilst there was some evidence to counter these attitudes in the second work-life balance study (Woodland, et al, 2004), with employers believing there to be no difference in promotion prospects between employees who worked flexible hours and those who did not, the survey did not clarify whether these beliefs extended to managers themselves.

It appears that the government's legislation in the promotion of work-life balance policies might be serving to widen the gender gap in the workplace still further. Whilst women remain the dominant carers in UK society and require flexible working in order to work and carry out their caring responsibilities, they risk detriment to their careers if current attitudes towards flexible working prevail. The government may also be seen to be differentiating between managerial staff and non-managerial staff in ways that are detrimental to the achievement of work-life balance in a working culture of long hours. There is an issue, too, over discrimination against single people and those without caring responsibilities who want to work flexible hours for a variety of different reasons in order to obtain their own work-life balance. Current legislation favours those with caring responsibilities. There is therefore a danger of creating a two-tier workforce. On the one hand, there will be those who work nine to five, or overly long hours. On the other, there will be those with families and children who fit working hours and life outside work around each other in order to be able to work and have a life away from work. If current attitudes remain, the former will advance in their careers, the latter (predominantly women with children, since uptake of flexible working for men is comparatively low) will not. As chapter five depicts, these attitudes appear to be set to continue into the next generation of managers.

These issues are important in twenty-first century living with a UK government that claims to support individuals without differentiation who want to combine work with a life outside work. Some of the results of the government's initiative so far appear to be in contrast to their campaign. Certainly the profile of work-life balance within UK society, and amongst employers and employees alike, has been raised. However, take-up of policies and practices which benefit business and help employees achieve a better work-life balance is both random and controversial. If the aims of the government's campaign are to be achieved, more needs to be done at policy level to decrease differentiation between women and men, between managerial and non-managerial status, and between individuals who have caring responsibilities versus those who do not.

Final Conclusions

This thesis has addressed the nature of work-life balance, provided an overview of why it is of contemporary interest in the UK, presented selected findings from existing research, and offered theoretical frameworks that might be used and extended to explain findings. The empirical evidence presented has added depth to the existing literature by furthering understanding about the psychological issues discussed. Suggestions for future empirical studies on the interaction between work and non-work domains to further enhance understanding of the psychological nature of work-life balance have been presented. The overall message of this thesis is that, although people hold positive attitudes towards obtaining work-life balance, a long hours culture prevails in the UK. People are anxious about working flexible hours for fear that they may impinge on career success and because they are seen as less reliable or committed than others who work long and regular hours. Developing an organisational culture where the positive effects of control and support are understood, and encouraging a strong psychological contract involving mutuality and reciprocity between managers and staff, may begin to change these attitudes and lead to less conflict between working and non-working lives.

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Appendices

Work-Life and Personal-Life Questionnaire
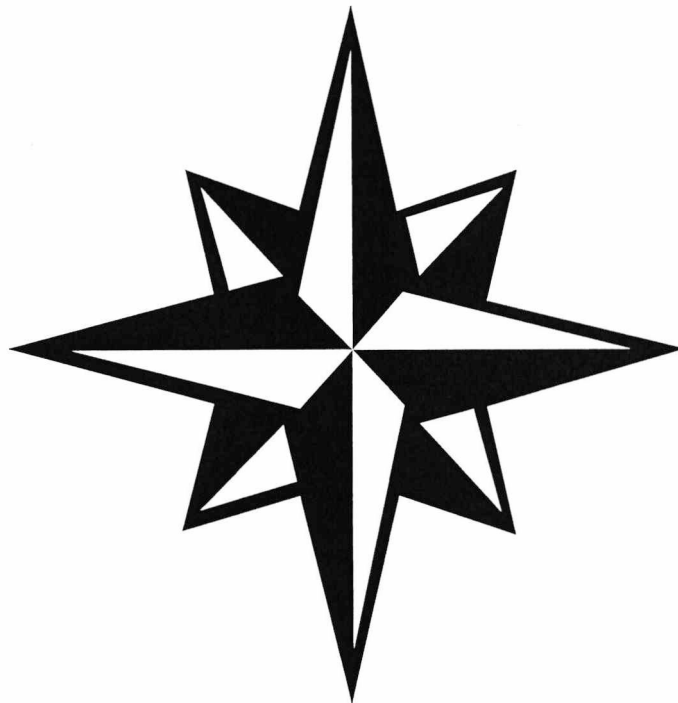
A study conducted by the University of Kent at Canterbury

QUESTIONNAIRE

This study is being conducted by the University of Kent. Your help is required to complete the attached questionnaire. The aim is to examine issues surrounding work-life and life-work. We hope that you will find this short questionnaire straightforward to complete.

CONFIDENTIALITY

This questionnaire is totally anonymous. You do not need to include your name anywhere within it. You do not have to complete the questionnaire, or any part of it, if you object to doing so.

CONTACT

If you have any questions with regard to the questionnaire please do not hesitate to contact me on 01227 823923, via e-mail at J.A.Waumsley@ukc.ac.uk, or at the address below.

Thank you for your participation.

Julie Waumsley
Work-Life Research Group
Department of Psychology
Keynes College
University of Kent at Canterbury
Canterbury
Kent
CT2 7NP

Question 1

We would like to know your feelings about things that **positively** affect your experience at work. Please give details of the five key things that matter to you. These may be things such as relationships with colleagues/boss at work, time demands on you, the structure of your organisation, etc.

1_____

_____

2_____

_____

3_____

_____

4_____

_____

5_____

_____

Question 2

We would like to know your feelings about things that **negatively** affect your experience at work. Please give details of the five key things that matter to you. These may be things such as relationships with colleagues/boss at work, time demands on you, the structure of your organisation, etc.

1_____

_____

2_____

_____

3_____

_____

4_____

_____

5_____

_____

Question 3

We would now like to know your feelings about the things that **positively** affect your experience of life outside work. Please give details of the five key things that matter to you. These may be things such as relationships/support at home, time demands on you, hobbies and interests, etc.

1_____

_____

2_____

_____

3_____

_____

4_____

_____

5_____

_____

Question 4

We would now like to know your feelings about the things that **negatively** affect your experience of life outside work. Please give details of the five key things that matter to you. These may be things such as relationships/support at home, time demands on you, etc.

1_____

_____

2_____

_____

3_____

_____

4_____

_____

5_____

_____

In order to understand your answers, we need to have some information about you. Please remember, this questionnaire is anonymous and confidential.

Age: ....

Gender: male / female   **(please circle)**

Do you work: full time / part time   **(please circle)**

Are you: single   married   cohabiting   separated   divorced   widowed   **(please circle)**

How many hours each week do you spend on caring responsibilities for children / disabled / elderly / any other person?   .... hours   **(please circle which applies)**

What is your job title? ....

Which category best describes the broad ethnic category to which you belong

White   Black African   Indian   Bangladeshi   Asian   Pakistani   Chinese   Other, please specify: .... **(please circle)**

Thank you for completing this questionnaire

Appendix 2.1

Items in Questionnaire for Chapter 3: Scales Adaptation

Scales measuring organisational identity, turnover intention, psychological health and organisational culture in the questionnaires used for both Ponders and Sparks

Work-Life Balance Questionnaire
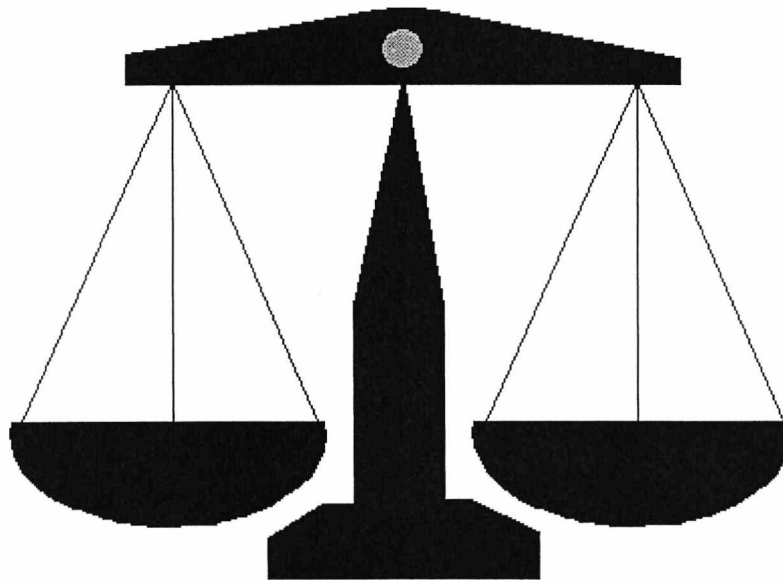
This questionnaire is confidential and anonymous. You do not need to include your name anywhere within it. You do not have to complete the questionnaire, or any part of it, if you object to doing so. If you have any questions with regard to the questionnaire please do not hesitate to contact me on 01227 823923 or via e-mail at J.A.Waumsley@ukc.ac.uk.

Thank you for completing this questionnaire

We would like to know your feelings toward the organisation you work for. Please circle the number that shows how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
I feel strong ties with my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My organisation is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel proud to be a member of my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am glad to be a member of my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In the next few years, I intend to leave this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I think about leaving this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would like to work in this organisation until I reach retirement age.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

We would like to know how your health has been in general, <u>over the last six weeks</u>. Please answer the questions by circling the answer that you think most applies to you.

Have you recently:	Please circle answer:			
Been able to concentrate on whatever you're doing?	Better than usual	Same as usual	Less than usual	Much less than usual
Lost much sleep over worry?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
Felt that you are playing a useful part in things?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less useful than usual	Much less useful
Felt capable of making decisions about things?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less so than usual	Much less capable
Felt constantly under strain?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
Felt you couldn't overcome your difficulties?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
Been able to enjoy your normal day-to-day activities?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less so than usual	Much less than usual
Been able to face up to your problems?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less able than usual	Much less able
Been feeling unhappy and depressed?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
Been losing confidence in yourself?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
Been thinking of yourself as a worthless person?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
Been feeling reasonably happy, all things considered?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less so than usual	Much less than usual

würde now like you to give us your views about the organisation you work for. **Please circle the number that shows how much you feel each is true of your own place of work.**

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
this organisation, employees can easily balance their work and family lives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
the event of a conflict, managers are understanding when employees have to it their family first.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
this organisation, it is generally okay to talk about one's family at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
mployees are often expected to take work home at night and/or on weekends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
anagement in this organisation encourages supervisors to be sensitive to nployees' family and personal concerns.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
mployees are regularly expected to put their jobs before their families.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
turn down a promotion or transfer for family-related reasons will seriously amage career progress in this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
general, managers in this organisation are quite accommodating of family-lated needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
any employees are resentful when men in this organisation take extended leave care for newborn or adopted children.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
get ahead in this organisation, employees are expected to work more than 48 ours a week.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
be viewed favourably by management, employees in this organisation must onstantly put their jobs ahead of their families or personal lives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
this organisation employees who use work-family programs (e.g. job share, part-ne work) are viewed as less serious about their careers than those who do not.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
lany employees are resentful when women in this organisation take extended ave to care for newborn or adopted children.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
this organisation it is very hard to leave during the working day to take care of ersonal or family matters.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
his organisation encourages employees to set limits on where work stops and ome life begins.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
lanagers in this organisation are sympathetic toward employees' childcare esponsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
his organisation is supportive of employees who want to switch to less emanding jobs for family reasons.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
lanagers in this organisation are sympathetic toward employees' responsibilities or the care of older people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
this organisation employees who use flexitime are less likely to advance their areer than those who do not use flexitime.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
ly direct manager is sympathetic to family-related needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
he colleagues I work with are sympathetic towards the family-related needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
n this organisation, employees are encouraged to strike a balance between their vork and family lives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Work - Life Questionnaire

This study is being conducted by the University of Kent. Your help is required to complete the attached questionnaire. The aim is to examine your thoughts and feelings about your working life and your non-working life. We hope that you will find the questionnaire interesting and straightforward to complete.

This questionnaire is totally confidential and anonymous. No one in your place of work or at home will see your responses and you do not need to include your name anywhere within it. You do not have to complete the questionnaire, or any part of it, if you object to doing so.

If you have any questions with regard to the questionnaire please do not hesitate to contact me on 01227 823923, via e-mail at J.A.Waumsley@ukc.ac.uk, or at the following address: Julie Waumsley, Work-Life Research Group, Department of Psychology, Keynes College, University of Kent at Canterbury, Canterbury, Kent CT2 7NP.

We would like to know your feelings about your working life. Please circle the number that shows how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement (1 = Strongly Disagree; 7 = Strongly Agree).

	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree	
I often have to work long hours	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I often have too much work for the time available in which to do it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My line manager is helpful when I have a problem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I find my colleagues supportive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have control over which tasks I take on at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I often work more than a 40-hour week	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I do not work beyond the hours for which I am contracted	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My workload is often excessive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I find my line manager supportive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have some control over my working hours	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I often do not have enough work to fill my working day	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My colleagues are helpful when I have a problem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can choose the particular tasks I do in any one working day	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am able to determine my own working hours	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel in control at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The demands of my work interfere with my life away from work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil other interests	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands of my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil other responsibilities and duties	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Due to work, I have to make changes to my plans for activities away from work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In the next few years, I intend to leave this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I think about leaving this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would like to work in this organisation until I reach retirement age	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

We would now like to know your feelings about your non-working life. Please circle the number that shows how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement (1 = Strongly Disagree; 7 = Strongly Agree).

	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree

Statement							
Domestic tasks are an unwelcome intrusion into my non-work time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My spouse/partner is supportive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have control over which tasks I do at home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My domestic tasks never seem to be finished	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like doing domestic tasks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My own needs always seem to come after those of my family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Caring for others takes up any time I might otherwise have to myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My spouse/partner is helpful when I have a problem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My family are supportive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My family are helpful when I have a problem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can choose what I do when I get home from work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel in control at home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The demands of my personal life interfere with work-related duties	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time outside work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my interests outside work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Personal life strains interfere with my ability to perform work-related duties	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

We would like to know if you have had any medical complaints and how your health has been in general, <u>in the last 3 months</u>. For each question, please circle the answer that most applies to you.

ve you recently:	Please circle answer:			
en able to concentrate on whatever you're doing?	Better than usual	Same as usual	Less than usual	Much less than usual
st much sleep over worry?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
t that you are playing a useful part in things?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less useful than usual	Much less Useful
t capable of making decisions about things?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less so than usual	Much less Capable
t constantly under strain?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
lt you couldn't overcome your difficulties?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
en able to enjoy your normal day-to-day activities?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less so than usual	Much less than usual
en able to face up to your problems?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less able than usual	Much less Able
en feeling unhappy and depressed?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
en losing confidence in yourself?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
en thinking of yourself as a worthless person?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
en feeling reasonably happy, all things considered?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less so than usual	Much less than usual

In order to understand your answers, we need to have some information about you. Please remember, this questionnaire is anonymous and confidential.

Age: _____   **Gender:**   male / female

Which category best describes the broad ethnic category to which you belong (please circle):

White   Black African   Indian   Bangladeshi   Asian   Pakistani   Chinese

Other _____
Are you: single   married   cohabiting   separated   divorced

widowed   **(please circle)**

Please tell us if you have any children:

I have [   ] **child/children**

Please give ages of any children you have who live with you

_____

Please give ages of any children you have who do not live with you

_____

How many hours each week do you spend on caring responsibilities for children/ disabled / elderly / any other person? (please circle which applies)

[   ] **hours.**

What is your main interest outside work?

_____

How many hours per week do you spend on this?   [   ]

How many days have you had off work in the last 12 months due to illness or some other problem?   [   ]

How many days in the last 12 months have you been ill in some way?
Please count all the days when you felt unwell, whether you stayed at home, or went to work.   [   ]

What organisation do you work for

_____

Do you work: full time / part time   **(please circle)**

Contractually, does your job involve: no fixed hours of work   fixed hours with overtime

(please circle one)   fixed hours without overtime   flexible hours

If you do not work flexible hours, would it be possible to work flexible hours in the job you do (please circle one only):

Yes   No   Possibly, with some adjustments

What is your job title?

_____

How long have you worked for your current organisation? _____ years

How many hours do you usually work each week?   normal hours   ☐

overtime hours   ☐

Does your partner work: full time part-time   not at all
(please circle)

How much time travelling do you take to get to work? _____ hours _____ mins

What is your basic rate of pay before tax? (please give either a weekly or an annual amount)

£_____per week   or   £_____annually

Please circle the highest qualification you hold:

GCSE   A Level   HND (or equivalent)   Degree   Masters   Ph.D   Other (please specify)

_____

Which, of the following classifications, do you consider yourself to be (please circle):

Managerial/Professional   Skilled   Semi-skilled   Unskilled

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Appendix 3.2

Chapter 4: Control and Support

Questionnaire for Main Study

Work-Life

Questionnaire
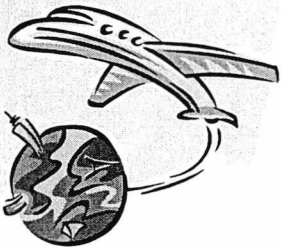
This study is being conducted by the University of Kent. The aim is to examine your thoughts and feelings about your working life and your non-working life. We hope that you will find the questionnaire interesting and straightforward to complete.

This questionnaire is totally confidential and anonymous. No one in your place of work or at home will see your responses and you do not need to include your name anywhere within it. You do not have to complete the questionnaire, or any part of it, if you object to doing so.

If you have any questions with regard to the questionnaire please do not hesitate to contact me on 01227 823923, via e-mail at J.A.Waumsley@ukc.ac.uk, or at the following address: Julie Waumsley, Work-Life Research Group, Department of Psychology, Keynes College, University of Kent, Canterbury, Kent CT2 7NP.

In this questionnaire we ask you about your general feelings towards your working life and your life away from work.

To start with, we would like to know your feelings about your working life. Please circle the number that shows how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement (1 = Strongly Disagree; 7 = Strongly Agree).

	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree

I often have to work long hours   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I often have too much work for the time available in which to do it   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

My line manager is helpful when I have a problem   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I find my colleagues supportive   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I have control over which tasks I take on at work   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I often work more than a 40-hour week   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I do not work beyond the hours for which I am contracted   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

My workload is often excessive   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I find my line manager supportive   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I have some control over my working hours   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

My colleagues are helpful when I have a problem   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I can choose the particular tasks I do in any one working day   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I feel in control at work   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

The demands of my work interfere with my life away from work   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil other interests   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands of my job   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil other responsibilities and duties   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Due to work, I have to make changes to my plans for activities away from work   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

In the next few years, I intend to leave this organisation   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I think about leaving this organisation   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

I would like to work in this organisation until I reach retirement age   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

We would now like to know your feelings about your non-working life. Please circle the number that shows how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement (1 = Strongly Disagree; 7 = Strongly Agree).

	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree
Domestic tasks are an unwelcome intrusion into my non-work time	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
My spouse/partner is supportive	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I have control over which tasks I do at home	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
My domestic tasks never seem to be finished	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
My own needs always seem to come after those of my family	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Caring for others takes up any time I might otherwise have to myself	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
My spouse/partner is helpful when I have a problem	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
My family are supportive	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
My family are helpful when I have a problem	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I can choose what I do when I get home from work	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I feel in control at home	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The demands of my personal life interfere with work-related duties	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time outside work	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my interests outside work	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Personal life strains interfere with my ability to perform work-related duties	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

We would like to know if you have had any medical complaints and how your health has been in general, <u>in the last 3 months</u>. For each question, please circle the answer that most applies to you.

ve you recently:	Please circle answer:			
n able to concentrate on whatever you're doing?	Better than usual	Same as usual	Less than usual	Much less than usual
t much sleep over worry?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
that you are playing a useful part in things?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less useful than usual	Much less Useful
capable of making decisions about things?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less so than usual	Much less Capable
t constantly under strain?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
t you couldn't overcome your difficulties?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
n able to enjoy your normal day-to-day activities?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less so than usual	Much less than usual
n able to face up to your problems?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less able than usual	Much less Able
n feeling unhappy and depressed?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
n losing confidence in yourself?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
n thinking of yourself as a worthless person?	Not at all	No more than usual	Rather more than usual	Much more than usual
n feeling reasonably happy, all things considered?	More so than usual	Same as usual	Less so than usual	Much less than usual

In order to understand your answers, we need to have some information about you. Please remember, this questionnaire is anonymous and confidential.

Age: _____   **Gender:**   male / female

Which category best describes the broad ethnic category to which you belong (please circle):

White   Black African   Indian   Bangladeshi   Asian   Pakistani   Chinese   Other _____

Are you: single   married   cohabiting   separated   divorced   widowed   **(please circle)**

Please tell us if you have any children: I have _____   child/children

Please give ages of any children you have who live with you   _____

Please give ages of any children you have who do not live with you   _____

How many hours each week do you spend on caring responsibilities for:

Children [   ]   **disabled** [   ]   **elderly** [   ]   **any other person** [   ]

What is your main interest outside work? _____

How many hours per week do you spend on this? _____

How many days have you had off work in the last 12 months due to illness or some other problem? ☐

How many days in the last 12 months have you been ill in some way?
Please count all the days when you felt unwell, whether you stayed at home, or went to work. ☐

Do you work: full time / part time   **(please circle)**

Contractually, does your job involve (please circle one):

no fixed hours of work   fixed hours with overtime   fixed hours without overtime   flexible hours

If you do not work flexible hours, would it be possible to work flexible hours in the job you do (please circle one only):
                    Yes   No   Possibly, with some adjustments

What is your job title? _____

How long have you worked for your current organisation? _____ years

How many hours do you usually work each week?   normal hours ☐   overtime hours ☐

Does your partner work: (please circle)   full time   part-time   not at all

How much time travelling do you take to get to work? _____ hours _____ mins

What is your basic rate of pay before tax? (please give either a weekly or an annual amount)

£_____per week   or   £_____annually

Please circle the highest qualification you hold:

GCSE   A Level   HND (or equivalent)   Degree   Masters   Ph.D   Other **(please specify)** _____

Which, of the following classifications, do you consider yourself to be (please circle):

          Managerial/Professional   Skilled   Semi-skilled   Unskilled

**THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE**

Appendix 4.1

Chapter 5: Attitudes Towards Flexible Working

Questionnaire for Pilot Study

ATTITUDE SURVEY 1

QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is being run as part of the Work and Family Life Programme in the Department of Psychology at the University of Kent. It is a piece of research into people's attitudes in the workplace. Your help is required to complete the attached questionnaire. The aim is to explore factors that may affect people's work experiences within organisations.

CONFIDENTIALITY

This questionnaire is totally confidential. You do not need to include your name anywhere within it. You do not have to complete the questionnaire, or any part of it, if you object to doing so.

THE SURVEY

We hope that you will find the survey interesting and straightforward to complete. It should take approximately 15 minutes. **PLEASE DO NOT DISCUSS THE QUESTIONS OR YOUR ANSWERS WITH OTHERS BEFORE EVERYONE HAS COMPLETED AND RETURNED THEIR QUESTIONNAIRES.**

If you have any questions with regard to the questionnaire please do not hesitate to contact me on ext. 3923 or via e-mail at J.A.Waumsley@kent.ac.uk

Thank you for your participation.

Please now turn over and read the information about a successful British Company and six of its employees.

Julie Waumsley
University of Kent

JOHN

John is 30 years old and works as an administrator. John works full-time, but from 8.00am to 3.30pm, with a compressed lunch break of half an hour, Monday to Friday in order that he is able to collect his six-year-old daughter from school each day. This also makes available the time for John to take his daughter to Brownies on Mondays, and swimming on Tuesdays and Thursdays, and to generally spend time with her. John also buys 10 optional extra days leave per year for use in the case of emergencies, for example, if his daughter is ill and he has to stay at home to care for her.

The following statements refer to John. Please complete the missing sections:

1.   The hours that John works are _____ to

_____.

2.   John's lunch hour is _____long.

3.   John's daughter is _____ years old.

4.   The activities that John requires time to take his daughter to

are_____

MARY

Mary is 28 years old and works as an administrator. Mary works full-time, but from 8.30am to 4.00pm, with a compressed lunch break of half an hour, Monday to Friday in order that she is able to finish work early enough to go to the gym regularly, and to enable her to attend club hockey training twice a week. Mary also buys 10 optional extra days leave per year to use for hockey tournaments that often take place over weekends, but that also often involve requiring Fridays and Mondays for travelling.

The following statements refer to Mary. Please complete the missing sections:

1.   The hours that Mary works are _____ to _____ .

2.   Mary's lunch hour is _____ long.

3.   Mary's sport is _____ .

4.   Mary sometimes requires extra time at weekends for _____ .

STEPHEN

Stephen is 33 years old and works as an administrator. Stephen works full time from 9.00am to 5.00pm each day from Monday to Friday, with an hour for lunch. Stephen enjoys going to the gym three times a week in the evenings, and meeting friends socially on other occasions.

The following statements refer to Stephen. Please complete the missing sections:

1.   The hours that Stephen works are _____ to

_____.

2.   Stephen takes _____ for lunch.

3.   Stephen is _____ years old.

   4.   Stephen enjoys

   _____.

JANE

Jane is 31 years old and works as an administrator. Jane works full-time, but from 9.00am to 4.30pm, with a compressed lunch break of half an hour, Monday to Friday in order that she can get home to care for her elderly father, who relies on Jane to take him to his pensioners' club once a week, and to bingo two evenings a week. He also visits the hospital at least once a month, which Jane takes him to and collects him from. Jane also buys 10 optional extra days leave per year for use in the case of emergencies, for example, to look after her father if he should fall ill and require full day care.

The following statements refer to Jane. Please complete the missing sections:

1.   Jane's hours of work are from _____ to
_____.

2.   Jane takes _____ for lunch.

3.   Jane works as an _____.

4.   Jane has caring responsibilities for
_____.

SARAH

Sarah is 29 years old and works as an administrator. Sarah works full time but does not stick to regular hours of work, staying in the office until the work is done. This sometimes involves working in the evenings, through lunch, and at the weekends. If she has time, Sarah enjoys going to the cinema and theatre, but only pursues these interests if work commitments permit.

The following statements refer to Sarah. Please complete the missing sections:

1.   The hours that Sarah works are _____ to

_____ .

2.   Sarah takes _____ for lunch.

3.   Sarah's interests include

_____ .

4.   Sarah works as an

_____ .

MATT

Matt is 32 years old and works as an administrator. Matt works full-time, but from 8.30am to 4.30pm, with an hour for lunch, Monday to Friday in order that he is able to practice playing his violin when he gets home, and go to official practices during the evenings when necessary. Matt plays in an orchestra, which involves evening and weekend concerts. With this in mind, Matt also chooses to buy 10 optional extra days leave per year so that he has the flexibility to take extra time off work when his orchestra has a programme of touring concerts.

The following statements refer to Matt. Please complete the missing sections:

1.   Matt's main interest is

_____.

2.   Matt takes _____ for lunch.

3.   Matt's hours of work are

_____.

4.   Matt chooses to buy _____ extra days leave per year to

_____.

The following statements refer to **John**. Please indicate how much you agree with **each** one by circling the appropriate number (**1** = **strongly disagree with the statement, 7 = strongly agree with the statement**).

	strongly disagree						strongly agree
John is a highly valued member of the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
John is punctual	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
John will leave the company within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
John's colleagues lack respect for him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
John's rate of absenteeism is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
John will become dissatisfied with the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
John is highly regarded by his manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
John's work productivity is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
John has a good future with the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
John will suffer stress related illness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
John's colleagues enjoy working with him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
John lacks motivation to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
John is happy with his lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
John lacks ambition	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
John will be promoted within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
John is able to separate work and life outside work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Those senior to John are sceptical about his performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following statements refer to **Mary**. Please indicate how much you agree with **each** one by circling the appropriate number (**1 = strongly disagree with the statement, 7 = strongly agree with the statement**).

	strongly disagree						strongly agree
Mary is a highly valued member of the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mary is punctual	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mary will leave the company within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mary's colleagues lack respect for her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mary's rate of absenteeism is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mary will become dissatisfied with the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mary is highly regarded by her manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mary's work productivity is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mary has a good future with the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mary will suffer stress related illness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mary's colleagues enjoy working with her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mary lacks motivation to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mary is happy with her lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mary lacks ambition	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mary will be promoted within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mary is able to separate work and life outside work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Those senior to Mary are sceptical about her performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following statements refer to **Stephen**. Please indicate how much you agree with **each** one by circling the appropriate number (**1 = strongly disagree with the statement, 7 = strongly agree with the statement**).

	strongly disagree						strongly agree
Stephen is a highly valued member of the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stephen is punctual	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stephen will leave the company within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stephen's colleagues lack respect for him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stephen's rate of absenteeism is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stephen will become dissatisfied with the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stephen is highly regarded by his manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stephen's work productivity is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stephen has a good future with the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stephen will suffer stress related illness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stephen's colleagues enjoy working with him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stephen lacks motivation to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stephen is happy with his lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stephen lacks ambition	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stephen will be promoted within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stephen is able to separate work and life outside work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Those senior to Stephen are sceptical about his performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following statements refer to **Jane**. Please indicate how much you agree with **each** one by circling the appropriate number (**1 = strongly disagree with the statement, 7 = strongly agree with the statement**).

	strongly disagree						strongly agree
Jane is a highly valued member of the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jane is punctual	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jane will leave the company within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jane's colleagues lack respect for her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jane's rate of absenteeism is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jane will become dissatisfied with the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jane is highly regarded by her manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jane's work productivity is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jane has a good future with the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jane will suffer stress related illness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jane's colleagues enjoy working with her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jane lacks motivation to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jane is happy with her lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jane lacks ambition	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jane will be promoted within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Jane is able to separate work and life outside work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Those senior to Jane are sceptical about her performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following statements refer to **Sarah**. Please indicate how much you agree with **each** one by circling the appropriate number (**1 = strongly disagree with the statement, 7 = strongly agree with the statement**).

	strongly disagree						strongly agree
Sarah is a highly valued member of the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sarah is punctual	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sarah will leave the company within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sarah's colleagues lack respect for her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sarah's rate of absenteeism is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sarah will become dissatisfied with the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sarah is highly regarded by her manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sarah's work productivity is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sarah has a good future with the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sarah will suffer stress related illness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sarah's colleagues enjoy working with her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sarah lacks motivation to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sarah is happy with her lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sarah lacks ambition	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sarah will be promoted within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sarah is able to separate work and life outside work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Those senior to Sarah are sceptical about her performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The following statements refer to **Matt**. Please indicate how much you agree with **each** one by circling the appropriate number (**1 = strongly disagree with the statement, 7 = strongly agree with the statement**).

	strongly disagree						strongly agree
Matt is a highly valued member of the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Matt is punctual	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Matt will leave the company within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Matt's colleagues lack respect for him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Matt's rate of absenteeism is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Matt will become dissatisfied with the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Matt is highly regarded by his manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Matt's work productivity is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Matt has a good future with the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Matt will suffer stress related illness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Matt's colleagues enjoy working with him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Matt lacks motivation to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Matt is happy with his lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Matt lacks ambition	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Matt will be promoted within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Matt is able to separate work and life outside work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Those senior to Matt are sceptical about his performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please take a few extra minutes to complete the following questions about yourself:

1. How many years of work experience do you have?

   0   1 – 2   3 – 5   more than 5

2. Has this work been

   Full-time   Part-time   Mixture

3. Are you:

   Male   Female

4. Age: 16 – 21   22 – 29   30 – 39   40 – 49   50 – 65

5. Degree registered for ....

Do you have any comments to make with regard to this questionnaire?

....

....

....

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

Appendix 4.2

Chapter 5: Attitudes Towards Flexible Working

Questionnaire for Main Study

EMPLOYEE PROFILE

QUESTIONNAIRE 1

QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire study is being conducted by the Department of Psychology at the University of Kent. Your help is required to complete the attached questionnaire. The aim is to examine different employee profiles. We hope that you will find the questionnaire interesting and straightforward to complete. It should take approximately 15 minutes. **PLEASE DO NOT DISCUSS THE QUESTIONS OR YOUR ANSWERS WITH OTHERS BEFORE EVERYONE HAS COMPLETED AND RETURNED THEIR QUESTIONNAIRES.**

CONFIDENTIALITY

This questionnaire is totally confidential. You do not need to include your name anywhere within it. You do not have to complete the questionnaire, or any part of it, if you object to doing so.

If you have any questions with regard to the questionnaire please do not hesitate to contact me on ext. 3923 or via e-mail at J.A.Waumsley@kent.ac.uk

Thank you for your participation.

Please now turn over and read the information about a successful British Company and six of its employees.

Julie Waumsley
University of Kent

COMPANY PROFILE

Klux & Coy. is a large national organisation with six corporate offices in the U.K. In 1998 the company introduced 'Choices', which is a system of Alternative Working Arrangements and Benefits that provide work improvements and flexibility to both employee and employer. Some of the benefits include: private medical insurance, childcare vouchers, retail vouchers, the option to buy up to ten extra days holiday per year, and a pension scheme. Some of the Alternative Working Arrangements include: part-time work, job-share, compressed hours of working, flexitime, and working outside 'normal' hours. All employees have the opportunity to choose working arrangements and benefits from the options provided that can best be tailored to accommodate their own individual lifestyles. The following are the profiles of six employees who work for Klux & Coy.

John is 30 years old and works as an administrator. John works full-time, but from 8.00am to 3.30pm, with a compressed lunch break of half an hour, Monday to Friday in order that he is able to collect his six-year-old daughter from school each day. This also makes available the time for John to take his daughter to Brownies on Mondays, and swimming on Tuesdays and Thursdays, and to generally spend time with her. John also buys 10 optional extra days leave per year for use in the case of emergencies, for example, if his daughter is ill and he has to stay at home to care for her.

Jane is 31 years old and works as an administrator. Jane works full-time, but from 9.00am to 4.30pm, with a compressed lunch break of half an hour, Monday to Friday in order that she can get home to care for her elderly father, who relies on Jane to take him to his pensioners' club once a week, and to bingo two evenings a week. He also visits the hospital at least once a month, which Jane takes him to and collects him from. Jane also buys 10 optional extra days leave per year for use in the case of emergencies, for example, to look after her father if he should fall ill and require full day care.

Mary is 28 years old and works as an administrator. Mary works full-time, but from 8.30am to 4.00pm, with a compressed lunch break of half an hour, Monday to Friday in order that she is able to finish work early enough to go to the gym regularly, and to enable her to attend club hockey training twice a week. Mary also buys 10 optional extra days leave per year to use for hockey tournaments that often take place over weekends, but that also often involve requiring Fridays and Mondays for travelling.

Sarah is 29 years old and works as an administrator. Sarah works full time but does not stick to regular hours of work, staying in the office until the work is done. This sometimes involves working in the evenings, through lunch, and at weekends. Sarah also has the private medical insurance to give her assurance of accelerated medical care should she require it. If she has time, Sarah enjoys going to the cinema and theatre, but only pursues these interests if work commitments permit.

Simon is 33 years old and works as an administrator. Simon enjoys regular hours of work, and so works full time from 9.00am to 5.00pm each day from Monday to Friday, with an hour for lunch. Simon enjoys going to the gym three times a week in the evenings, and meeting friends socially on other occasions. Simon chooses to have the retail vouchers, which give him the opportunity to eat at some restaurants at special prices, and to extend his much loved CD collection.

Matt is 32 years old and works as an administrator. Matt works full-time, but from 8.30am to 4.30pm, with an hour for lunch, Monday to Friday in order that he is able to practice playing his violin when he gets home, and go to official practices during the evenings when necessary. Matt plays in an orchestra, which involves evening and weekend concerts. With this in mind, Matt also chooses to buy 10 optional extra days leave per year so that he has the flexibility to take extra time off work when his orchestra has a programme of touring concerts.

You will now be asked to answer some questions with regard to **your impressions** about each of these people and their behaviour. Please turn over.

A4.2

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JOHN

The following statements refer to John. Please complete the missing sections. You may refer to the profile page.

1. John's hours of work are ……………………………..

2. John's lunch hour is …………………….long.

3. John's daughter is …………….. years old.

4. The activities that John requires time to take his daughter to are …………………………………………

Please now consider the following statements and indicate how much you think each is likely to be true by circling the appropriate number (1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely).

	Very Unlikely						**Very Likely**
1. John will suffer stress related illness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. John's rate of absenteeism is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. John has a good future with the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. John's colleagues lack respect for him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. John lacks motivation to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. John is highly regarded by his manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. John will become dissatisfied with his job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. John's work productivity is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. John will leave the company within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. John's colleagues enjoy working with him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. John is happy with his lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. John is able to separate work and life outside work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

MARY

The following statements refer to Mary. Please complete the missing sections. You may refer to the profile page.

1. The hours that Mary works are .... to ....

2. Mary's lunch hour is .... long.

3. Mary's sport is ....

4. Mary sometimes requires extra time at weekends for ....

Please now consider the following statements and indicate how much you think each is likely to be true by circling the appropriate number (1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely).

	Very Unlikely						Very Likely
1. Mary will suffer stress related illness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Mary's rate of absenteeism is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Mary has a good future with the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Mary's colleagues lack respect for her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Mary lacks motivation to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Mary is highly regarded by her manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Mary will become dissatisfied with her job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Mary's work productivity is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Mary will leave the company within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Mary's colleagues enjoy working with her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Mary is happy with her lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Mary is able to separate work and life outside work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SIMON

The following statements refer to Simon. Please complete the missing sections. You may refer to the profile page.

1. The hours that Simon works are ………………..to…………………………...

2. Simon takes ……………………….. for lunch.

3. The benefits that Simon chooses to have are ………………………..

4. Simon enjoys………………………………………….

Please now consider the following statements and indicate how much you think each is likely to be true by circling the appropriate number (1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely).

	Very Unlikely						Very Likely
1. Simon will suffer stress related illness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Simon's rate of absenteeism is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Simon has a good future with the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Simon's colleagues lack respect for him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Simon lacks motivation to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Simon is highly regarded by his manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Simon will become dissatisfied with his job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Simon's work productivity is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Simon will leave the company within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Simon's colleagues enjoy working with him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Simon is happy with his lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Simon is able to separate work and life outside work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

JANE

The following statements refer to Jane. Please complete the missing sections. You may refer to the profile page.

1. Jane's hours of work are from ……………. to…………………….

2. Jane takes ………………………. for lunch.

3. Jane works as an ………………………

3. Jane has caring responsibilities for…………………………………..

Please now consider the following statements and indicate how much you think each is likely to be true by circling the appropriate number (1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely).

	Very Unlikely						**Very Likely**
1. Jane will suffer stress related illness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Jane's rate of absenteeism is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Jane has a good future with the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Jane's colleagues lack respect for her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Jane lacks motivation to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Jane is highly regarded by her manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Jane will become dissatisfied with her job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Jane's work productivity is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Jane will leave the company within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Jane's colleagues enjoy working with her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Jane is happy with her lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Jane is able to separate work and life outside work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SARAH

The following statements refer to Sarah. Please complete the missing sections. You may refer to the profile page.

1. The hours that Sarah works are ……………………..to ……………………

2. Sarah takes ……………………… for lunch.

3. Sarah's interests include…………………………………………………..

4. Sarah works as an …………………………………………………………

Please now consider the following statements and indicate how much you think each is likely to be true by circling the appropriate number (1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely).

	Very Unlikely						Very Likely
1. Sarah will suffer stress related illness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Sarah's rate of absenteeism is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Sarah has a good future with the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Sarah's colleagues lack respect for her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Sarah lacks motivation to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Sarah is highly regarded by her manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Sarah will become dissatisfied with her job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Sarah's work productivity is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Sarah will leave the company within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Sarah's colleagues enjoy working with her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Sarah is happy with her lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Sarah is able to separate work and life outside work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

MATT

The following statements refer to Matt. Please complete the missing sections. You may refer to the profile page.

1. Matt's main interest is ....

2. Matt takes .... for lunch.

3. Matt's hours of work are ....

4. Matt chooses to buy ....extra days leave per year to ....

Please now consider the following statements and indicate how much you think each is likely to be true by circling the appropriate number (1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely).

	Very Unlikely						Very Likely
1. Matt will suffer stress related illness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Matt's rate of absenteeism is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Matt has a good future with the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Matt's colleagues lack respect for him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Matt lacks motivation to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Matt is highly regarded by his manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Matt will become dissatisfied with his job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Matt's work productivity is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Matt will leave the company within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Matt's colleagues enjoy working with him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Matt is happy with his lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Matt is able to separate work and life outside work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please take a few minutes to complete the following questions about yourself:

1.   How many years of work experience do you have?

   0   1 – 2   3 – 5   more than 5

2.   Has this work been

   Full-time   Part-time   Mixture

3.   Are you:

   Male   Female

4.   Age: **16 – 21   22 – 29   30 – 39   40 – 49   50 – 65**

5.   Degree registered for   ....

Do you have any comments to make with regard to this questionnaire?

....

....

....

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

Appendix 5.1

Chapter 6: Promotion Prospects

Male Manager Questionnaire for Main Study
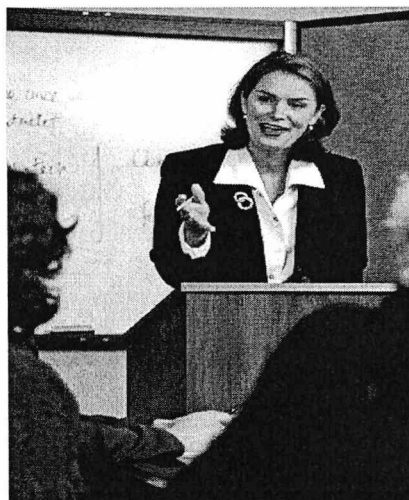
Employee Profile Questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE

This study is being conducted by the University of Kent. Your help is required to complete the attached questionnaire. The aim is to examine different employee profiles. We hope that you will find the questionnaire interesting and straightforward to complete.

CONFIDENTIALITY

This questionnaire is totally anonymous. You do not need to include your name anywhere within it. You do not have to complete the questionnaire, or any part of it, if you object to doing so.

CONTACT

If you have any questions with regard to the questionnaire please do not hesitate to contact me on 01227 823923, via e-mail at J.A.Waumsley@ukc.ac.uk, or at the address below.

Thank you for your participation.

Please now turn over and read the information about a British Company and six of its employees.

Julie Waumsley
Work-Life Research Group
Department of Psychology
Keynes College
University of Kent at Canterbury
Canterbury
Kent
CT2 7NP

COMPANY PROFILE

Klux & Co. is a large national organisation with six corporate offices in the U.K. In 1998 the company introduced 'Choices', which is a system of Alternative Working Arrangements and Benefits that provide flexibility to both employee and employer. Some of the benefits include: private medical insurance, childcare vouchers, retail vouchers, the option to buy up to ten extra days holiday per year, and a pension scheme. Some of the Alternative Working Arrangements include: part-time work, job-share, compressed hours of working, flexitime, and working outside 'normal' hours. All employees have the opportunity to choose working arrangements and benefits from the options provided that can best be tailored to accommodate their own individual lifestyles. The following are the profiles of six male managers who work for Klux & Co.

Peter is 34 years old and works as a manager. Peter works full-time, but from 8.00am to 3.30pm, with a compressed lunch break of half an hour, Monday to Friday in order that he is able to collect his six-year-old daughter from school each day. This also makes available the time for Peter to take his daughter to Brownies on Mondays, and swimming on Tuesdays and Thursdays, and to generally spend time with her. Peter also buys 10 optional extra days leave per year for use in the case of emergencies, for example, if his daughter is ill and he has to stay at home to care for her.	Chris is 31 years old and works as a manager. Chris works full-time, but from 9.00am to 4.30pm, with a compressed lunch break of half an hour, Monday to Friday in order that he can get home to care for his elderly father, who relies on Chris to take him to his pensioners' club once a week, and to bingo two evenings a week. He also visits the hospital at least once a month, which Chris takes him to and collects him from. Chris also buys 10 optional extra days leave per year for use in the case of emergencies, for example, to look after his father if he should fall ill and require full day care.
Roger is 28 years old and works as a manager. Roger works full-time, but from 8.30am to 4.00pm, with a compressed lunch break of half an hour, Monday to Friday in order that he is able to finish work early enough to go to the gym regularly, and to enable him to attend club hockey training twice a week. Roger also buys 10 optional extra days leave per year to use for hockey tournaments that often take place over weekends, but that also often involve requiring Fridays and Mondays for travelling.	Gary is 29 years old and works as a manager. Gary works full time but does not stick to regular hours of work. He often works into the evenings, through lunch, and at weekends. Gary opts to take the firm's private medical insurance to give him assurance of accelerated medical care should he require it. If he has time, Gary enjoys going to the cinema and theatre, but only pursues these interests if work commitments permit.
Andrew is 33 years old and works as a manager. Andrew works regular hours of work, and so works full time from 9.00am to 5.00pm each day from Monday to Friday, with an hour for lunch. Andrew enjoys going to the gym three times a week in the evenings, and meeting friends socially on other occasions. Andrew chooses to have the retail vouchers, which give him the opportunity to eat at some restaurants at special prices, and to extend his much loved CD collection.	Mike is 32 years old and works as a manager. Mike works full-time, but from 8.30am to 4.30pm, with an hour for lunch, Monday to Friday in order that he is able to practice playing his violin when he gets home, and go to official practices during the evenings when necessary. Mike plays in an orchestra, which involves evening and weekend concerts. With this in mind, Mike also chooses to buy 10 optional extra days leave per year so that he has the flexibility to take extra time off work when his orchestra has a programme of touring concerts.

Now that you have read about these employees, we would like you to give us **your** impression about each of them. Whilst there may be many things that determine an employee's work performance, we are interested in your initial impression based on the information provided. Please turn over.

PETER

lease now consider the following statements and indicate how much you think each is likely to be ue by circling the appropriate number (1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely). You may refer to the mpany profile page. To remind you, **Peter works from 8.00am to 3.30pm, and looks after his ix-year old daughter.**

		Very Unlikely						Very Likely
.	The demands of Peter's home life interfere with his responsibilities at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Peter would like to work at Klux and Co. until retirement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Peter's rate of absenteeism is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Peter has a good future with the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Peter's job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil his duties at home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Peter's colleagues lack respect for him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Peter lacks motivation to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	The amount of time Peter's job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil his home responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Peter is highly regarded by his senior manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0.	Peter will become dissatisfied with his job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	Peter's colleagues feel they can rely on him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Peter's work productivity is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Peter will leave the company within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Peter's colleagues enjoy working with him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	Peter has to put off doing things at work because of demands on his time at home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ROGER

lease now consider the following statements and indicate how much you think each is likely to be
ue by circling the appropriate number (1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely). You may refer to the
mpany profile page. To remind you, **Roger works from 8.30am to 4.00pm, and plays hockey.**

	Very Unlikely						**Very Likely**
The demands of Roger's home life interfere with his responsibilities at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Roger would like to work at Klux and Co. until retirement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Roger's rate of absenteeism is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Roger has a good future with the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Roger's job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil his duties at home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Roger's colleagues lack respect for him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Roger lacks motivation to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The amount of time Roger's job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil his home responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Roger is highly regarded by his senior manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Roger will become dissatisfied with his job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Roger's colleagues feel they can rely on him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Roger's work productivity is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Roger will leave the company within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Roger's colleagues enjoy working with him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Roger has to put off doing things at work because of demands on his time at home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ANDREW

lease now consider the following statements and indicate how much you think each is likely to be ue by circling the appropriate number (1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely). You may refer to the ompany profile page. To remind you, **Andrew works regular hours from 9.00am to 5.00pm.**

		Very Unlikely						Very Likely
.	The demands of Andrew's home life interfere with his responsibilities at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Andrew would like to work at Klux and Co. until retirement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Andrew's rate of absenteeism is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Andrew has a good future with the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Andrew's job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil his duties at home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Andrew's colleagues lack respect for him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Andrew lacks motivation to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	The amount of time Andrew's job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil his home responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Andrew is highly regarded by his senior manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Andrew will become dissatisfied with his job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	Andrew's colleagues feel they can rely on him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	Andrew's work productivity is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	Andrew will leave the company within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Andrew's colleagues enjoy working with him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	Andrew has to put off doing things at work because of demands on his time at home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

CHRIS

Please now consider the following statements and indicate how much you think each is likely to be true by circling the appropriate number (1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely). You may refer to the company profile page. To remind you, **Chris works from 9.00am to 4.30pm, and looks after his elderly father.**

		Very Unlikely						Very Likely
.	The demands of Chris's home life interfere with his responsibilities at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Chris would like to work at Klux and Co. until retirement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Chris's rate of absenteeism is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Chris has a good future with the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Chris's job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil his duties at home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Chris's colleagues lack respect for him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Chris lacks motivation to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	The amount of time Chris's job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil his home responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Chris is highly regarded by his senior manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Chris will become dissatisfied with his job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	Chris's colleagues feel they can rely on him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	Chris's work productivity is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	Chris will leave the company within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Chris's colleagues enjoy working with him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	Chris has to put off doing things at work because of demands on his time at home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

GARY

lease now consider the following statements and indicate how much you think each is likely to be ue by circling the appropriate number (1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely). You may refer to the ompany profile page. To remind you, **Gary often works into the evenings, through lunch, and at eekends.**

		Very Unlikely						Very Likely
.	The demands of Gary's home life interfere with his responsibilities at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Gary would like to work at Klux and Co. until retirement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Gary's rate of absenteeism is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Gary has a good future with the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Gary's job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil his duties at home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Gary's colleagues lack respect for him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Gary lacks motivation to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	The amount of time Gary's job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil his home responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Gary is highly regarded by his senior manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0.	Gary will become dissatisfied with his job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	Gary's colleagues feel they can rely on him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Gary's work productivity is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Gary will leave the company within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Gary's colleagues enjoy working with him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Gary has to put off doing things at work because of demands on his time at home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

MIKE

lease now consider the following statements and indicate how much you think each is likely to be ue by circling the appropriate number (1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely). You may refer to the ompany profile page. To remind you, **Mike works from 8.30am to 4.30pm, and plays in an rchestra.**

		Very Unlikely						Very Likely
.	The demands of Mike's home life interfere with his responsibilities at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Mike would like to work at Klux and Co. until retirement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Mike's rate of absenteeism is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Mike has a good future with the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Mike's job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil his duties at home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Mike's colleagues lack respect for him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Mike lacks motivation to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	The amount of time Mike's job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil his home responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
.	Mike is highly regarded by his senior manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Mike will become dissatisfied with his job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	Mike's colleagues feel they can rely on him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	Mike's work productivity is above average	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	Mike will leave the company within the next two years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Mike's colleagues enjoy working with him	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	Mike has to put off doing things at work because of demands on his time at home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please imagine that you are the senior manager of the six people (Peter, Roger, Andrew, Chris, Gary and Mike) who work for Klux and Co. Then think about promotion, and complete the following statements:

I would be most likely to promote

(Name of person)

because --

I would be least likely to promote

(Name of person)

because --

In order to fully understand your answers, we need to have some information about you. Please remember, this questionnaire is anonymous and confidential.

Age: ....   Gender: male / female   (please circle)

Do you work: full time / part time   (please circle)

How many hours per week do you work?...

Does your partner work: full time / part time   (please circle)

How many hours per week does your partner work?...

Are you: single   married   cohabiting   separated   divorced   widowed   (please circle)

How many hours each week do you spend on caring responsibilities for children / disabled / elderly / any other person? (please circle which applies)   .... hours.

Please give ages of any children you have who live with you...

Please give ages of any children you have who do not live with you......................................

What is your main interest outside work?..

How many hours per week do you spend on this? ....

What organisation do you work for?...

What is your job title? ....

Please circle the highest qualification you hold:

    GCSE   A Level   HND (or equivalent)   Degree   Masters   Ph.D   Other (please specify...........................)

Which of the following classifications do you consider yourself to be (please circle):

    Managerial / Professional   Skilled   Factory/Semi-skilled   Unskilled

Please now turn over

Please now consider the following statements for yourself and indicate how much you think each is likely to be true by circling the appropriate number (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree).

|	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
I am glad to be a member of this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I think about leaving this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In the next few years I intend to leave this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I often regret that I belong to this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would like to work in this organisation until I reach retirement age	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel a strong sense of belonging to this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My organisation strongly considers my goals and values	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My organisation really cares about my well-being	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My organisation shows very little concern for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My organisation would forgive an honest mistake on my part	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My organisation cares about my opinions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Given the opportunity, my organisation would take advantage of me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Help is available from my organisation when I have a problem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My organisation is willing to help me when I need a special favour	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

We would now like you to answer some questions about yourself and your working life.

Please consider the following statements for yourself and indicate how much you think each is likely to be true by circling the appropriate number (1 = not at all, 7 = very much).

	Not at All						Very Much
How often does your job or career interfere with your responsibilities at home, such as gardening, cooking, cleaning, DIY, shopping, paying the bills, or child care?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
How often does your job or career keep you from spending the amount of time you would like to spend at home?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
How often does your home life interfere with your responsibilities at work, such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, or working overtime?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
How often does your home life keep you from spending the amount of time you would like to spend on job or career related activities?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Thank you for completing this questionnaire
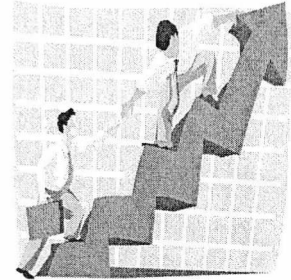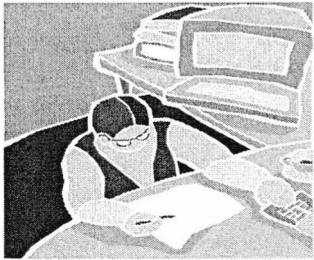
Working Practices Questionnaire
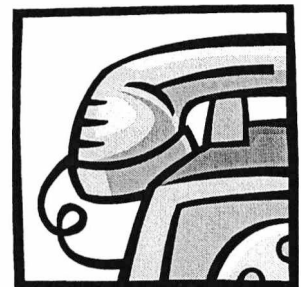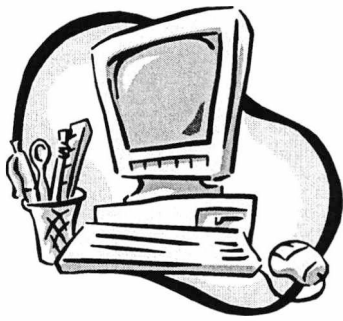
The University of Kent, in conjunction with Kent Police, is conducting this study. Your help is required to complete the attached questionnaire. The aim is to examine your thoughts and feelings about work and the way you feel about different working patterns. We hope that you will find the questionnaire interesting and straightforward to complete.

The questionnaire is totally confidential and anonymous. No one in your place of work or at home will see your responses and you do not need to include your name anywhere within it. You do not have to complete the questionnaire, or any part of it, if you object to doing so.

If you have any questions with regard to this questionnaire please do not hesitate to contact me on 01227 823923, via e-mail at J.A.Waumsley@ukc.ac.uk, or at the following address: Julie Waumsley, Work-Life Research Group, Department of Psychology, Keynes College, University of Kent at Canterbury, Canterbury, Kent, CT2 7NP.

PLEASE NOW TURN OVER AND READ THE PARAGRAPH AT THE TOP OF THE PAGE BEFORE COMPLETING
THE QUESTIONNAIRE

In the UK today, people work a variety of different working patterns, which inevitably mean different hours of work. 'Alternative working practices' is the term we use in this questionnaire to mean any pattern of working hours that do not constitute a regular 5-day, 9am to 5pm week, such as annualised hours, term-time only contracts, flexitime, or any pattern of full-time working hours that fit with the employer and employee's needs (for example 7.30 to 3.30, 5 days a week; 8am to 6pm 4 days a week). As well as asking about alternative working practices we also ask about long hours of work. Overall, we would like to ask you about your feelings generally towards work and the way you feel about different working patterns.

Please evaluate what you think of each statement on a scale of 1 to 7 (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
At work, it is important to keep on top of workload	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Working longer hours than contracted makes it possible to keep on top of workload	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Staff have the right to expect flexibility from their managers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Working long hours leads to errors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Flexible working lead to poor work performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Managers have the right to expect flexibility from their staff	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Flexible working mean people are absent from work less	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
At work, it is important to meet deadlines	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Working longer hours than contracted makes it possible to meet deadlines at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There should be mutual give and take between managers and staff in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Working long hours is stressful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Flexible working means leaving work undone to get home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Flexible working means people stay with the organisation longer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Managers have the right to expect loyalty from their staff	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is important to be reliable at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Staff have the right to expect loyalty from their managers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Working longer hours than contracted means a backlog of work is avoided	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Flexible working enhances productivity at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There should be a willingness from both managers and staff to give extra time at work when work demands are high	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Working long hours puts strain on life outside work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Flexible working means that sometimes the job does not get finished	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Flexible working allows people to meet responsibilities away from work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
Managers have the right to expect all staff to meet deadlines	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There should be a willingness from both managers and staff to help out in a crisis at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Flexible working results in loyalty from employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Working longer hours than contracted when workload is heavy gets the job done	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Flexible working creates strain for colleagues who do not use them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Managers have the right to expect staff to work extra hours if work demands are high	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Flexible working reduces stress at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Staff should expect to meet deadlines, no matter what	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Managers have the right to lay staff off if work demands are low	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Flexible working means that workload sometimes mounts up	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If flexible working was not available, some people would not be able to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A willingness to 'go the extra mile' at work from both managers and staff lends itself to good working relations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Staff have the right to expect their managers to be flexible at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If either managers or staff are supportive at work, the other should reciprocate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Flexible working means having to leave work at specific times to meet outside responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Flexible working helps to balance work with home life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Managers have the right to ensure targets at work are met whatever work patterns their staff work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Flexible working makes employees appear to be inflexible at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To help meet deadlines, both managers and staff should be willing to put in extra hours	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Flexible working makes employees appear to be unreliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Flexible working relieves the pressures of the standard 9-5 working week	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Managers have the right to have profit/performance as their highest priority	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Flexible working makes for a more committed workforce	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
If either managers or staff offer flexibility at work, the other should reciprocate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Flexible working means other colleagues are sometimes let down	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

In order to understand your answers fully, we need to know some information about yourself. Please answer the following questions, and remember that your answers are anonymous and confidential.

Age: _____   **Gender:**   male / female

Which category best describes the broad ethnic category to which you belong (please circle):

White   Black African   Indian   Bangladeshi   Asian   Pakistani   Chinese   Other _____

Are you: single   married   cohabiting   separated   divorced   widowed   **(please circle)**

Please tell us if you have any children:

I have [   ]   **child/children**

Please give ages of any children you have who live with you   _____

Please give ages of any children you have who do not live with you_____

How many hours each week do you spend on caring responsibilities for:

children [   ]   disabled [   ]   elderly [   ]   any other person [   ]

What is your main interest outside work? _____

How many hours per week do you spend on this? [   ]

What organisation do you work for_____

Do you work: full time / part time   **(please circle)**

What is your job title? _____

How long have you worked for your current organisation? _____ years

How many hours do you usually work each week?   normal hours   [   ]

overtime hours   [   ]

Does your partner work: full time   part-time   not at all   **(please circle)**

How much time travelling do you take to get to work? _____ hours _____ minutes.

What is your basic rate of pay before tax? (please give either a weekly or an annual amount)

£_____per week   or   £_____annually

Please circle the highest qualification you hold:

GCSE   A Level   HND (or equivalent)   Degree   Masters   Ph.D   Other (please specify) _____

Which, of the following classifications, do you consider yourself to be (please circle):

Managerial/Professional   Skilled   Semi-skilled   Unskilled

We would now like to know about your feelings towards your own place of work. Please evaluate what you think of each statement on a scale of 1 to 7 (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
In my organisation, my manager gives time off in lieu if I work extra hours	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In my organisation, my manager has the right to expect flexibility from me if s/he permits flexibility in my working hours	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In my organisation, my manager has the right to expect mutual give and take	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In my organisation, my manager has the right to expect loyalty from me if s/he is supportive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In my organisation, my manager is appreciative of my efforts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel strong ties with my organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My organisation is important to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel proud to be a member of my organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am glad to be a member of my organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In the next few years I intend to leave this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I think about leaving this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would like to work in this organisation until I reach retirement age	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

We would now like to know about your feelings towards your own performance at work. Please respond honestly to each statement on a scale of 1 to 7 (1 = very poor, 7 = excellent)

	Very Poor						Excellent
How would you rate your own work performance?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
How would your manager probably rate your work performance?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please answer the following two questions:

Contractually, does your job involve: no fixed hours of work   fixed hours with overtime

(please circle one)   fixed hours without overtime   alternative working hours

If you do not work flexible hours, would it be possible to work flexible hours in the job you do (please circle one only):
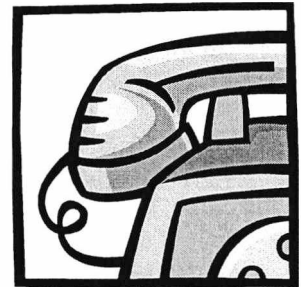
Yes   No   Possibly, with some adjustments

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Appendix 6.2
Chapter 7: Reciprocity
Questionnaire for Main Study
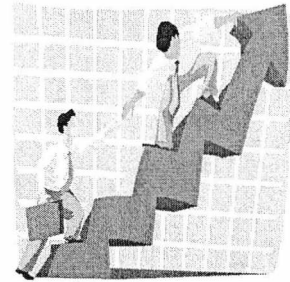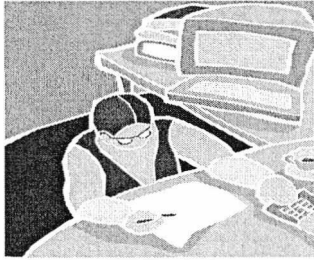
Working Practices Questionnaire

The University of Kent, in conjunction with Kent Police, is looking to gather relevant information in a review of the terms and conditions of police staff within Kent Police. Your help is therefore required to complete the attached questionnaire. The aim is to examine your thoughts and feelings about work and the way you feel about different working patterns. We hope that you will find the questionnaire interesting and straightforward to complete.

The questionnaire is totally confidential and anonymous. No one in your place of work or at home will see your responses and you do not need to include your name anywhere within it. You do not have to complete the questionnaire, or any part of it, if you object to doing so.

If you have any questions with regard to this questionnaire please do not hesitate to contact me on 01227 823923, via e-mail at J.A.Waumsley@ukc.ac.uk, or at the following address: Julie Waumsley, Work-Life Research Group, Department of Psychology, Keynes College, University of Kent, Canterbury, Kent, CT2 7NP.

PLEASE NOW TURN OVER AND READ THE PARAGRAPH AT THE TOP OF THE PAGE BEFORE COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

In the UK today, people work a variety of different working patterns, which inevitably mean different hours of work. 'Alternative working practices' is the term we use in this questionnaire to mean any pattern of working hours that do not constitute a regular 5-day, 9am to 5pm week. 'Alternative working practices' refer to patterns of work that include annualised hours, term-time only contracts, flexitime, or any pattern of full-time working hours that fit with the employer and employee's needs (for example 7.30 to 3.30, 5 days a week; 8am to 6pm 4 days a week). As well as asking about alternative working practices we also ask about long hours of work. Overall, we would like to ask you about your feelings generally towards work and the way you feel about different working patterns.

Please evaluate what you think of each statement on a scale of 1 to 7 (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
At work, it is important to keep on top of workload	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Working longer hours than contracted makes it possible to keep on top of workload	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Staff have the right to expect flexibility from their managers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Working long hours leads to errors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Alternative working practices lead to poor work performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Managers have the right to expect flexibility from their staff	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Alternative working practices mean people are absent from work less	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
At work, it is important to meet deadlines	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Working longer hours than contracted makes it possible to meet deadlines at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There should be mutual give and take between managers and staff in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Working long hours is stressful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Alternative working practices mean leaving work undone to get home	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Alternative working practices mean people stay with the organisation longer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Managers have the right to expect loyalty from their staff	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is important to be reliable at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Working longer hours than contracted means a backlog of work is avoided	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Alternative working practices enhance productivity at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There should be a willingness from both managers and staff to give extra time at work when work demands are high	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Working long hours puts strain on life outside work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Alternative working practices mean that sometimes the job does not get finished	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Alternative working practices allow people to meet responsibilities away from work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree

Managers have the right to expect all staff to meet deadlines   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

There should be a willingness from both managers and staff
to help out in a crisis at work   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Alternative working practices result in loyalty from employees   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Working longer hours than contracted when workload is heavy gets the job done   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Alternative working practices create strain for colleagues who do not use them   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Managers have the right to expect staff to work extra hours if work demands are high   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Alternative working practices reduce stress at work   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Alternative working practices mean that workload sometimes mounts up   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

If alternative working practices were not available, some people would
not be able to work   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A willingness to 'go the extra mile' at work from both managers and staff
lends itself to good working relations   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Staff have the right to expect their managers to be flexible at work   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

If either managers or staff are supportive at work, the other should reciprocate   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Alternative working practices mean having to leave work at specific times
to meet outside responsibilities   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Alternative working practices help to balance work with home life   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Managers have the right to ensure targets at work are met whatever
work patterns their staff work   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Alternative working practices make employees appear to be inflexible at work   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

To help meet deadlines, both managers and staff should be willing to put in
extra hours   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Alternative working practices make employees appear to be unreliable   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Alternative working practices relieve the pressures of the standard 9-5 working week   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Alternative working practices make for a more committed workforce   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

If either managers or staff offer flexibility at work, the other should reciprocate   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Alternative working practices mean other colleagues are sometimes let down   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

In order to understand your answers fully, we need to know some information about yourself. Please answer the following questions, and remember that your answers are anonymous and confidential.

Age: _____   **Gender:**   male / female

Which category best describes the broad ethnic category to which you belong (please circle):

White   Black African   Indian   Bangladeshi   Asian   Pakistani   Chinese   Other _____

Are you: single   married   cohabiting   separated   divorced   widowed   **(please circle)**

Please tell us if you have any children:

I have   [ ]   child/children

Please give ages of any children you have who live with you _____

Please give ages of any children you have who do not live with you _____

How many hours each week do you spend on caring responsibilities for:

children   [ ]   disabled   [ ]   elderly   [ ]   any other person   [ ]

What is your main interest outside work? _____

How many hours per week do you spend on this?   [ ]

Do you work: full time / part time   **(please circle)**

What is your job title? _____

How long have you worked for your current organisation? _____ years

How many hours do you usually work each week?   normal hours   [ ]

overtime hours   [ ]

Does your partner work: full time   part-time   not at all   **(please circle)**

How much time travelling do you take to get to work? _____ hours _____ minutes.

What is your basic rate of pay before tax? (please give either a weekly or an annual amount)

£_____per week   or   £_____annually

Please circle the highest qualification you hold:

GCSE   A Level   HND (or equivalent)   Degree   Masters   Ph.D   Other **(please specify)** _____

Which, of the following classifications, do you consider yourself to be (please circle):

Managerial/Professional   Skilled   Semi-skilled   Unskilled

We would now like to know about your feelings towards your own place of work. Please evaluate what you think of each statement on a scale of 1 to 7 (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
In my organisation, my manager has the right to expect flexibility from me if s/he permits flexibility in my working hours	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In my organisation, my manager has the right to expect mutual give and take	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In my organisation, my manager has the right to expect loyalty from me if s/he is supportive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel strong ties with my organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My organisation is important to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel proud to be a member of my organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am glad to be a member of my organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
In the next few years I intend to leave this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I think about leaving this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would like to work in this organisation until I reach retirement age	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

We would now like to know about your feelings towards your own performance at work. Please respond honestly to each statement on a scale of 1 to 7 (1 = very poor, 7 = excellent)

	Very Poor						Excellent
How would you rate your own work performance?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
How would your manager probably rate your work performance?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please answer the following two questions:

Contractually, does your job involve: no fixed hours of work   fixed hours with overtime

(please circle one)   fixed hours without overtime   alternative working hours

If you do not work flexible hours, would it be possible to work flexible hours in the job you do (please circle one only):

Yes   No   Possibly, with some adjustments

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE