

**Analysis of Factors Affecting
Work- Life Balance:
The Case of Corporate Sector Managers in
Sri Lanka**

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Abstract

The concern about work-life balance has become a key consideration among the employees all over the world irrespective of the industry that they work in the main emphasis has been drawn towards achieving a good work-life balance. This may be because it is apparent that work-life balance has a direct impact on the quality of life, work and personal well-being.

With the increase of intense competition in corporate arena corporate sector employees experience more problems in maintaining effective work-life balance than other professionals due to long working hours, heavy work schedules, and on the other hand increase in dual-earner couples, child and/or elder care responsibilities and less support from the family.

The current study was undertaken in order to ascertain the factors affecting work-life balance in the context of managers in the corporate sector which, can be regarded as a descriptive study. The data for the study was collected during the second and third quarter of 2014, through structured questionnaire. Partial Least Squares (PLS) analysis via path strengths was used to determine the nature of the hypothesised relationships between the constructs. PLS-PM is made of a system of interdependent equations based on simple and multiple regressions. Such a system estimates the network of relations among the latent variables as well as the links between the manifest variables and their own latent variables.

Accordingly, an exploratory factor analysis was performed followed by the PLS analysis, using Smart-PLS, to analyse the validity of the model's constructs and the relationships between the constructs.

According to the findings of the current study Manager support, Partner support and Organisational time expectations are found to be the major determinants of work-life balance. According to the results colleague support and childcare responsibilities have no significant impact on work-life balance among corporate sector managers in Sri Lanka.

Key words: Childcare responsibilities, Colleague support, Manager support, Organizational time expectations, Partner support, Work-life balance

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

Composition of work domain and family life domain has significantly changed over a period of time. Today's working male and female face a broad set of daily challenges due to tightened economic conditions (Duxbury, 2005). Increase in ageing population, childcare issues, target driven organisational practices which many times create imbalance between their working life and personal/family life (Kalleberg, 2005). According to Duxbury and Higgins (2005), lack of work-life balance influences working individual's performance at workplace as well as in personal life. As stated by Bellavia and Frone (2006), in the current economic scenario, organisations are hard pressed for higher productivity and can face the challenges better if their employees are more engaged with work and workplace. Organisations, more than ever, need employees with improved work-life balance (WLB). An employee with better work-life balance will contribute more meaningfully towards the organisational growth and success (Lowe, 2001).

The concern about work-life balance has become a key consideration among the employees all over the world irrespective of the industry that they work in (Melissa & Schieman, 2009). The main emphasis has been drawn towards achieving a good work-life balance (Lyonette, 2006). As stated by Ruppanner and Huffman (2012), this is because it is apparent that work-life balance has a direct impact on the quality of life, work and personal well-being.

For many employees, the boundaries between work and non-work life are porous (Huffman, 2012). Despite efforts to keep them separate, work and family are considered "greedy institutions" (Piftman, 1994, p.4) that compete for one's time and contribute to the interference between work and non-work life (Coser, 1974; Piftman, 1994; Van der Lippe & Peters, 2007; Voydanoff, 2007). Couples' increasing reliance on a dual-earner wage implies that the number of individuals balancing work and non-work demands is higher than in the past (Eagle, Icenogle, Maes, & Miles, 1998).

According to Brummelhuis and Bakker (2010), a balance between work and life is supposed to exist when there is a proper functioning at work and home with a minimum of role conflict. Therefore, the discordancy between the demands from the work and non-work domain give rise to conflict and consequently, people experience lack of WLB (Allen, 2008). There is a confirmation of the fact that people entering the work force today are laying emphasis on the importance of work-life balance more than predecessors (Crompton

&Lyonette, 2006). According to Drew and Daverth (2009), managers and professionals, in particular, have experienced increasing work-life imbalance while less-skilled workers have had a decline. The paradox is that managers and professionals in knowledge-intensive industries may work the longest hours (Gornick& Meyers, 2003) handle wide range of responsibilities (Glavin, 2008) and also accomplish the needs of the home front as well.

In fact, the researchers bring to mind that corporate sector employees are being drawn to this situation more than the employees of other sectors (Gornick& Meyers, 2003) where they have to work for progressively longer hours and so experience an increasingly unsatisfactory balance between home-life and work-life (Gornick& Meyers, 2003). Subsequent research reiterated these findings, showing that managers have the lowest levels of individual work-life balance (O'Connell et al., 2004). Managers consistently report the longest hours (DTI, 2004), and highest stress levels (O'Connell et al., 2004).

Very few researchers have specifically focused on managers in their work-life balance studies and those that do most often limit their involvement to one small element of the research (Kmec& Gorman, 2010). According to Stone and Grotto (2012), this is perhaps due to the unusual nature of managers in relation to the rest of the workforce: managers tend to have higher educational levels, higher salaries and different working conditions to their staff.

International research on managers shows an intensification of working pressures and a significant lengthening of their work week (Lyness et al., 2001). In 1993, Scase and Goffee reported that most of the managers in their studies worked an average of 50 hours a week and had experienced a general intensification of their working hours. These long hours accord with what Wajcman (1999) calls the 'macho manager' or the concept that being a manager requires total commitment and sacrifice to the organization - the job comes before anything else.

Despite these findings, Seron and Ferris (1995) found that working long hours was often a sign of higher status. This has continued to surface in recent studies which indicate that few managers can afford to work standard hours or avail of the work-life balance accommodations available to them as that would be seen as indicating a lack of organisational commitment and potentially hamper their work-life balance (Thesing, 1998; Drew &Murtag 2005, p.342).

1.2. Research Problem

With the increase of strong rivalry (Competition) in the corporate arena, Fisher (1994, p.63) found that corporate sector employees experience troubles in maintaining effective work-life balance compared to other professionals due to long working hours, heavy work schedules, and on the other hand increase in dual-earner couples, child and/or elder care responsibilities and less support from the family. It is a subset of the domestic economy, excluding the economic activities of general government, of private households, and of non-profit organizations serving individuals (Fisher, 1994). According to the study of Anderson, Morgan and Wilson (2002), corporate sector employees reported higher dissatisfaction with the work-family lead to stress and cause harm to the psychological well-being of the employees thus affecting their performance.

While it remains more common for women to make adjustments to their working patterns in response to household responsibilities, changing socio-economic conditions make it increasingly difficult to sustain one-earner households (Andersen, 2002). Consequently, women are reporting a greater imbalance than men between their work and non-work life (Fine-Davis et al., 2005; Kimmel, 1993). Without full-time domestic support, dual-income couples are facing new challenges which are further complicated by the added pressure many companies face to compete in a 24-7 workplace. The limited nature of 'family-friendly' policies has often served to reinforce traditional gendered breakdowns of labour and such gendered policies do little to address the issues and pressures that newer family structures face (Leira, 1992; Walby, 1990).

We are living in a changing world where the rate of change is also accelerating (Hill & Yang, 2004). In such a context, consistent performance is increasingly becoming critical. According to Hawkins and Ferris (2004), this is particularly true for corporate sector managers. According to Dharmasiri (2013), corporate sector managers are supposed to achieve results in an efficient and effective manner utilising the existing resources, as any management text book tells us. The crux of the matter is that they have to do so, whilst playing multiple roles in professional and personal fronts (Dharmasiri, 2013). Therefore it is important for organisations and individuals to identify the critical factors affecting the balance of work and life and make them deployed in designing work-life balance initiatives and strategies.

Having identified the nature of this situation the researcher decided to address the problem, “why do corporate sector managers experience difficulties in striking a balance between work and life?”

1.3. Justification of the Study

This study is based on an analysis of factors affecting work-life balance: in the context of corporate sector managers in Sri Lanka. Interest in work-life balance (WLB) continues to increase, with a plethora of initiatives designed to encourage employees to reconcile the competing demands of paid work and personal life. The 20th century saw the emergence of professional management as a function responsible for the coordination and control of organisational processes (Jacques, 1996). This development also gave rise to an increasingly instrumental and calculative approach to work. Working harder while switching their attention to life outside work (Watson, 2001) generates conflict between work and non-work life; consequently managers' experience a lack of work-life balance. Yet, the position of manager is particularly pertinent to work-life balance issues for number of reasons.

First, even though managers' typical employment contract formally specifies their hours of work, informally often incorporates expectations that they will work unlimited hours (Brady, 2009). Second, the managerial function is closely associated with the control of organisations. Managerial control covers all organisational processes such as Finance, HR and Marketing (Cohen & Fuwa, 2007), and includes expectations about managers' ability to control their own lives and identities (Calas & Smircich, 1995). Third, as more women move into managerial positions, issues of work-life balance have become especially relevant (Brady, 2009). Childcare issues, typical role expected from a woman are central points. While male managers also face WLB dilemmas, these questions have traditionally been associated with 'Women's employment' (Brady, 2009).

According to Kossek (2005), work-life imbalance occurs not only due to organisational pressures but also due to high demands of family domain. According to Kossek (2005), there has been a steady increase in dual-earner couples, consequently eldercare responsibilities, childcare responsibilities and also less support from the spouse/partner. These increased pressures can have negative impacts on employee's overall work-life balance (Anderson, Coffey & Byerly, 2002).

It is evident that there are many reasons that stand behind the notion of work- life balance and there are many factors affecting work-life balance. Analysing and identifying the major determinants of work-life balance is the main purpose of this research. Based on empirical research, it is justifiable to carry out this study.

1.4. Research Questions

Based on the review of literature and the research problem, the following research questions have been formulated in order to analyse the factors affecting work-life balance.

1. What are the major determinants of work-life balance of corporate sector managers?
2. Does gender have a moderating effect on the relationship between determinants of work-life balance and work-life balance of corporate sector managers?

1.5. Research Objectives

The objectives of this research are:

1. To identify the major determinants of work-life balance of corporate sector managers
2. To identify whether gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between determinants of work-life balance and work-life balance.

1.6. Significance of the Study

As mentioned above, main objective of this study is to identify the major determinants of work-life balance among the corporate sector managers of Sri Lanka. This study is expected to contribute to the knowledge of the work-life balance and the study attempts to analyse and identify the major factors from both the work and non-work spheres affecting the work-life balance. Very few studies regarding work-life balance among corporate sector managers have been conducted and this study will address the lacuna by conducting the study among managerial level employees in the private sector. The outcome of the study is significant since the human resource practitioners will be able to deploy the research findings in the formulation of work-life balance initiatives and strategies and this will be assisting individuals to identify their perceived level of work-life balance and further take initiatives appropriately to cope with multiple pressures in order to achieve a balance between work and non-work life.

1.7. Methodology

This study was carried out to analyse the factors affecting work-life balance among corporate sector managerial level employees in Sri Lanka. Firstly, rigorous literature review was done in order to understand the research problem and elucidate the answer for that in the existing body of literature. The data required to test hypotheses are based on primary data and the discussions of concepts, hypotheses development, methodologies and research design are based on the literature survey.

In order to determine the sample for the study, population is considered as the managerial level employees (individual) who work for corporate sector organizations (FMCG-fast moving consumer goods industry). Total sample size for this study is fixed at 250 in view of the consideration of cost and time. According to Sekaran (2003), population of 10,000 or more, researcher would probably consider a sample size between 200 and 1,000 respondents. In order to support that concept, KMO and Bartlett's test was conducted to assure the adequacy of the sample. Further study deploys the non-probabilistic sampling method and convenient sampling deploys due to the time and resources constraints. Primary data was collected from the respondents through a structured questionnaire.

Validation of measurement properties should be assessed at least through ensuring content validity and construct validity (Sekaran, 2003). Likewise, constructs used in this study have high content validity as they are developed based on a rigorous literature survey. Therefore, factor analysis is used for each dimension to measure construct validity of the study. Further, item correlation is also performed in order to ensure discriminant and convergent validity (Sekaran&Bougie, 2010). Reliability of the measure indicates the extent of un-biasness while ensuring the consistency of measurements across time and across various items in the instruments. This helps to assess the "goodness" of the measure (Sekaran&Bougie, 2010). Inter-item consistency reliability, Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1946) to test the reliability of the constructs. Scope of the study is presented in the next section.

1.8. Scope of the Study

The purpose of this study is to identify the major determinants of work-life balance among corporate sector managers in Sri Lanka. Participants of the study are managerial level employees of the corporate sector.

This sample was chosen because corporate sector managers have to play multiple roles in both the professional and personal domains, therefore there is a higher tendency for them to experience difficulties in maintaining work-life balance.

A questionnaire based study will be carried out to identify the major determinants of work-life balance among corporate sector managers in Sri Lanka.

1.9. Limitations of the Study

Dominant level of the sample is middle level managers and most of the managers from top layer have not returned the questionnaires on time with their tight schedule and with the time constraints researcher did not have room to withhold the process of data analysing until

all the questionnaires were collected. Also the accuracy of the analysis is dependent on the accuracy of the data obtained from the respondents in selected organisations. Confined by time and resource conditions, researcher was unable to conduct the research with larger sample pools, so the sample results cannot be generalised.

1.10. Chapter Framework

Chapter two contains the theoretical underpinning of the study. It highlights the related models, empirical research findings of the phenomenon.

Chapter three of the Thesis is consist of conceptual framework, hypotheses of the study followed by the research methodology. Data analysis and interpretation will be presented in chapter four and discussion of the findings will be presented in chapter five.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to review the available literature relating to the research problem identified. Accordingly, the concept of work-life balance is introduced and theories of work-life balance and antecedents of work-life balance are presented. For the purpose of this research, work-family balance is considered synonymous with work-life balance.

2.2. Concept of work-life balance

Work-family balance is defined as the degree to which you fulfill the demands coming from your employment and the family (Opatha, 2002). Work-life balance refers to “issues relating to the integration of work that is being paid and the rest of life” (Lewis, 2003, p.343). “Although work-life balance has been widely studied, it is important to note that the concept of work-life balance has remained theoretically cloudy and empirically ill-defined” (Felstead et al., 2002, p.191). A major critique of work-life balance discussions has been placed around the problematic notion of “balance”. For instance, Clark (2001) claims that some research used “role conflict” as a surrogate for “work-life balance”. Similarly, a majority of the work-life balance studies are based on role conflict, which is defined as “the simultaneous occurrence of two or more role expectations such that compliance with one would make compliance with the other more difficult” (Katz & Kahn’s study (1973), as cited in Kopp, 2013). For these studies (Marks & Scholarios, 2004) “balance” simply means the absence of conflict. Along the same line, Greenblatt (2002, p.179) claims that work-life balance is simply characterised by “the absence of unacceptable levels of conflict between work and non-work demands”.

Greenhaus, Collins and Shaw (2003) proposed a robust definition of work-family balance in an attempt to distinguish it from other concepts. They defined work-family balance as “the extent to which an individual is equally engaged in and equally satisfied with – his or her work role and family role” (Greenhaus et al., 2003, p.513). This definition does not view balance as universally “good”, but instead recognises that balance can be either positive or negative. It accommodates the growing understanding that participation in multiple roles can contribute to good mental and physical health so long as the degree of “fit” between work and family is satisfactory (Barnett, Garies&Brennan, 1999; Marks

&MacDermid, 1996). Greenhaus et al. (2003) operationalised the concept of work-family balance as comprising three components. These are:

- Time balance - whereby equal amounts of time are devoted to work and family;
- Involvement balance - whereby an equal level of psychological involvement in work and family roles exists; and
- Satisfaction balance - whereby an equal level of satisfaction is derived from work and family roles.

Within this definition, imbalance occurs when greater time, psychological involvement or satisfaction occurs in one role compared to the other. Furthermore, Greenhaus et al. (2003) suggest that balance can be positive where inputs to both roles and outputs (i.e. satisfaction) from both roles are high.

However, Hill et al. (2007) argue that this balance metaphor has serious limitations because it sees work and non-work life as zero-sum game, where work and non-work are seen as conflicting nemeses. As a result, Hill et al. (2007), suggest the possibility of changing the metaphor to harmony instead of balance. This suggestion is mainly based on the viewpoint that work and non-work life are in many ways complementary, rather than competing (e.g. Friedman, Christensen&DeGroot, 1998; Kirchmeyer, 1992; Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer& King, 2002).

2.3. Components of work-life balance and Theoretical foundation

Work-life balance consists of two main components negative side of interface (conflict) and positive side of interface (enrichment), much of the work-life research has focused on the negative side of work-life interface, i.e. work-life conflict. This draws primarily on the Role Scarcity Theory. However, some research challenges the scarcity-based assumptions (Barnett, 1998; Frone, 2003; Hill, 2005). These studies explore and highlight the potential positive aspects of interaction between work roles and non-work roles (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Grzywacz& Marks, 2000).

More recently, researchers (Frone, 2003; Grzywacz& Marks, 2000; Innstrand, Langballe, Espnes, Falkum&Aasland, 2008; Kirchmeyer, 1992; Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007; Wayne, Musisca & Fleeson, 2004) have proposed to incorporate both negative side of work-life interface (work-life conflict), as well as positive side of work-life interface (refer to enrichment, facilitation or enhancement) in examining work-life balance. For example, Frone (2003) specifies that work-life balance results from high levels of work-life enrichment and low levels of work-life conflict. In specific, unlike the typical “balance”

metaphor that only measure work-life conflict, Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) suggest to measure work-life conflict, as well as work-life enrichment as the components of work-life balance in total.

There are various theories and concepts that govern both negative and positive sides of work-life balance.

2.3.1. Theories relating to negative side of work-life balance

Role Scarcity Theory (Goode 1960) posits that each person has a fixed sum of energy to spend, and commitment to one role is seen necessarily detracting from the resources available to another. As indicated by Kanter (1977), active participation in non-work domains, such as family, community and recreation has been viewed historically as robbing the work domain of time and commitment. More recently, Ruderman et al. (2002, p.870) assert that a metaphorical pie is often used to illustrate fixed sum of energy to spend; the time and energy represented by one “slice” of activity deplete the amount of “pie” left for others roles. Therefore, commitment to one role is seen as necessarily detracting from the resources available to another. Similar to Role Scarcity Theory, the ‘**Depletion**’ argument is based on the assumption that people have fixed amounts of psychological and physiological resources to expend and that they make tradeoffs to accommodate these fixed resources (Rothbard, 2001, p.40). In the relationship between work and non-work, the depletion argument argues that work and non-work are inherently conflicting because they both make claims to the same scarce resources (Thompson & Bunderson, 2001, p. 90).

In addition, **Spillover Theory**, in which affective and cognitive roles and experiences are carried over from one domain of life into other domains (Kabanoff, 1980) is commonly used in work-life studies. Crouter (1984, p.642) proposes the probability of both positive and negative spillover. However, extant research on spillover effect between work roles and non-work roles show that such relationship is mainly negative in nature (e.g. Frone, Russell & Cooper, 1992; Greenhaus&Parasuraman, 1985; Kinnunen&Mauno, 1998; Williams &Alliger, 1994). According to Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal (as cited in Bozionelos&Huges, 2007), **Role Conflict** is “simultaneous occurrence of two (or more) sets of pressures such that compliance with one would make more difficult compliance with the other”. Role conflict may arise between different life roles, which are inter-role conflict. In specific, inter-role conflict refers to the extent to which a person experiences pressures within one role that are incompatible with the pressures that arise within another role (Kopelman, Greenhaus& Connolly, 1983, p.201). Work-life conflict is

a typical example of inter-role conflict (Kopelman, Greenhaus & Connolly, 1983, p.201). For example, an employee is expected to contribute and perform extensively in the workplace, and at the same time his or her family may require high amount of attention and participation from him or her, result in high levels of work-life conflict (Higginbottom, 1994, p.532).

2.3.2. Theories relating to positive side of work-life balance

The first study that determined positive effects of holding multiple roles was carried out by Sieber (1974), who proposed **Role Accumulation Theory**: positive effects of holding multiple roles tend to outweigh any cost (strain) to which it might give rise, thereby yielding net gratification. Proponents of Role Accumulation theory have highlighted the potential positive outcomes of holding multiple roles in their studies (Crouter, 1984, p.632; Gray 1983, p.767; Pietromonaco, Manis & Frohardt-Lane, 1986; Randall, 1988). In a more recent study, Ruderman et al. (2002, p.83) report that personal roles such as those of spouse, friend, parent, traveler, sister, volunteer, and daughter were identified as providing opportunities to learn skills, values, and abilities useful at work.

Expansion model is developed by Marks (1977) as an alternative model opposing to the Role Scarcity Theory. The Expansion Model assumes that individuals have abundant and expandable resources (e.g. time, energy, and allegiance) rather than limited resources. Expansion approach provides an energy-creation theory of multiple roles, implying that human activity not only consumes, but may also produce energy (Marks, 1977). For example, Kirchmeyer (1992) finds that workers' activities and responsibilities in non-work domains may actually energize them for work and enhance work attitudes. Along the same line, Crouter (1984) identifies **Positive Spillover** between work and non-work. Positive spillover refers to positive experience in one domain such as moods, skills, values, and behaviors being transferred to another domain (Crouter, 1984, p.49). According to Andreassi and Thompson (2007, p.943), because energy is a resource that can be transferred from one domain to another, higher levels of energy at non-work domain are likely to lead to better functioning at non-work, and in turn positive spillover from the non-work to work.

Numerous alternative labels, such as enrichment, enhancement, expansion, facilitation, etc are widely used across work-life literature to reflect a positive premise of work-life integration (Witt & Carlson, 2006, p.74). However, despite the growing interest in the positive aspects of integrating work life and non-work life, researchers have not

reached a consensus on definition as regards to positive effects of work-life integration (Hill et al., 2007, p.834).

At times, these labels have been used interchangeably. For instance, **Work-life Enrichment** is defined as the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life, namely performance or affect, in the other role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p.113). Analysed by Carlson et al. (2006), the fundamental thinking behind enrichment is that work and non-work each provide individuals with resources such as enhanced esteem, income, and other benefits that may help the individual better perform across other life domains (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Work-life facilitation refers to the extent to which participation in one domain fosters enhanced engagement or processes in another domain, is proposed by Grzywacz (2000). Similarly, Frone (2003, p.145) conceptualizes facilitation as “the extent to which participation at work (or non-work) is made easier by virtue of the experiences, skills, and opportunities gained or developed at non-work (or work)”. In all, facilitation includes skills, experiences, resources, and knowledge interacting with individual and contextual circumstances that are portable and contribute to increased levels of organization and development (Frone, 2003; Grzywacz, 2000; Innstrand et al., 2008; Morris & Madsen, 2007). According to Carlson et al. (2006), the key distinction between enrichment and facilitation is the level of analysis: enrichment focuses on improvement in individual role performance or quality of life whereas facilitation focuses on improvements in system functioning.

2.4. Traditional models of work-life balance

Through the 1980s and the 1990s the amount of research on work and family roles increased substantially. This proliferation of research led to several models capturing the relationship between work and family roles. Edwards and Rothbard (2000) provide a review and integration of much of the existing research on the relationship between work and family roles. They identified six recurring linking mechanisms depicted in the work-life literature: Spillover, Compensation, and Segmentation, Resource drain, Instrumental and work-family conflict. Of these six mechanisms Spillover, Compensation, Segmentation and Instrumental models have been primarily used to explain observed relationship between work and family constructs (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000, p.234). Whereas resource drain and work-family conflict are primarily outcomes of work and family role enactment, Spillover, Compensation and Segmentation have emerged as dominant models

characterising the linkage between work and non-work roles (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000, p.234).

2.4.1. Spillover model

Spillover is a process whereby experiences in one role affect experiences in the other, rendering the roles more similar. Research has examined the Spillover mood, values, skills and behaviors from one role to another (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000, p.238). The spillover model is supported when there is a significant positive relationship between measures of work and non-work experiences (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Lambert, 1990; Staines, 1980). Congruence is also represented by a positive relationship between measures of work and non-work experiences, but it is caused by a third factor affecting both the work and non-work roles (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000, p.241).

Spillover can take two forms. One is characterised by similarity between a work construct and a related construct in the non-work role, as when someone who is highly satisfied with his or her work organisation becomes highly satisfied with his or her experiences in the family role. The second form of spillover entails the transference of experiences intact between work and non-work domains, as when fatigue from work is displayed at home; however, this second form must also entail the fatigue affecting family functioning for it to constitute spillover (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000, p.243). Existing research finds significant evidence of spillover (Lambert, 1990). In a key study of spillover, Williams and Alliger (1994) used experience sampling methodology to examine mood-related spillover on a daily basis, finding that working parents in their sample were more likely to bring work related emotions home than they were to transfer family-related emotions to the work place (Williams & Alliger, 1994, p.83).

2.4.2. Compensation theory

A second process by which work and family roles may be linked has been termed 'Compensation' (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000, p.263). Compensation refers to a relationship between work and non-work roles whereby people attempt to make up for deficiencies in one role through greater involvement in another role (Champoux, 1978, p.722; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Lambert, 1990; Zedeck, 1992) and entails a negative relationship between constructs in the two roles (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). Individuals' can compensate for dissatisfaction in one role in a number of ways: they can reduce the importance ascribed to a less rewarding role or they can seek rewards and invest more time and attention in an alternative role (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000, p.266). Evidence for

compensation has been found in number of studies. Evans and Bartolome (1984, p.674) found that managers temporarily sought fulfillment in their family lives when they faced disappointment with their experiences at work. Tenbrunsel et al., (1995, p.52) also found a compensatory relationship between work and family roles for employed men. More recently, Edwards and Rothbard (2000, p.93) found that women who experienced negative affect from family were more engaged with their work consistent with compensation theory.

2.4.3. Segmentation model

Unlike the compensation and spillover models, the segmentation model posits no systematic relationship between work and non-work roles (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000, p.301). Instead, segmentation has been used to describe the separation of work and family, such that the two roles do not influence one another (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Staines, 1980; Zedeck, 1992). Initially, segmentation was viewed as the natural division of work and family due to the physical and temporal separation of the two roles and to their innately different functions (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Dubin, 1973).

However, given the more recent view that work and family are closely related domains of human life as mentioned in the studies of Burke and Greenglass, 1987; Kanter, 1977; and Voydanoff, 1987 (as cited in Burke & Jones, 1995) segmentation has been reconceptualized as an active psychological process whereby people may choose to maintain a boundary between work and family (Eckenrode & Gore, 1990; Lambert, 1990; Morf, 1989; Near, 1984). For example, Piotrkowski (1979, p.76) found that some people may actively suppress work-related thoughts, feelings and behaviors while at home, and vice versa. Building on this notion of segmentation as an active psychological process, recent research has articulated the notion that segmentation may be a strategy for work and family boundary management (Kossek et al., 1999, p.977) for keeping work and non-work roles (Nipper, 1995).

2.5. Antecedents of work-life balance

2.5.1. Individual level factors

- Work Centrality

Work centrality refers to the degree of general importance that working has in one's life at any given time (Harpaz, 2002). More specifically, the centrality of work is demonstrated by the personal responsibility individuals assume for their work, the amount of time they

devote to it, and the significance it has within the general context of their lives (Harpaz, 2002, p.46).

According to Harpaz (2002), work plays a central role in people's lives in modern society because people spend a great deal of time working or preparing for it through education and training. Furthermore, the economic (or instrumental) and the other social (or intrinsic) means of work, offer reasons for the centrality of work (Harpaz, 2002). Namely, people work not only to secure their basic sustenance and satisfy their material needs, but also to obtain and maintain their self-esteem, status, and sense of accomplishment through working. As a result, it is assumed that work is the central of life of most, if not all adults (Dollard, 2011).

It is believed that the importance an individual places on work roles influences his or her experience of work-life balance. According to Etzion (1988), when the extent of the centrality of work in one's life, or the values placed by individuals on their professional and private lives do not fit the actual relationship between one's work and private life, debilitating friction occurs.

Carlson and Kacmar's (2000) claim that the centrality of a role to an individual may subsequently impact the choices and decisions he or she makes. If those decisions are to focus on one domain and not the other, this may cause work-life conflict. In other words, the different centrality placed on the role of work may explain differences in the experience of work-life conflict (Carlson &Kacmar, 2000). Similarly, Hirschfeld and Field (2000) find that people who consider work as a central life interest have a strong identification with work, in the sense that they believe the work role to be an important and central part of their lives. As a result, they may commit more energy and time in work, which is their central life interest. Such action may have certain effects on achieving work-life balance.

- Career Stage

A career can be defined as the sequence of job related experiences and attitudes an individual shares over the span of their work life (Hall &Mirvis, 1996). Individuals progresses through distinct career stages and have unique career concerns and psychological needs at each respective stage (Super, 1957).

Cron (1984) identifies four stages through which an individual progress: exploration, establishment, maintenance, and disengagement. Based on Cron's (1984) findings, Mehta, Anderson and Dubinsky's (2000, p.509) stipulate the four aspects of career stages as follows:

(1) Exploration stage: employees usually are concerned with finding an occupation in which they can succeed. During this time, a focus is on self-discovery and developing a professional self-image.

(2) Establishment stage: Those in the establishment stage generally aspire to achieving stabilization in their career, “getting ahead”, and obtaining security at work. Success on the job is a paramount issue with an often concomitant desire for a promotion.

(3) Maintenance stage: employees are especially focused on maintaining their current position, status, and achievement level – which are likely to be high. Upward mobility tends to diminish and concern for financial remuneration increase.

(4) Disengagement stage: Employees in the disengagement stage tend to prepare for retirement, although some might psychologically disengage long before retirement age. These individuals may well de-emphasize rewards, given their organizational withdrawal tendencies.

The different career concerns, psychological needs, and challenges reflected in respective career stages may influence work-life balance differently. Rhodes (1983) reports that work attitudes, values, and satisfaction change as workers pass through career stages. Similarly, according to Loscocco and Kalleberg (1988), as individual’s progress through career stages, their work roles and non work roles may vary accordingly. Hence, individuals at different career stages may have different experiences of work-life balance.

More specifically, it is possible that work-life conflict is strongest at the earlier stages of a person’s career (Greenhaus&Beutell, 1985). For example, the early career years are characterized by strong pressures from both the work and non-work domains (Bailyn, 1980). A study on young graduates showed that they expect not only appropriate and competitive pay for the work they perform, but also hope to achieve a balance between work and the rest of their lives (Filipczak, Gordon & Stamps, 1997). On the contrary, it is possible that work-life conflict is strongest during the midcareer stage (Greenhaus&Beutell, 1985). For instance, Bartolome and Evans (1979) find that managers in mid-career (ages 35-42) are likely to turn toward their family lives and to question their earlier preoccupation with work. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) further conclude that the increasing importance of non work during mid-career may produce strong pressures within the non work domain that conflict with work role pressures.

- Family stressors

Straub (2012) indicates that the work-life balance issues generated by different life needs for time for families – elder care, sickness of family member, parental demand, community

and emergency situation and for personal time – recreation / leisure, sports, and holidays. Most of literature from very beginning examined parental demand is main contributor of work-life conflict. For example, Herman and Gyllstrom (1977) showed parents are more likely to experience work-family conflict than non-parents.

Parental demands increase with the number of children, and parents of younger children (who are likely to be particularly demanding of their parents' time) experience more conflict than the parents of older children (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1980- cited in Fu & Shaffer, 2001). Similarly, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) identified family domain stressors (e.g., young children, spouse employment, and large families) as contributing to work-family conflict.

Frone, et al. (1997) found the family stressors of number of hours devoted to childcare each week and perceived parenting overload, to be positively related to work-life conflict. Kinnunen and Mauno (1998) also reported number of children, employment status (full versus part-time) and shift work to be positively related to work life conflict. In support of these evidences, a closer look at work-life balance policies within workplaces reveals that the work-life balance debate also has a particular perception of life – one centered on caring responsibilities (Eikhof, et al., 2007).

Hours spent on household work are also a major predictor of work-family conflict. Because time is a limited resource, spending more time on household chores means that less time is available for work. The result is an increased level of work family conflict (Fu & Shaffer, 2001).

Empirical results have also revealed a number of additional antecedents with stressors implications that are associated with work-family conflict including: gender (Gutek, et al., 1991; Hammer, Allen, & Grigsby, 1997), marital status (Cooke & Rousseau, 1984), employment status of one's spouse (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, Granrose, Rabinowitz, & Beutell, 1989; Hammer et al., 1997; Parasuraman, 1992), age and number of children (Greenhaus & Kopelman, 1981; Frone & Yardley, 1996), and shift work (Greenhaus et al., 1989; Jaffe & Smolensky, 1996; Smith & Folkhard, 1993). In contrast, Fu and Shaffer, (2001) found no effect of marital status, working spouse, role autonomy and ambiguity on work-life conflict.

2.5.2. Organisational level factors

- Industry/Sector

Different work conditions, in various industry sectors, may lead to different work-life balance(s) experienced by individuals. This point is picked up by Lambert and Haley-Lock (2004), who highlight the need to compare conditions across jobs (in different industries) in work-life balance research.

Differences in work requirements emanating from sectoral effect are quite common, and are deemed to impact work-life balance. For instance, construction industry is an industry that is characterized by long hour's work, which may contribute to difficulty in work-life imbalance. Lingard and Francis (2005) assert that the construction industry has a strong culture of long hours and weekend work, especially among site-based employees. Employees from the hospitality industry are required to work on non-traditional hours; for instance, at night and during weekends.

Furthermore, in contrast to conventional manufacturing jobs, which start and end on a predetermined schedule, work in the media industry is highly unpredictable in nature, and fluctuation in the flow of work is a common norm. In this setting, employees are required to continually update skills and knowledge (Perrons, 2003).

The concern of employees from computer or information technology (IT) industry towards work-life balance has drawn mounting attention among researchers. As described by Scholarios and Marks (2004), the nature of work which separation of work and non-work life being substantially more "blurred" than for more traditional occupations make software workers present an interesting case for work-life balance issues. Offsite client work (Weisenfeld, Raghuram&Garud, 2001) and schedule flexibility, which may mean uncertainty in some cases, is typical in IT industry. Consequently, the possibility of overlap between working life and personal life is higher. Also, employees from IT industry generally work long hours (Perlow, 1998). For instance, majority of the software workers in Perlow's study (1998) felt that they were expected to sacrifice non-work commitments if they wanted to progress in their company.

- Job autonomy

In general, job autonomy refers to the degree of freedom available on the job (Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshalk&Beutell, 1996). Ganster (1989) defines job autonomy as the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence and discretion in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out. Similarly, Clark (2001) defines job autonomy as the ability to decide when, where, and how the job is to be done.

Numerous studies have investigated the direct impact of job autonomy on work-life conflict. For instance, Voydanoff (1988) asserts that employees with higher autonomy in the conduct of work are expected to be able to limit the negative effects of workload pressure, and potential conflict on non-work life. Hence, autonomy leads to lower work-life conflict. Also, Thompson and Prottas (2005) claim that a job that allows employee autonomy and discretion in how and when the job gets done should enable employees to better meet multiple conflicting work and non-work demands. In addition, autonomy provides employees the freedom to perform their work independently, and allows them to make adjustments to accommodate other aspects of their lives as needed (Ahuja et al., 2007). Hence, this may reduce the level of frustration in trying to balance work roles and other aspects of life.

The significance of job autonomy in easing work-life conflict has been identified in some other studies (e.g. Andreassi&Thompson, 2007; Clark 2001; Greenhaus&Kopelman, 1981; Kossek, Lautsch& Eaton, 2006). Grzywacz and Butler (2005) even recognize that worker control or authority is a strong candidate for promoting work-life balance. In a study of work-life issues among entrepreneurs, Parasuraman et al. (1996) discover that the greater perceived control implied by autonomy may enable entrepreneurs to structure their work in a manner that accommodates their non-work responsibilities, delegate responsibility for certain work-related tasks, thereby making time for dealing with non-work role demands, and minimizing work-life conflict.

- Number of work hours

Number of hours worked is a prominent feature in examining antecedents of work-non-work conflict. Numerous studies have taken hours worked per week as the primary independent variable in predicting work-non-work conflict (e.g. Burke, Weir & DuWors 1980; Frone, Yardley & Markel, 1997; Gutek, Searle & Klepa, 1991; Hill et al., 2001; Tausig & Fenwick, 2001; Tenbrunsel, Brett, Maoz, Stroh & Reilly, 1995; Thompson & Bunderson, 2001). According to Thompson and Bunderson (2001), individuals are trying to achieve appropriate distribution of hours among the domains of work, family, community, religion, recreation and so forth. Time allocation for work is therefore an important factor in determining work-life balance.

Time is a limited resource and the conditions of work and other non-work roles may place competing demands on an individual's time (O'Driscoll, Ilgen&Hildreth, 1992). As a result, time devoted to one role makes it difficult to fulfill requirements of other roles (Bamberger & Conley, 1991). It is therefore believed that total number of hours spent for

work roles, including normal working hours and overtime work at office or at home, will affect the performance of an individual in other life spheres. For example, working long hours limits the extent to which individuals are physically available for non-work activities (Voydanoff, 1988). In other words, the more time an individual commits to his/her jobs, the greater the perceived interference with his/her off-job activities and commitments. Adams, King and King (1996) has identified correlation between increase in working hours and family difficulties and life dissatisfaction, which appears to validate the influence of number of hours worked on work-life balance.

Many studies have shown that more hours worked tend to bring about more work-non-work conflict. For instance, Judge, Boudreau, and Bretz (1994) find a strong relationship between number of paid work hours and work-life conflict. Other scholars have also consistently revealed that the number of hours worked contributes directly to experiences of work-life conflict (Burke, Weir & Duwors, 1979; Frone, Yardley & Markel, 1997; Keith & Schafer, 1980; Parasuraman et al., 1996; Pleck, Staines & Lang, 1980). More specifically, Shamir (1983) reports that working more than 9 hours a day resulted in much greater difficulty in achieving work-life balance. In other words, working with more hours was negatively related to work-life balance (Hill et al., 2001; Tausig & Fenwick, 2001; Lyness & Kropf, 2005).

2.6. Managers and work-life balance

The 20th century saw the emergence of professional management as a function responsible for the coordination and control of organisational processes (Jacques, 1996). This development also gave rise to a view of managers as 'heroic figures' worthy of high rewards and status: a view reinforced by the political and economic environment of the early 1980s and 1990s which encouraged an enterprise culture (Burrell, 1992). Promoted under Thatcherism policies, this view still prevails in some sectors although the current recession and ongoing economic crisis (and many recent managerial scandals) lessened its impact (Lauren, 2011). Constant restructuring and financial uncertainty in public sector organisations has signaled a return to more regulated managerial environments, frequently reinforced by policies such as those associated with work-life balance (Collinson & Hearn, 1996, p.9).

Over 20 years ago Scase and Goffee (1989, p.179) described how middle managers had to work 'under more tightly monitored circumstances'. They depicted managers as increasingly instrumental and calculative in their approach to work; working harder under

reduced promotional prospects, but also switching their attention to life outside work. Similar themes were reported by Watson (2001, p.108) who found that managers' enthusiasm and loyalty were being eroded by greater regulation imposed by the organisation. Collinson and Collinson (1997, p.27) documented important changes in managers' employment from being privileged employees enjoying long-term career prospects to becoming much more disposable, insecure and at risk of delayering. Managers therefore experienced themselves as both managers and managed, controllers and controlled. Those who survived delayering were expected to work very long hours and be seen as ever present at work by their colleagues and more senior managers (Collinson & Collinson, 1997, p. 29). Similarly, managers were required to be in work much earlier than the rest of the workforce and to stay long after official end times. Such actions are typically construed as demonstrating managers' organisational loyalty and work commitment (Roberts, 1997, p. 63).

There is now growing evidence of persistently long working hours for managers (Bonney, 2005; Warhurst et al., 2008). Indeed, Park et al. (2007, p.95) suggest that senior managers and professionals are most likely to argue that work does interfere with their private lives. For managers there is a particular paradox here. Research evidence suggests that managerial workers enjoy significant discretion over their working hours but it is they who are under considerable pressure (Doyle, 2004, p.37) rather than using flexibility to fit in family and recreation, managers are reported to be opting for long working hours thereby reducing personal and leisure time (Lewis, 2003; Perlow, 1998). The pressure of long working hours and high performance expectations can reinforce traditional masculine cultures in management, which separate and demarcate paid work and domestic life. Feminist analyses highlight the centrality of work and family boundaries, and the complex interconnections between them (Collinson & Collinson, 1997 p.24). Martin (2002, p. 357) questions why the 'false dichotomy' between public and private lives goes unchallenged, referring to the 'inextricable interlocking' and interdependence of the two spheres (Pocock et al., 2008,). Work and family imbalance can result from expectations that managerial employees should conform to the hegemonic male model of employment which tends to disregard responsibilities faced by individuals (frequently women) outside employment (Gatrell & Cooper, 2008, p.74).

Epstein and Kalleber (2004) argue that it is men rather than women managers who are predominantly overachievers and workaholics. Clearly some women fit this profile, but research indicates that this is frequently seen as a male model of managerial work, such

that the type of behaviour deemed appropriate for managers coincides with dominant notions of masculinity, centering on detached rationality, control and competitiveness (Wajcman & Martin, 2002, p.542). Watts (2009, p.xiii) found in the construction industry that cultural issues of visibility combined with an ethos of 'presenteeism' served to limit opportunities for women managers unless they adopted male norms and behaviours. However, she notes that even when women assume this approach, they tend to be marginalized or excluded by other (male) managerial colleagues.

Hochschild (1997) discovered that for some employees, work has become the place in which feelings of belonging, accomplishment and stimulation are engendered whereas home is associated with sheer hard work, particularly for parents of young children. Other studies report that technological developments (such as email and mobile phones) facilitate considerable permeability in boundaries between employment and home, making paid work more pervasive and possibly addictive (Pocock et al., 2008; Warhurst et al., 2008). Enhanced possibilities of working at home as well as in the workplace tend to lead to longer working days: this reinforces the blurring of boundaries and can even make the two almost indistinguishable (Lewis, 2003).

2.7. Work-life balance in the Sri Lankan context

Work-life balance is one of the significant topics that have risen amid the most recent decade in Sri Lanka because of impressive work escalation which was brought about by expansion business rivalry and women contribution in the workforce (Arachchige, 2013).

After 1977, with open market economic policies, a trend was set to earn money by various means. As the economic policy indicated people are free from many strict regulations, as such new businesses entering into the market became a visible factor. At the same time, the opening up of free trade zone gave ignition to the economic activities of the country with increasing working women population. With this economic expansion the breadwinner model is being supplanted by the contemporary combination model in which professional and family labor is being divided between men and women in a more equal way (Vloeberghs, 2002, p.26). But In the Sri Lankan context whether the non-work obligations, for example, family work is being separated amongst men and women in an equivalent way is questionable (Arachchige, 2013).

Even though, Sri Lanka went through all macro level economic changes as the other western countries, such as commercialization, deregulation and privatization, ironically an internal change that has occurred in line with macro changes, within the organization, is

minimal. (Arachchige, 2013). Majority of the organizations are poor in providing employees with flexible work schedules, good policies and practices, good supervisors, performance feedback, and recognition except IT companies (Wickramasinghe&Jayabandu, 2007). As a result family lives of many employees are affected due to overwork and inflexibility (Arachchige, 2013). In the meantime technological advancements, such as company mobile phones, laptops and the internet imply that employees are required to take care of work matters outside typical working hours. Subsequently, they are unable to properly organize their personal life and unable to dedicate time and proper attention to non-work activities and obligations. It is being 39 years since open economic policy introduced to Sri Lanka, but lives and well-being of individuals are uplifted is still questionable.

2.8. Benefits of work-life balance

Better work-life balance directly benefit employers as well as employees. This in turn enhances the job satisfaction, work engagement and work productivity of employees. These benefits are not only social and psychological but also economic, and that is the primary reason why global and proactive organisations have leveraged work-life balance programmes to enhance productivity and profitability, besides gaining higher employee engagement (Voydanoff, 2007, p.85). McDonald and Bradley (2005) identified a set of employer and employee benefits of better work-life balance. Availability of broader talent pool, earlier return of employee to work after maternal leave, lower rates of absenteeism, positive employer branding, enhanced work related performance, better employee retention, reduced employee turnover, improved health of employee and higher degree of job satisfaction were the benefits identified by McDonald and Bradley (2005). Hudson, Byrne and Hewlett (2006) brought forward a wide array of work-life balance benefits which can be categorized into qualitative and quantitative benefits to employers and employees are mentioned in Table 1.

Table 1: Benefits of work-life balance

Qualitative benefits for employer	Qualitative benefits for employee
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Retaining valued employees • Motivated workforce • Attracting a wider range of candidates • Reputation of employer of choice • Reduced recruitment costs • Maximized available labour • Improved quality of applicants • Cost of absenteeism • Cost of diminished productivity • Cost of staff turnover and recruitment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Happier life at work and at home • Better work place relations • Improved self-esteem and concentration • Time for personal and family life • Greater control of working life • Better management of home and work. • Supportive workplace that values staff. • Cost of health insurance premiums • Cost of direct medical claims • Cost of customer satisfaction

Source: (Hudson et al., 2005)

2.9. Summary

This chapter presented the concept of work-life balance based on various studies done by researchers, well-established theories and models of work-life balance, antecedents of work-life balance. Latter part of the section presented several studies on work-life balance in the context of managerial level employees and concluded the section with benefits of better work-life balance for both the employee and employer. Conceptual framework, hypotheses of the study followed by the research methodology is presented in Chapter three.

Chapter 3

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND & RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1. Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to provide the conceptualisation of the study based on the literature review carried out in chapter three. Accordingly, in this chapter, the conceptual framework of the study, development of hypotheses and operationalisation are clearly articulated. Sample selection, data collection methods and data analysis techniques are explained in detail.

3.2. Conceptual framework

A conceptual framework is used in this research to outline the possible courses of action. It is applied as an intermediate theory that has the potential to connect to all aspects of the inquiry (e.g. problem statement, purpose, literature review, methodology, data analysis) (Shields &Tajalli, 2006).

Throughout the literature review related to the concept of work-life balance, the key variables are identified in the context of the study and based on these independent and dependent variables, the conceptual framework was developed (Figure1).

This will assist to construct a link between both the variables enabling a comprehensive understanding of the entire research study.

Based on the coherence of the study; this conceptual framework is designed to understand the relationship between independent variables: Manager Support, Colleague Support, Organisational Time Expectations, Partner Support and Childcare Responsibilities and Work-Life Balance (dependent variable). Hence, this study is meant to understand the major determinants of work-life balance among the corporate sector managers in Sri Lanka. Social support theory, Resource scarcity theory and Scarcity theory provided the base to formulate the conceptual framework.

3.3. Operational definitions of variables

3.3.1. Manager support

Generic form of support that can provide socio-emotional resource to deal with their work demands to individuals by their superiors (Frye &Breagh, 2004).

3.3.2. Colleague support

Extent to which individuals view other workers at their organization as being helpful and supportive of them (Liao, Joshi & Chuang,2004).

3.3.3. Partner support

Instrumental aid and emotional support that individual receive from his/her spouse/partner (Frye &Breugh, 2004).

3.3.4. Organisational time expectations

Number of hours employees are expected to work and how they use their time in the organization (Bailyn, 1997).

3.3.5. Childcare responsibilities

All the rights, duties, powers, responsibilities and authority which by law a parent of a child has in relation to the child and his property National Child Protection Act No. 50 of 1998.

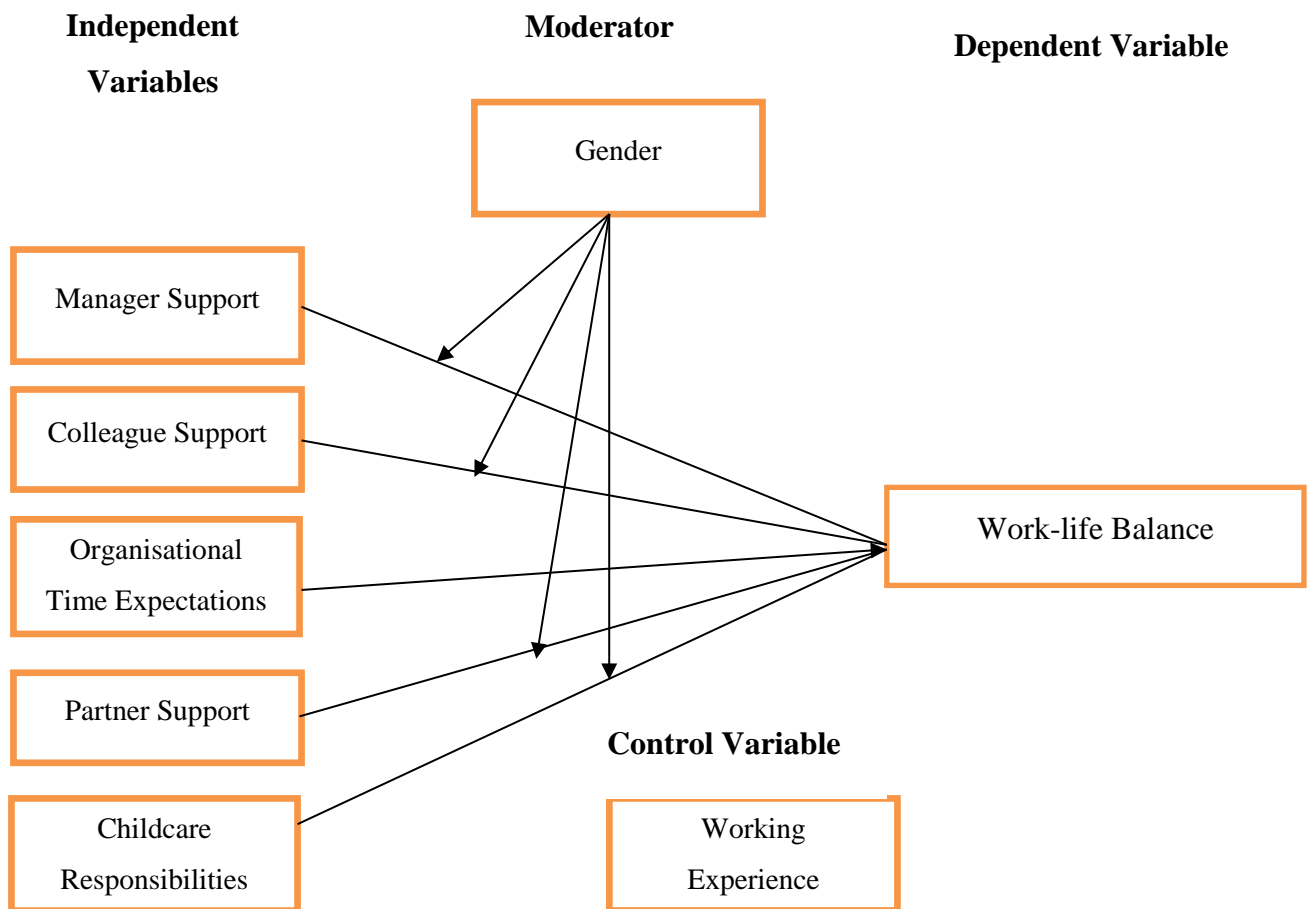
3.4. Development of hypotheses

3.4.1. Manager support and work-life balance

Manager support can be explained by Social support theory. Social support has been defined as “the availability of helping relationships and the quality of those relationships” (Leavy, 1983, p. 5). Kahn and Quinn (1976) argue that social support entails giving another person instrumental aid and emotional support such as affection and affirmation.

According to Hobfoll (2001), supportive resources of social support can be emotional (e.g., nurturance), tangible (e.g., financial assistance), informational (e.g., advice), or companionship (e.g., sense of belonging) and intangible (e.g. personal advice). As stated by Baltes (1990), social support can be measured as the perception that one has assistance available, the actual received assistance, or the degree to which a person is integrated in a social network. Supervisory support can be considered as a generic form of social support that can provide socio-emotional resource to deal with their work demands. Research in work-family studies suggests that although generic supervisory support is not family specific, it can be an important resource for reducing work-life imbalance (Frye &Breugh, 2004; Kossek et al., 2011; Luk& Shaffer, 2005).

Figure 1: Conceptual framework



Source: Author's conceptualisation

Supervisory support can be considered as a generic form of social support that can provide socio-emotional resource to deal with their work demands. Research in work-family studies suggests that although generic supervisory support is not family specific, it can be an important resource for reducing work-life imbalance (Frye & Breugh, 2004; Kossek et al., 2011; Luk & Shaffer, 2005). Supervisors are often considered as agents of the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 2002) who implement organisation's policies and practices. Thus, when employees perceive that their supervisors are favorably inclined towards them and care for their well-being, it can act as an important emotional and psychological resource that can reduce the strain created by work demands (Frye & Breugh, 2004; Luk & Shaffer, 2005).

It has been shown that the immediate supervisor's response to work and family concerns is more critical than that of the top management in setting the tone for a supportive environment (Bernas & Major, 2000; Maxwell, 2005; Ray & Miller, 1994). Friedman et al. (1999) found that it was the supportive attitudes and immediate managers' behaviours

which employees considered the most significant factor in balancing their work-life responsibilities. The enthusiastic support of managers means that employees will be more likely to feel balance between work and life and experience an overall lower level of work-life conflict (Allen, 2001; Carlson & Perrewé, 1999). Research by Blair-Loy and Wharton (2002) found that employees are able to strike a balance between work and life if they work with powerful supervisors who could buffer them from perceived negative effects on their careers. Thus, it is hypothesised that:

H1: There is a positive relationship between manager support and work-life balance

3.4.2. Colleague support and work-life balance

Coworkers have the ability to define the social environment at work (Schneider, 1987) and they can have a large influence on whether or not an employee is able to balance his/her time between work and non-work life (Cook & Minnotte, 2008).

Social support has been defined as “the availability of helping relationships and the quality of those relationships” (Leavy, 1983, p. 5). Kahn and Quinn (1976) argue that social support entails giving another person instrumental aid and emotional support such as affection and affirmation.

Coworker support can be defined as the extent that individuals view other workers at their organisation as being helpful and supportive of them (Liao, Joshi, & Chuang, 2004). This type of support can include caring for fellow coworkers, giving them tangible aid, and/or providing them with useful information (Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Parris, 2003). Work-life conflict can be reduced when a coworker helps an employee cope with the competing demands between one’s work and non-work life (Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997; Thompson & Prottas, 2006). Social support theory provides the basis for the relationship between colleague support and work-life balance. Thus, it is hypothesised that:

H2: There is a positive relationship between colleague support and work-life balance

3.4.3. Organisational time expectations and work-life balance

Bailyn (1997) has defined time expectations as the number of hours employees are expected to work, how they use their time (for instance, whether or not employees are expected to take work home) and the level of discretion in one’s work schedule the dominant finding is that many employees are spending longer hours at work and also taking additional work home (Beynon et al., 2002; Green, 2001; Fagan, 2003;). In traditional organisational

cultures, working long hours tends to serve as an important indicator of commitment and productivity, yet at the same time representing a stumbling block towards meeting non-work responsibilities (Bonney, 2005).

This relationship can be explained with the resource scarcity hypothesis, the main argument here is that since people have a limited, fixed amount of resources (e.g., energy, time), problems may arise when different roles draw on these same resources (Frone et al., 1992). For example, when both family and work roles draw on the scarce resource of time, it is likely that one of these roles is compromised due to a lack of available time and in turn it creates negative impact on individuals' job role and family role (Frone et al., 1992, p.146).

This dimension (Organisational time expectation) has been closely associated with the related concepts of 'face time' (Laekin, 1987) and the 'ideal worker' (Macan, 1994). Both of these are highly pertinent to this study.

Face time is widely understood to refer to employee physical time at the workplace that is observed by co-workers, supervisors, and customers (Brubaker et al., 1999), incorporating both face to face interaction and working in the presence of others. Research has shown that for many organisations, time seen at work is typically understood in terms of productivity levels, with many professionals reporting a sense of pressure with regard to managing their face time and being present when and where their supervisors work (Van Dyne et al., 2007). The ideal worker is fully cognisant with organisational expectations of 'face time', and possesses no other areas of life which might impinge on their ability to work (Rapoport et al., 2002, p.170), conceptually therefore, it is argued that this ideal type is underpinned by a separation between the spheres of work and life (Bailyn, 1993, 2003; Lewis, 1997; Rapoport et al., 2002). Thus, it is hypothesised that:

H3: There is a negative relationship between organizational time expectations and work-life balance

3.4.4. Partner support and work-life balance

Given the increasing interdependence of the work and family domains, partner support is being recognized as an increasingly important factor contributing to the understanding of the well-being of employees (Peeters & LeBlanc, 2001). Investigating the existing literature on the relationship between family social support and work-life balance reveals, a similar pattern as that identified in the work domain. Receiving spouse or partner support has been positively related to number of work-related outcomes, including occupational success

(Bird & Bird, 1986), positive mental health, work-life balance (Aneshensel, 1986), marital adjustment (Roskies&Lazurus, 1980; Suchet&Barling, 1986), job satisfaction (Rudd & McHenry, 1986) and indirectly to the amelioration of stress due to work and job loss (House, 1981).

To handle work-life balance, Friedman and Greenhaus (2003) emphasise that working adults learn to build networks of support at home, at work, and in the community. Conflict between work and family has real consequences and significantly affects quality of family life and career attainment of both men and women (Friedman &Greenhaus, 2003).The consequences for women may include serious constraints on career choices, limited opportunity for career advancement (Aquino, 2003) and success in their work role, and the need to choose between two apparent opposites an active and satisfying career or marriage and children (Bommer& Coffey, 2002). Therefore in order to reduce conflict, individuals should negotiate their household responsibilities (Kailasapathy& Metz, 2012). Many men have to trade off personal and career values while they search for ways to make dual career families work, often requiring them to embrace family roles that are far different, and more egalitarian, than those they learned as children. Specifically, support from two domains (partner and employer) has a significant impact on one another (Srinivas, 2005, p.132).

This relationship is supported by two well-established theories, social support theory and compensation theory. Social support has been defined as “the availability of helping relationships and the quality of those relationships” (Leavy 1983, p. 5). Kahn and Quinn (1976) argue that social support entails giving another person instrumental aid and emotional support such as affection and affirmation. This relationship is also supported by compensation theory of work-life balance. Compensation refers to a relationship between work and non-work roles whereby people attempt to make up for deficiencies in one role through greater involvement in another role (Champoux, 1978; Edwards &Rothbard, 2000; Lambert, 1990; Zedeck, 1992), compensatory effect between two forms of psychological interference: work-to-family and family-to-work. Specifically, support from two domains (partner and employer) has a significant impact on one another.

According to Friedman and Greenhaus (2000), the impact of partner support is greater when professionals feel their employers are unsupportive of their lives beyond work and partner/spousal support compensate for the lacking part whereby employee feel comfortable in meeting organisational commitments Conversely, for employees with relatively unsupportive partners, the employer family-friendliness reduces role conflicts

more than partners. Thus, one source of support compensates for the lack of the other. Thus, it is hypothesised that:

H4: There is a positive relationship between partner support and work-life balance

3.4.5. Childcare responsibilities and work-life balance

The literature on women and men's daily lives is fairly consistent in reporting that the total demands on employed women (paid work, housework, and child care) are higher than on employed men (Milkie&Peltola, 1999). In a study by Robinson and Godbey (1997) using time diaries, they report that for those employed more than 20 hours a week, women spend 30.8 hours doing paid work per week, and men spend 39.7 hours. Women spend 25.6 hours and men spend 14.3 hours on family care, including standard housework, shopping, and caring for the children. This means that for employed women, the total time demands from unpaid and paid work exceed men's total by about 1 ½ hours per week. This can have a negative influence on the balancing of work and family responsibilities for women, and therefore a negative perception of the work-life balance. Hochschild (1989) reports that employed mothers put in an "extra month per year" of a 24-hour day, compared with employed fathers. Not only are employed women and men likely to have different total workloads but they also allocate their time in different ways.

This relationship can be explained with the resource scarcity hypothesis, the main argument here is that since people have a limited, fixed amount of resources (e.g., energy, time); problems may arise when different roles draw on these same resources (Frone et al., 1992). For example, when both family and work roles draw on the scarce resource of time, it is likely that one of these roles is compromised due to a lack of available time and in turn it creates negative impact on individuals' job role and family role (Frone et al., 1992, p.146). Thus, it is hypothesised that:

H5: There is a negative relationship between childcare responsibilities and work-life balance

3.4.6. Moderating effect of gender on manager support and work-life balance

It has been shown that the immediate supervisor's response to work and family concerns is more critical than that of the top management in setting the tone for a supportive environment (Bernas& Major, 2000; Maxwell, 2005; Ray & Miller, 1994). A study of Drobnic and Gullien (2011) revealed that a supportive environment is instrumental in reducing work-life imbalance. Many of the respondents in the study of Drobnic and Gullien (2011) admitted that they get support from their immediate supervisors (60% male and 71%

women) at the work place. Of those sampled 54% of the men and 63% of women acknowledge the support from their boss. Both genders opined that a supportive work environment is helpful in achieving work-life balance.

According to Denton (2004, as cited in Kailasapathy, Metz & Kraimer, 2008), the traditional gender role ideology identifies specific and distinct roles for men and women in marriages such as the husband should be the head of the family or male headship and females should be submissive. Irrespective of the increased number of women entering into the labor force during last three decades this traditional gender role ideology still prevails and it is strongly rooted in Asian countries like Sri Lanka (Kailasapathy, Metz & Kraimer, 2008).

Women still primarily take care of domestic tasks, irrespective of their employment status. So, many women employees continue to face difficulties in balancing these two forces (Hyman & Summers, 2004). The burden of meeting the demands of home front and office front is high when women's exposure to the labor force and to education increases. Given the context, for female employees a supportive supervisor may make work situations less stressful by discussing family-related problems and being flexible when emergencies arise at home (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999 as cited in Hyman & Summers, 2004). Instrumental support such as providing flexible work schedules or changes to work priorities to help balance work and family conflict (Dienesch & Liden 1986; Carlson & Perrewé 1999 as cited in Kailasapathy & Metz, 2012), providing them with emotional support and potential latitude to negotiate work demands (Major et al., 2008).

Presumably, if female employees receive sufficient work support from supervisors, it would ease off the burden they face in both the work and family domains and it will be more beneficial for female employees than male employees since they play a major role in the home front. Such instrumental and emotional support allows female employees compared to male employees to reduce the likelihood that work will interfere with family demands. Thus, it is hypothesised that:

H6: Gender will moderate the positive relationship between manager support and work-life balance, such that relationship will be stronger for women than for men.

3.4.7. Moderating effect of gender on colleague support and work-life balance

Coworkers have the ability to define the social environment at work (Schneider, 1987) and they can have a large influence on whether or not an employee is able to balance his/her time between work and non-work life (Cook & Minnotte, 2008). Support from boss and

support from team members and colleagues is a valuable source of assistance, especially when emergencies at home arise. According to Rubery (2005, as cited in Allen et al., 2009), trusted colleagues serve as valuable sounding boards. Many leaders reported that health crises their own or family members might have derailed their careers if not for compassionate bosses and coworkers (Upadhya&Vasavi, 2006).

Coworker/peer support is a critical resource for working women to enable their continued success in both work and family domains compared to male employees, because balancing work and family is often more difficult for women than for men due to the disproportionate burden of the family responsibilities (Bird, 2006). Women face uneven distribution of childcare and other domestic responsibilities which become major barriers in the career advancement as well as work-life balance (Cross &Linehan, 2006).

If female employees receive satisfactory level of assistance from their peers/coworkers, especially in occasions when they have to take care of sick child, husband or parent, attend parents meetings or any other events where role of mother or woman is placed above and much more needed than the role of men. Since women typically take more stock of the priorities in their lives and make adjustments compared to males, if working women can really rely on support provided through coworker/peer relationships, it would ease off the burden they face in both work and family fronts. Thus, it is hypothesised that:

H7: Gender will moderate the positive relationship between colleague support and work-life balance, such that relationship will be stronger for women than for men.

3.4.8. Moderating effect of gender on partner support and work-life balance

Gender ideology traditionally assigns males to bring bread and butter for family, and females to take family labor and childcare (Konrad&Cannings, 1997). However, women have entered the workforce in increasing numbers, and employees' gender-role attitudes have changed. Both women and men have become less traditional in their gender-role attitudes (Konrad&Cannings, 1997). For example, women and men in the 1980s were more likely than in the 1960s to agree that it is appropriate for wives to have their own careers that employed women can be good mothers, and that men should do more housework and childcare (Thornton et al., 1989). Employees' gender-role attitudes have shifted from traditional perspectives to egalitarian perspectives (Rogers & Amato, 2000). Therefore, men's and women's time in family work is converging, but women are still holding more family responsibilities than men (Robbinson, 1988). Dmaris and Longmre (1996) found

that females do much more housework than males, even compared to egalitarian males and males appear to be getting more spousal support overall. The study by Baily and Hopkins (2006), male interviewees often spoke about their spouses' willingness to take care of children, tolerate long work hours, and even relocate, sometimes as a way of life. The study conducted by Schmeer and Reitman (2007) revealed that most of the females felt that while their male counterparts did not have the responsibilities for housework and childcare during their work life, they personally continued to have these responsibilities and that these responsibilities increased their stress level in turn impede their career success and married men have the greatest career pleasure, especially compared to single men, because spouses give additional resources for job performance. The wife not only takes care of household responsibilities, but also provides counsel and work assistance for the husband's job (Bunchan&Thornthwaite, 2001).

Spousal support reduce burdens and road blocks for male employees by providing assistance in terms of house hold responsibilities and in terms of counseling and consoling when male employees confronted with workplace challenges and workplace issues and also inspire to move up the career ladder. A spouse who is involved in family/nurturing role, it means female is more likely to provide behavioral support for her partner, then, a spouse who receives behavioral support tends to gain time and flexibility at home that could be used to preserve energy in family domain. Psychological support from spouses provides information, guidance, and acceptance that help partners build self-esteem and confidence (Friedman &Greenhaus, 2000) that increase one's capacity to better cope with work-family issues. But executive women or working women do not benefit as much as men from spousal support (Craig, 2007), it is because though employed wives attach uniformly high importance to their family responsibilities and men are highly involved in work and career, tends to be viewed as life role priority, and they tend to spend less time on family, take less time off for children, and make less adjustment in work schedule for family. As a result career growth, work-life balance of female employees may impede due to multiple roles she has to play with unsatisfactory level of support she receives from the spouse.

Presumably, if females get satisfactory level of spousal/partner support it would minimize the burden they get from handling responsibilities of both work and home domains. Also if working women get adequate support from their partner it would minimize the stress they go through and enhance their career success. Thus, it is hypothesised that:

.H8: Gender will moderate the relationship between partner support and work- life balance, such that relationship will be stronger for women than for men.

3.4.9. Moderating effect of gender on childcare responsibilities and work-life balance

As mentioned earlier, men have been socialized to give priority to the breadwinner role, and women to give priority to the homemaker and motherhood roles, Men usually spend more hours in paid work than women, although once non-market work is added in women's 'total working week' is on average longer because they usually have the main responsibility for domestic work and childcare. This division of domestic labour is still widely accepted, even though social attitudes and norms are slowly changing in many countries.

The current arrangement of gender roles leave men free from the responsibilities of childcare and domestic tasks, and thus able to concentrate on their working lives (Burn, 2003), while women have to contend with the difficulty of combining employment and family roles. This gender difference in work patterns and responsibilities provides the context for the interpretation of the comments of men and women on their work-life balance (Lofquist, 1999). Upon the birth of a child, women typically make career decisions to accommodate their growing family responsibilities. This includes reducing work to part-time or taking on more flexible positions to care for children (Friedman et al., 2001). Men typically engage in more paid work, and women engage in more housework, childcare, and eldercare. Crompton and Lynette (2006) found a negative perceived work-life balance of working women in five different European countries (Finland, Norway, Britain, France, Portugal) in particular when it came to childcare responsibilities.

Gender roles often become more differentiated when men and women become parents. Overall, women provide more direct care for and spend more time with children (Walzer, 2001). This care includes taking responsibility for the mental work of gathering and processing information about infant care, delegating the tasks related to infant care, and worrying about infant health and well-being (Grosswald, 2003). In sum, the unequal division of both household labor and childcare, with women doing the bulk of the work, is thought to contribute to the reported lower marital satisfaction for women (Walzer, 2001). Thus, it is hypothesised that:

H9: Gender will moderate the negative relationship between childcare responsibilities and work-life balance, such that relationship will be stronger for women than for men.

3.5. Research philosophy

According to Saunders et al. (2011), research philosophy contains important assumptions about the way in which the researcher view the world. This assumptions are the base on

which the research strategies and methods are decided. It is examined whether the current study is based on which research philosophy out of the major four; positivism, realism, interpretivism or pragmatism. A study based on positivistic philosophy is one in which “only observable phenomena can provide credible data, facts and focus is on causality and law like generalizations, reducing phenomena to simplest elements” (Saunders et al., 2011, p.150). This study is based on the positivistic research philosophy.

3.6. Research approach

Saunders et al. (2011) pointed out that first the researcher should select between two main research approaches: deductive, which idea is to create theory on the basis of the available literature, as well as existing findings and test it through observation and inductive, where first you make the observation, then devise theory as a result of the data analysis. However, the methodological approach that of the current study is deductive research method (Bryman& Bell, 2007). Motive of the choice is that deductive process is organized in a more consistent way, as each new step follows the previous in a logical sequence and the conclusions are drawn through logical reasoning (Bryman& Bell, 2007). The limited time is another reason to apply a deductive approach, because the inductive study is more exploratory and is connected with long process of collecting and analyzing data in order to develop a theory from it, while deductive approach is narrow and it investigates specific theory or hypothesis (Bryman& Bell, 2007).

3.7. Research strategy

Survey is the most popular data collection tool within the explanatory research, and is usually defined by its structured nature in gathering data from a large sample which is regarded as reliable source because of the stated limited alternatives. It provides certain factual and descriptive information, which can be interpolated to the population. Survey is a relatively easy method to administer, as well as economical and efficient in reaching its target population (Malhotra& Dash, 2011). Thus, the study was adopted the survey method to collect data.

3.8. Research choice

Saunders et al. (2011) stated that, if a researcher prefers to use a single data collection method and corresponding data analysis, it is known as the mono method study. Since current study only based on primary data collected using questionnaire and deployed quantitative analysis techniques, the study belongs to the mono method.

3.9. Overall research design

The study is undertaken in order to ascertain the factors affecting work-life balance in the context of managers in the corporate sector which, can be regarded as a descriptive study (Sekaran&Bougie, 2010).

In order to achieve the objectives of the study, the researcher adopted a quantitative based approach as the research methodology for the study. They were selected based on their seniority level (convenient sampling) in particular organisation and they expressed how they perceive and consider work-life balance. The study is designed to analyse the factors affecting work-life balance, and to examine the relationship or association between factors affecting work-life balance and the work-life balance. The data for the study is collected during the second and third quarter of 2014, through a well-developed and structured questionnaire. Accordingly, a cross- sectional study was conducted (Sekaran&Bougie, 2010).Both personally administered questionnaire method and mail questionnaire method was used by the researcher to collect the relevant data from the respondents. Personally administered method was used for majority of respondents who were at convenient places. A minority of respondents was approached through the mail questionnaire method. The researcher ensured that the mail questionnaires were sent back by the respondents by closely following each of them.

3.9.1. Quantitative study

This study describes the relationship between variables. Therefore it is explanatory in nature and was conducted with less interference of the researcher. This research is a non-contrived research (Sekaran&Bougie, 2010). Further, the data for this study was collected at a single point of time (Sekaran&Bougie, 2010; Zikmund, 1997); and the study is a cross-sectional in time horizon. Pilot study was done in the second quarter of the year 2014 and the data was collected during the third quarter of the year 2014. Pilot study was conducted with thirty managerial level employees.

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3.9.2. Sampling

The process of selecting the right individuals, objects or events as representatives for entire population is known as sampling (Sekaran&Bougie, 2010).

In order to achieve the objectives of the study, researcher selected corporate sector managers based on two main reasons. The 20th century saw the emergence of professional management as a function responsible for the coordination and control of organisational processes, this development also gave rise to a pressure of long working hours and high performance expectations thereby reducing personal and leisure time (Lewis, 2003; Perlow, 1998). Second with the growth of women’s employment, coordinating work and family activities has become increasingly difficult and many parents are dissatisfied with the balance between their work and family lives (Bunchanan&Thornthwhite, 2001; Craig, 2007). Also corporate sector is one of the sectors which researcher can have access to more than hundred managers. The above mentioned reasons lead researcher to focus on corporate sector in Sri Lanka in testing and achieving the research objectives of the study.

Thus, the participations of the study were limited to the managerial level employees in the corporate sector in Sri Lanka. Accordingly, the unit of analysis of the study is individual.

3.9.3. Sampling plan

The sample size is important as it affects the magnitude of difference in covariance matrices (Malhotra& Dash, 2010). If the sample is inadequate, the probability to project the results to the population becomes severely limited. Therefore, a ‘minimum sample size’ is needed. A priority statistical power analysis can be calculated using various methods. Subsequently, there are different arguments on the size of the sample. The total sample size was fixed at 250 in view of time and cost considerations, 375 questionnaires were sent but only 174 valid responses received, yielding a response rate of 77%. Most experienced researches would probably consider a sample size between 200 and 1,000 respondents (Sekaran&Bougie, 2010). Sampling plan is explained in Table 2 and Further Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test (KMO) and Bartlett’s test was conducted to assure the sample adequacy and it is explained in the Table 3.

Table 2: Sampling plan

Administrative Stage	Number of Questionnaires Sent	Number of Valid Responses Received
First Wave	170	73

Reminder		69
Second Wave	205	32
Total Questionnaire received	375	174

Source: Survey Data

According to the Table 3 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy is more than 0.5 each construct. Therefore, it shows the sample adequately represent the population for all the variables. Bartlett test is designed to test the equality of variance across groups against the alternative that variance are unequal for at least two groups (Malhotra, 2011). According to results depicted in Table 3 equal variance is made.

Table 3: Sampling adequacy

Dimension	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		
		Approx. χ^2	df	Sig.
Manager Support	.871	213.546	21	<.001
Colleague Support	.683	229.862	21	<.001
Organizational Time Expectations	.681	262.797	28	<.001
Childcare Responsibilities	.612	299.361	22	<.001
Work-Life Balance	.932	376.602	55	<.001
Partner Support	.748	341.232	21	<.001

Source: Survey Data

3.9.4. Research instruments

A structured questionnaire was used as the research instrument in collecting primary data which were used to analysing and understanding the relationships established. Based on the literature review, structured questionnaires tested in prior studies were used in developing

the research instruments. Source on which research instrument based and the reliability of research instruments of prior studies are explained in the Table 4.

Table 4: Operationalisation

Variables	No. of Items	Source on which items based	Reliability (Cronbach's alpha value)
Manager Support	10	Hammer et al. (2009)	.83
Colleague Support	8	Ducharme& Martin(2000)	.76
Organisational Time Expectations	6	Gill (2010)	.79
Partner/Spousal Support	4	Kirran&Buckley (2004)	.73
Childcare Responsibilities	4	Elliot(2003) Levy(2012) Padma & Reddy (2013)	.81 .83 .79
Work-Life Balance	6	Grzywacz& Carlson (2007)	.93

3.10. Validity and reliability of measurement properties

Properties of the measurement should be assessed at least through ensuring content validity and construct validity (Sekaran&Bougie, 2010). Hence, the validations of measurements used in the study are discussed in the following sections.

Content validity is a function of how well the dimensions and elements of a concept have been delineated (Sekaran&Bougie, 2010). Constructs used in the survey have high content validity as they were developed based on a rigorous literature survey. The corporate sector background, dimensions of work-life balance was operationalised by taking well developed and tested scales.

Construct validity testifies to how well the results obtained from the use of the measure fit the theories around which the test is designed (Sekaran&Bougie, 2010). Factor analysis is a multivariate technique that would confirm the dimensions of the concept that have been operationally defined, as well as to indicate which of the items are most appropriate for each dimension (establishing construct validity) (Sekaran&Bougie, 2010). Therefore to measure the construct validity of the study, factor analysis was used for each dimension. Further, item correlation was also performed in order to ensure convergent and discriminant validity (Sekaran&Bougie, 2010).

Convergent validity is how well the scale positively correlates with other measurements of the same constructs (Malhotra& Birks, 2006). Discriminant validity is the extent to which a measure doesn't correlate with other constructs from which it is supposed to differ. It entails a lack of correlation among other constructs (Malhotra& Birks, 2006).

Reliability of the measure indicates the extent to which it is unbiased hence ensures the consistent measurement across time and across various items in the instrument. This helps to assess the “goodness” of the measure (Sekaran&Bougie, 2010). In order to test the reliability of the constructs, Inter-item consistency reliability, Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1946) was used.

3.11. Analysis of data

All statistical techniques which simultaneously analyse more than two variables on a sample of observations can be categorized as multivariate techniques (Kothari, 2004). Multivariate techniques are largely empirical and deal with the reality; they possess the ability to analyse complex data. Accordingly in most of the applied and behavioral researches, generally resort to multivariate analysis techniques for realistic results (Kothari, 2004). This study is also having multiple variables therefore it is necessary to employ multivariate techniques for the analysis of the data. Also, the data collected for the study are of non-normal, therefore PLS can better cater in the examination of relationship between variables (Chengalur-Smith, Duchessi, & Gil-Garcia, 2012).

The term 'path analysis' was first introduced by the biologist Sewall Wright in 1934 in connection with decomposing the total correlation between any two variables in a causal system. The technique of path analysis is based on a series of multiple regression analyses with the added assumption of causal relationship between independent and dependent variables. This technique lays relatively heavier emphasis on the heuristic use of visual diagram, technically described as a path diagram (Kothari, 2004). Concerning the hypothesized relationships between the constructs of the study, Partial Least Squares (PLS) analysis via path strengths is to be used to determine the nature of the hypothesised relationships between the constructs.

PLS Path (PLS-PM) Modeling aims to estimate the relationships among blocks of variables, which are expressions of unobservable constructs. Essentially, PLS-PM is made of a system of interdependent equations based on simple and multiple regressions. Such a system estimates the network of relations among the latent variables as well as the links

between the manifest variables and their own latent variables (Handbook of partial least squares, 2010).

Accordingly, an exploratory factor analysis will be performed followed by the PLS analysis, using Smart-PLS, to analyse the validity of the model's constructs and the relationships between the constructs. PLS is well suited for analysing highly complex predictive models with, multiple-item constructs and both direct and indirect paths (Chengalur-Smith, Duchessi, & Gil-Garcia, 2012). PLS performs a measurement (outer) model analysis to ascertain the overall psychometric properties of the scales used to measure the model's variables and a structural (inner) model analysis to ascertain the important relationships among the variables (Chengalur-Smith et al., 2012; Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2011). PLS can handle small sample sizes and does not impose multivariate homogeneity and normality requirements on the data (Hair et al., 2011). Further Fornell (2011) recommends PLS for the early stages of theory building and testing because PLS is capable of testing the specified relationships even without good scales and even when the scales fail to meet the criteria of convergent validity.

The above literature provides a justification for the current study to use PLS for the purpose of data analysis. The study used relatively a small sample size of 150 where PLS is well designed to cater for small sample sizes.

Thus the hypotheses of the study are to be tested with PLS using SmartPLS 2.0 M3 release, the software written specifically for PLS path analysis. Even though the PLS is compatible with well-known software like SPSS, SmartPLS is a well-known software package among researchers who use PLS as a path modeling which is similar to Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) (Jayakody, 2011) and thus SmartPLS was used for the purpose of data analysis.

3.12. Outcome of the pilot survey

Pilot study is primarily done in order to assess the extent of reliability and validity of a research questionnaire (Kothari, 2004). A pilot study has been conducted for the research by considering 20% of the overall research sample, which accounts to 30 respondents. The questionnaire was further improved through the results of the pilot study.

3.12.1. Reliability and convergent validity of the pilot study

Pilot study was done in the second quarter of the year 2014. Sample of the pilot study consisted of thirty managerial level employees. Following the completion of the pilot study the questionnaire was refined based on the results obtained.

Zikmund (2003, p.891) defines a pilot study as “any small-scale exploratory research technique that uses sampling but does not apply rigorous standards.

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010, p.127), “the reliability of a measure is an indication of the stability and consistency with which the instrument measures the concept and helps to assess the ‘goodness’ of a measure”.

‘Stability’ refers to the ability of a measure to remain the same overtime, despite uncontrollable testing conditions or the state of the respondents being indicative of its stability and having low vulnerability to changes in the situation. This stands as proof of its goodness because the concept is measured with stability, regardless of when it is done (Sekaran&Bougie, 2010).

‘Internal consistency’ of measures indicates the homogeneity of the indicators of the measure that taps the construct (Sekaran&Bougie, 2010). The rationale for internal consistency is that individual items used for a study should all be used to measure the same construct and should therefore be highly correlated (Hair et al., 1998).

For the measurement of internal consistency of the scales used in this study, Cronbach’s Alpha was used. According to Hair et al. (1998), the accepted lower boundary for Cronbach’s Alpha is 0.7 although in some cases (where exploratory research is undertaken) this value may reduce to 0.6. Therefore, it is generally assumed that values above 0.6 indicate an acceptable consistency of the scales used (Malhotra, 2004).

Validity of the questionnaire is assessed to confirm that the research instrument (questionnaire) actually measures what it intends to measure. Content (face) validity, criterion validity and construct validity could be considered the three basic approaches that are used to deal with the evaluation of validity (Zikmund, 2003).

According to Zikmund (2003), content validity is the subjective agreement among professionals that a scale logically appears to measure accurately, that which is intended to be measured. When it becomes evident to experts that a measure provides adequate coverage of a concept, the measure is believed to have face validity.

According to Malhotra (2004), criterion validity examines the extent to which a measurement scale performs as expected, compared with other variables selected as meaningful criteria (criterion variables). These criterion variables may include demographic and psychographic characteristics, attitudinal and behavioral measures or scores taken from other scales.

Construct validity deals with the problem of what a specific measuring instrument actually measures (Churchill, 1983). After assessing construct validity, the researcher tries

to answer theoretical questions on why the scale works and what deductions can be made in terms of the existing theory. Construct validity is considered the most sophisticated and difficult type of validity to establish (Malhotra, 2004).

According to Malhotra (2004), construct validity includes convergent and discriminant validity, it is important for the researcher to have established the meaningfulness of the measure by means of convergent and discriminant validity (Zikmund, 2003).

Convergent validity is how well the scale positively correlates with other measurements of the same construct, (Malhotra, 2004). Whereas the discriminant validity is the extent to which a measure doesn't correlate with other constructs from which it is supposed to differ. It entails a lack of correlation among other constructs (Malhotra & Birks, 2006).

In order to accept convergent validity a particular dimension's Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Composite Reliability (CR) should be over 0.5 and 0.7 respectively. In order to calculate AVE and CR, the factor loadings of the indicators relevant for each dimension were considered, and if any indicator represents a component loading less than 0.5 was eliminated and factor loadings were recalculated after eliminating particular indicator.

Discriminant validity is the extent to which a measure doesn't correlate with other constructs from which it is supposed to differ. It entails demonstration lack of correlation among other constructs (Malhotra & Birks, 2006).

In order to examine discriminant validity, the AVE values calculated were compared with the correlation coefficients of each dimension with other dimensions. Results of the reliability and validity tests are given in Table 5.

Manager Support

Ten items developed by Hammer et al. (2009) was used to measure the manager support variable. According to Table 5, Cronbach's alpha value for manager support is 0.903 which is above the accepted value of 0.7 and therefore it was considered reliable. Component loadings of the ten items represented the AVE and CR values of 0.572 and 0.734 respectively which are above the accepted values of 0.5 and 0.7 respectively. Reliability and the convergent validity of the measures were ensured.

Colleague Support

Eight items developed by Ducharme and Martin (2000) was used to measure the colleague support variable. Variable was considered reliable as the Cronbach's alpha value is 0.811.

Component loadings of items Q 11, “My colleagues would fill in while I am absent”, Q15, “My colleagues are friendly to me”, Q16, “I feel close to my colleagues”, Q17, “I am appreciated by my colleagues”, Q18, “My colleagues are really care about me” could not be accepted as they were less than the standard value of 0.5 for AVE and 0.7 for CR. Therefore the computation was redone by eliminating the above mentioned indicators and as a result the remaining indicators represented an AVE value of 0.523 and a CR value of 0.719. It was concluded that reliability and convergent validity of colleague support is established.

Organisational Time Expectations

Six items developed by Gill, J (2010) was used to measure the variable organisational time expectations. According to Table 5, Cronbach’s alpha value for Organisational time expectations is 0.764 which is above the accepted value of 0.7 and therefore it was considered reliable. Component loadings of the six items represented the AVE and CR values of 0.631 and 0.865 respectively which are above the accepted values of 0.5 and 0.7 respectively. Reliability and the convergent validity of the measures were ensured.

Table 5: Reliability and validity of the pilot survey

Variable	Cronbach’s alpha	Average variance extracted	Composite reliability	No.of Indicators	Original No.of indicators
Manager Support	0.903	0.572	0.734	10	10
Colleague Support	0.811	0.523	0.719	5	8
Organisational Time Expectations	0.764	0.631	0.865	6	6
Partner Support	0.853	0.667	0.841	4	4
Childcare Responsibilities	0.701	0.654	0.722	3	4
Work-Life Balance	0.884	0.792	0.804	6	6

Source: Survey Data

Partner Support

Four items developed by Kirrane and Buckley (2004) was used to measure the partner support variable. Variable was considered reliable as the Cronbach's alpha value is 0.853. Component loadings of indicators accepted as they were above the standard value of 0.5 for AVE (0.667) and 0.7 (0.841) for CR. Reliability and convergent validity of the measurers were established.

Childcare Responsibilities

Four items developed by Elliot (2003) and Levy (2012) was used to measure the childcare responsibilities variable. Variable was considered reliable as the Cronbach's alpha value is 0.701. Component loadings of Q 28, "I believe spousal support helps me to achieve career success" could not be accepted as it was less than the standard value of 0.5 for AVE and 0.7 for CR. Therefore the computation was redone by eliminating the above mentioned indicator and as a result the remaining indicators represented an AVE value of 0.654 and a CR value of 0.722. It was concluded that reliability and convergent validity of colleague support is established.

Work-Life Balance

Six items developed by Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) was used to measure the work-life balance variable. According to Table 5, Cronbach's alpha value for work-life balance is 0.884 which is above the accepted value of 0.7 and therefore it was considered reliable. Component loadings of the six items represented the AVE and CR values of 0.792 and 0.804 respectively which are above the accepted values of 0.5 and 0.7 respectively. Reliability and the convergent validity of the measures were ensured.

3.12.2.Discriminant validity

The assessment of discriminant validity is performed by comparing percentage variance obtained through factor analysis with a separate bivariate correlation analysis (Padgett, 2008). Discriminant validity tends to identify if the dimensions or variables of the research are closely related. For discriminant validity to be ascertained the variable should be different to each other. Table 6 shows the pairwise correlation between factors obtained from the correlated model and variance extracted estimates for the dimensions making up each possible pair.

As depicted in Table 6, all AVE values of the respective variables are above the standard value of 0.5 and higher than the inter-dimension correlation values, it could be ensured that discriminant validity is established.

3.13. Summary

This chapter encompasses the conceptual framework of the study and moves into development of hypotheses. Operationalisation has been developed for the study indicating how each variable will be measured on gathered data. Subsequently, it goes on to explain the methodology used to carry out the research. Therefore a quantitative study has been performed among a sample of 174 respondents and path modeling techniques were used to analyse the data set of the study (Hair et al., 2011; Jayakody, 2011). In the next chapter Data analysis has been presented

Table 6: Discriminant Validity Test Data (Pilot survey)

		Work-Life Balance	Manager Support	Colleague Support	Partner Support	Organisational Time Expectations	Childcare Responsibilities
Work-Life Balance	Pearson Correlation	0.629					
	Sig. (2-tailed)						
	N	150					
Manager Support	Pearson Correlation	-.114	0.559				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.165					
	N	150	150				
Colleague Support	Pearson Correlation	.003	-.111	0.649			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.976	.176				
	N	150	150	150			
Partner Support	Pearson Correlation	.371**	-.105	.078	0.747		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.201	.345			
	N	150	150	150	150		
Organisational Time Expectations	Pearson Correlation	.229**	-.113	-.068	.051	0.779	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.170	.410	.538		
	N	150	150	150	150	150	
Childcare Responsibilities	Pearson Correlation	-.012	-.120	-.020	-.101	-.007	0.631
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.885	.144	.812	.217	.934	
	N	150	150	150	150	150	150

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

Chapter 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

4.1. Introduction

The purpose of the study is to explore the factors affecting work-life balance in the context of managers of the corporate sector. To explore this broader purpose, data was collected from hundred and seventyfour (174) respondents of managerial level in the Sri Lankan corporate sector. This chapter presents and analyses the survey data in relation to objectives and hypotheses of the study. Therefore, the rest of the chapter is designed in the following order.

Firstly, it describes the profile of the sample and descriptive data. Secondly, the data were cleaned and checked for normality. Thirdly data were presented and analysed to see the relationship between variables with a view to meet the objectives of the study.

4.2. Sample profile of the Study

Demographics: The sample is consisting of seventy one (47%) males and seventy nine (53%) females.

Work Status: Sample is consisting of twenty (20) respondents with 1-5 years of working experience (13%), eighty three (83) respondents with 6-10 years of working experience (55%), thirty nine (39) respondents with 11-15 years of working experience (26%) and eight (8) respondents with 16-20 years of working experience (6%) Sample is consisting of three (3) operational level managers (2%), hundred and forty two (142) middle level managers (95%) and five (5) top level managers (3%).

Family Status: forty nine (49) respondents have children less than 1 year (33%), ninety two 92 respondents have children between 1-5 years (61%), four respondents have children between 6-10 years (2.7%) and five respondents have children between 11-15 years (3%). Partners of 135 (90%) respondents are employed and partners of 15 (10%) respondents are unemployed.

4.3. Data preparation for analysis

In order to carry out the data analysis of the study, 375 questionnaires were distributed and 174 usable responses were collected, yielding a response rate of 77%. The unit of analysis was individual manager in Sri Lankan corporate sector. The collected data was

preliminarily scanned for accuracy and precision. Then, they were subjected to cleaning process. The purpose was to identify outliers and provide treatments for missing values.

4.3.1. Data cleaning

The data analysis is initiated by entering data into the IBM Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) software version 21.0. Then, they were subjected to the cleaning process. Several plot diagrams/graphs helped in identifying the outliers. Outliers are cases that have out-of-range values, as compared to the majority of other cases. Their presence in the data may distort statistical test results (Malhotra& Dash, 2011). Outliers are detectable via analysis of the residual scatter plot. Twenty four outliers were deleted and 150 questionnaires were used for the final analysis.

Random missing values were replaced using the Expectation-Maximization (EM) method available in the software package; accordingly, nine missing values were replaced.

4.3.2. Tests of normality distribution of data

Normality magnifies the shape of the sample data distribution to the population. Subsequent estimates of sample will have representative variations with the population mean (Malhotra& Dash, 2011). Normality is used to describe a curve that is symmetrical and bell-shaped. The highest score frequency is depicted in the middle, with lower frequencies towards the extremes. Even though there are multiple ways of assessing the normality of the distribution of scores, to assess normality for this study the researcher used Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic (K-S test) and the Shapiro-Wilk statistic test. The normality of the data set was assessed using the average values of the factors that were used to measure a specific variable of interest and the results of the normality test conducted for each variable are depicted in Table 7.

In order to assume the normality of data distribution the significant values of K-S test and the Shapiro-Wilk test should be more than 0.05, so that the assumption of normality can be met (Abhayakoon&Balathanan, 2013; Kaplan, 2009; Kothari, 2004) But as Table 7 depicts most of the variables except for Manager support, Organisational time expectations, and work-life balance the other variables do not score a significant value of more than 0.05, and as a result the assumption of normality for the data set cannot be satisfied. Therefore dataset was analysed applying the Partial Least Squares (PLS) using the SmartPLS.

Table 7: Results of normality test

Variable	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	Shapiro-Wilk
----------	--------------------	--------------

	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Manager Support	.083	146	.077	.971	146	.024
Colleague Support	.063	149	.081	.749	149	.000
Organizational Time Expectations	.075	149	.180	.978	149	.085
Partner Support	.107	150	.004	.946	150	.000
Childcare Responsibilities	.241	150	.000	.835	150	.000
Work-life Balance	.097	149	.021	.983	149	.233

Source: Author compiled based on survey data

4.3.3. Findings of the multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) test

Multivariate analysis of variance (one-way MANOVA) is used to determine whether there are any differences between independent groups on more than one continuous dependent variable. Multivariate analysis of variance test was performed to find statistical differences between data gathered from males and females. In order to verify the findings of one-way MANOVA, Wilk's lambda also calculated findings are given in Table 8.

As shown in Table 8 p value is greater than 0.05 and Wilks' lambda value is .953 ($p=0.931$) and it clearly indicate that there is no statistical difference between data gathered from males and females.

4.4. Results of Partial Least Square (PLS) Analysis

As explained in chapter two, the data set is to be analysed applying the Partial Least Squares (PLS) using the SmartPLS software.

The use of PLS for the study is more relevant due to several reasons. Firstly the researchers' prime objective is prediction oriented, that is, the purpose of this study is to explore the factors affecting work-life balance and to examine the relationship between variables which PLS can better cater (Chengalur-Smith, Duchessi, & Gil-Garcia, 2012). Next as explained earlier, the data collected for the study are of non-normal. Further, the proposed model of the study involves relatively large number of indicators, constructs and complex relationships where PLS analysis is recommended to employ (Handbook of partial least squares, 2010; Jayakody, 2011). Therefore based on the above reasons, the use of PLS for the study is justified.

Table 8: Findings of MANOVA test*Source: Survey Data*

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Sqaure	F	Sig.
Work-life balance	Between Groups	.011	3	.011	.231	.237
	Within Groups	90.811	226	1.108		
	Total	90.822	229			
Manager support	Between Groups	.442	3	.442	.669	.572
	Within Groups	47.467	226	1.098		
	Total	47.909	229			
Colleague support	Between Groups	.213	3	.213	.301	.160
	Within Groups	152.885	226	1.256		
	Total	153.098	229			
Organisational time expectations	Between Groups	.031	3	.411	.371	.212
	Within Groups	80.811	226	1.921		
	Total	80.822	229			
Partner Support	Between Groups	.011	3	.428	.521	.437
	Within Groups	180.671	226	1.341		
	Total	180.622	229			
Childcare responsibilities	Between Groups	.074	3	.567	.589	.372
	Within Groups	79.427	226	1.231		
	Total	79.999	229			

The PLS analysis for the study was performed using the SmartPLS 2.0 (M3 release) software (Chengalur-Smith et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2011).

Path analysis makes use of standardized partial regression coefficients (known as beta weights) as effect coefficients. In linear additive effects are assumed, and then through path analysis a simple set of equations can be built up showing how each variable depends on preceding variables. “The main principle of path analysis is that any correlation coefficient between two variables, or a gross or overall measure of empirical relationship can be decomposed into a series of parts: separate paths of influence leading through chronologically intermediate variable to which both the correlated variables have links” (Kothari, 2004 p.39). The merit of path analysis in comparison to correlation analysis is that it makes possible the assessment of the relative influence of each antecedent or explanatory variable on the consequent or criterion variables by first making explicit the assumptions underlying the causal connections and then by elucidating the indirect effect of the explanatory variables (Kothari, 2004).

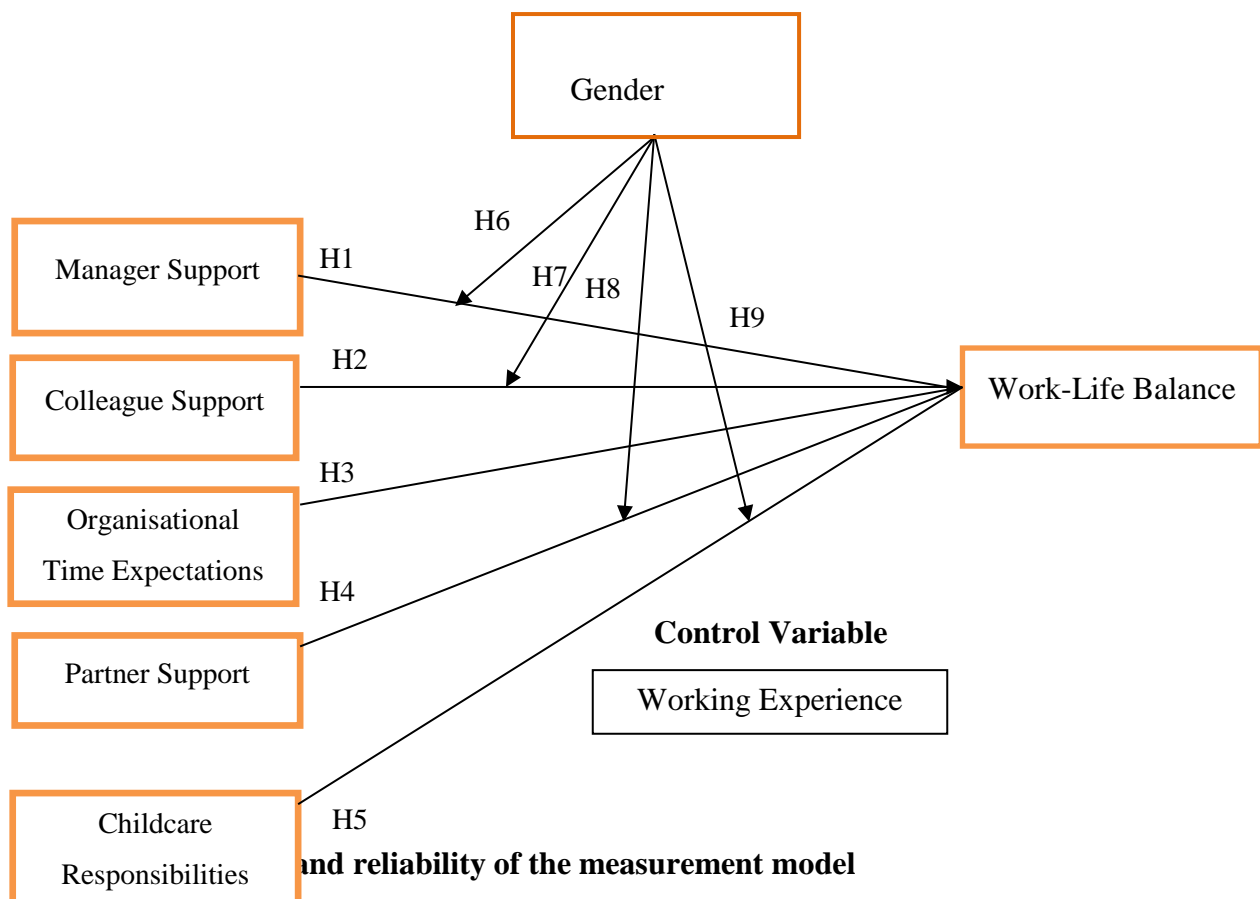
Each Structural Equation Model is composed by two sub-models: the measurement model and the structural model. The first one takes into account the relationships between each latent variable and the corresponding manifest variables, while the structural model takes into account the relationships among the latent variables (Handbook of partial least squares, 2010). This process is called two-step process. Supporting the two-step process (Jayakody,2011, p.26), Hair et al. (2006, p.141) has stated that “valid structural theory test cannot be conducted with bad measures and thus, that the testing of the measurement model prior to the testing of the structural model is essential”.

Thus, the study followed the two-step process, where it first needs to test the measurement model.

4.4.1. The Measurement model

The conceptual framework developed in Chapter two, for the purpose of achieving the objectives of the study is depicted in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Measurement model



As explained earlier, the PLS model has two sub models, where the first part is called the measurement model] Source: Author’s conceptualisation and reliability of the measures used to represent each construct of the measurement model. Therefore the

structural model with the following constructs and relationships as in Figure 2 was considered as the baseline model for the analysis.

To follow the first step of the SmartPLS, the initial measurement model was run using the PLS algorithm option. The Path Weighting Scheme was selected for the inner weights estimation and standardized data was selected for the data metric (Mean Value of 0, Variance of 1) (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011; Handbook of partial least squares, 2010; Jung, Wu, & Chow, 2008).

Firstly, the content validity of the indicators were measured based on the results of indicator reliability test. The content validity measures to what extent a measurement model's variables belongs to the domain of the construct (Handbook of partial least squares, 2010). The indicator reliability specifies which part of an indicator's variance can be explained by the underlying latent variable. A common threshold criterion is that more than 70% of an indicator's variance should be explained by the latent construct. Thus, for each construct the factor loadings that had less than .7 were removed from further analysis (Abhayakoon & Balathasan, 2013; Hair et al., 2011; Jung, Wu, & Chow, 2008) to ensure the indicator reliability meets the content validity of the measures. The variables that were selected for further analysis along with their new factor loadings after eliminating the lower factor loading variables.

As per the indicator reliability analysis, ten items used to measure the manager support construct, three items out of eight were used to measure colleague support. For organisational time expectations, five questions out of six were filtered. All four questions were allowed to measure partner support. For childcare responsibility, two items were used out of four questions and all six items were used to measure work-life balance dimension.

After establishing the construct's indicators and indicator reliability, in respect of uni-dimensionality, further evaluation was required regarding the reliability and validity (Handbook of partial least squares, 2010). With a view of catering to this requirement, the construct reliability, convergent validity and the discriminant validity of the measurement model were ensured as follows.

Construct reliability indicates that although small indicator reliabilities may point to a given indicator's adequate measurement of a construct, it is usually more important that all the construct's indicators jointly measure the construct adequately. Construct reliability requires indicators assigned to the same construct to reveal a strong mutual association. Subsequently, the composite reliability measure can be used to check how well a construct is measured by its assigned indicators (Handbook of partial least squares, 2010).

In order to ensure the construct reliability, the composite reliability and the Cronbach's alpha is used (Chengalur-Smith et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2011; Handbook of partial least squares, 2010). The composite scale reliability for each construct (an internal consistency estimate similar to alpha) and the Cronbach's alpha are expected to meet .7 or above (Hair et al., 2011) to ensure the construct reliability of each construct used in the measurement model.

Convergent validity is based on the correlation between responses obtained by maximally different methods of measuring the same construct. A common measure to examine convergent validity is known as Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (Handbook of partial least squares, 2010). If the AVE measure is measured at more than or equal to .5, it is assumed to achieve the convergent validity of the measures (Hair et al., 2011). The discriminant validity of the measurement model is used to ensure that a construct is more strongly related to its own measures than with any other construct (Handbook of partial least squares, 2010). To test this, the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) is compared with the correlations among constructs. Further, factor cross loadings and their correlations are used to measure the discriminant validity of the measurement model indicators (Handbook of partial least squares, 2010). In the inter-construct correlations table (Table 10) when go down a particular construct column, the item loadings are expected to be lower than the square root of AVE. Similarly, in a particular item row, it is expect to see that any item be more strongly related to its construct column than any other construct column. If this is found to be the case, the claim can be made for discriminant validity at the item level. Specifically, it can be stated that each item loads more highly on their own construct than on other constructs and that all constructs share more variance with their measures than with other constructs (Chengalur-Smith et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2011; Handbook of partial least squares, 2010).

Table 9 presents the information relating to the composite scale reliability, Cronbach's alpha and AVE measure for each construct of the measurement model.

Table 9: Reliability and convergent validity of constructs

Variable	No.of Items	AVE	Composite reliability	Cronbach's Alpha
Manager Support	10	0.867	0.985	0.983
Colleague Support	3	0.677	0.859	0.747
Org.time Expectations	5	0.656	0.905	0.876

Partner Support	4	0.844	0.956	0.939
Childcare Responsibility	2	0.849	0.918	0.830
Work-Life Balance	6	0.846	0.971	0.964

Source: Author compiled based on survey data

According to Table 9 the composite reliability and the Cronbach’s alpha is well above .7 which suggests the construct reliability of the measurement model indicators (Sekaran&Bougie, 2010). Furthermore, all the indicators have achieved an AVE value of well above .5 which ensures the convergent validity (Sekaran& Bougie2010).

The discriminant validity which is well supported by the results of the inter-construct correlations and cross loadings are presented in Tables 10 and 11 respectively. When referring to Table 10 the square root of AVE which represents in the diagonal is higher than its column wise and row wise correlation values which suggests a strong discriminant validity of measures, and this is well supported by the table of cross loadings (Table 11) which is evident in the loadings of the constructs that are meant to measure by the measures that are higher than the loadings of the particular measure which has for the other constructs.

Hence, the first step of the PLS analysis, which is about establishing the measurement model validity and reliability is completed and the results obtained, are well justified the reliability and validity of the model.

4.5. Structural model and hypothesis testing

The purpose of the structural model is to draw conclusions from the sample, such as causal relationships and predictions. The structural model presents the relationship between exogenous and endogenous variables. It offers a direct test of the theory of interest as the structural model is used to capture the linear regression effects of the exogenous constructs on the endogenous constructs, and the regression effects of the endogenous constructs upon each other (Handbook of partial least squares, 2010).

PLS provides three estimates to assess the structural model or the relationship between latent variables; path coefficient, corresponding significant score, and the coefficient determinant. The path coefficient is similar to the beta value of the traditional regression model. The significant score determined using the t-value generated through the bootstrapping procedure in PLS. (Ahamed&Dambawinne, 2013; Handbook of partial least squares, 2010; Jayakody, 2011). The bootstrapping procedure was performed using 5000 samples.

As Figure 3 explains, the structural model is designed to test five hypotheses, which were developed on the basis of achieving the objectives of the study.

The model tests five hypotheses for the relationship between the factors affecting work-life balance (Manager support, Colleague support, Organisational time expectations, Partner support, Childcare responsibilities) and work-life balance.

Objective 01: To identify the major determinants of work-life balance of corporate sector managers

The hypotheses from H1 to H5 were developed to achieve the first objective of the study. In order to identify the major determinants of work-life balance, five hypotheses were developed to examine the relationship between factors affecting work-life balance and work-life balance. The results obtained in testing these hypotheses in the direct path with their values are given in Table 12. Relationship between manager support and work-life balance (H1), relationship between organisational time expectations and work-life balance (H3), relationship between partner support and work-life balance (H4),

Table 9: Inter-Construct correlations

Construct	Childcare Responsibility	Colleague Support	Manager Support	Organisational time Expectations	Partner Support	Work-life Balance	Working Experience	Gender
Childcare responsibility	0.921							
Colleague Support	0.140	0.823						
Manager Support	-0.149	-0.077	0.931					
Organisational time expectations	-0.092	0.026	-0.145	0.810				
Partner Support	-0.139	0.094	-0.104	0.146	0.919			
Work-life balance	-0.155	0.082	0.119	0.298	0.378	0.920		
Working Experience	0.167	0.132	0.101	0.031	0.321	-0.129	0.743	
Gender	0.123	-0.151	0.137	0.042	0.232	0.291	0.339	0.863

Table 10: Cross loadings for the measurement model

	Childcare Responsibility	Colleague Support	Manager Support	Organisational time Expectations	Partner Support	Work-life Balance
Q1	-0.098	-0.011	0.910	-0.184	-0.075	0.105
Q10	-0.150	-0.097	0.971	-0.162	-0.110	0.096
Q12	0.125	0.896	-0.099	0.027	0.078	0.072
Q13	0.173	0.918	-0.036	0.035	0.090	0.076
Q14	0.023	0.720	-0.056	-0.006	0.062	0.052
Q19	-0.013	0.058	-0.190	0.884	0.025	0.288
Q2	-0.114	0.022	0.923	-0.153	-0.102	0.135

Source: SmartPLS output

Table 11: Cross loadings for the measurement model **contd**

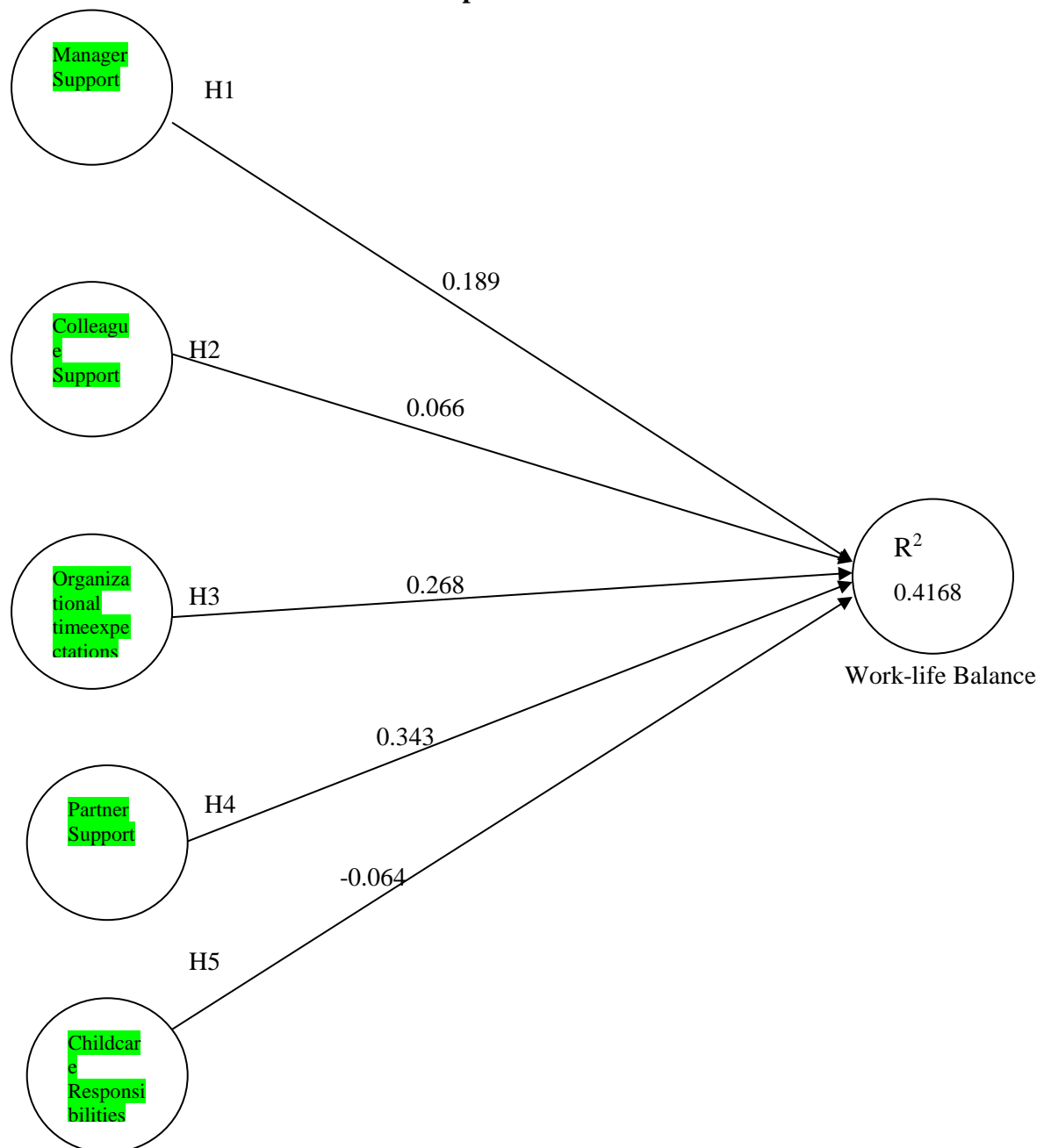
	Childcare Responsibility	Colleague Support	Manager Support	Organisational time Expectations	Partner Support	Work-life Balance
Q20	-0.246	-0.012	-0.065	0.759	0.341	0.313
Q21	0.111	0.093	-0.276	0.757	-0.132	0.092
Q22	0.020	0.026	-0.070	0.831	0.010	0.210
Q24	-0.081	-0.032	-0.058	0.813	0.147	0.146
Q25	-0.149	0.058	-0.117	0.185	0.933	0.395
Q26	-0.106	0.070	-0.106	0.135	0.935	0.369
Q27	-0.129	0.118	-0.046	0.121	0.881	0.304
Q28	-0.128	0.112	-0.104	0.084	0.924	0.306
Q29	0.888	0.085	-0.144	-0.022	-0.014	-0.109
Q3	-0.135	-0.033	0.934	-0.102	-0.099	0.114
Q3	0.954	0.160	-0.135	-0.126	-0.205	-0.167
Q33	-0.087	0.092	0.151	0.187	0.368	0.878
Q34	-0.153	0.068	0.122	0.319	0.394	0.943
Q35	-0.190	0.067	0.119	0.333	0.384	0.905
Q36	-0.102	0.120	0.097	0.274	0.269	0.937
Q37	-0.144	0.047	0.032	0.222	0.369	0.916
Q38	-0.167	0.064	0.129	0.287	0.278	0.937
Q4	-0.129	-0.055	0.901	-0.150	-0.103	0.089
Q5	-0.135	-0.085	0.967	-0.174	-0.085	0.113
Q6	-0.160	-0.125	0.958	-0.145	-0.095	0.124
Q7	-0.179	-0.143	0.892	-0.078	-0.066	0.124
Q8	-0.146	-0.117	0.890	-0.054	-0.135	0.104
Q9	-0.139	-0.077	0.958	-0.155	-0.101	0.085

Source: SmartPLS output

Having established the appropriateness of the measures, the next step is to evaluate the structural model results.

Accordingly, the path coefficients or the beta values for the above relationships are positive with the scores of 0.189, 0.268 and 0.343 respectively. Also these path coefficients are significant as the T-value is greater than the significant critical values (>1.96, for significance at 95% level and >2.65, for significance at 99% level). Therefore H1 (T-stat: 2.518) is significant at 95% significant level and H3 (T-stat: 3.394) and H4 (T-stat: 4.948) are significant at 99% significant level. Hence H1, H3, H4 are significant.

Figure 3: Results of the structural model with path coefficients



Source: Author compiled based on SmartPLS output

In H2, though the path coefficient is positive with the score of 0.066, T-stat is below (0.760) the significant level of 1.96, since the significant score is determined using the t-value generated through the bootstrapping procedure in PLS, H2 is not supported. As per the results depicted in Table 12 T-value of H5 (0.958) is below the significant level of 1.96. Hence H5 is not supported

Therefore Hypotheses H1 is supported which predicts that there is a positive relationship between manager support and work-life balance. H3 is supported which envisage that there is a negative relationship between organizational time expectations and work-life balance. H4 is also supported which describe that there is a positive relationship between partner support and work-life balance.

Five hypotheses were developed to examine the relationship between factors affecting work-life balance and work-life balance, which leads to identify the major determinants of work-life balance. Three hypotheses out of five were supported at the confidence level of 95% (H1) and the confidence level of 99% (H3, H4). Therefore it is evident that manager support and partner support have a positive relationship with work-life balance while organizational time expectations has a negative relationship with work-life balance.

4.6. Testing the moderator

Objective 2: To identify whether gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between determinants of work-life balance and work-life balance.

The second objective of the study is to assess the influence of the gender to the relationship between factors affecting work-life balance and work-life balance.

A moderator is a qualitative or quantitative variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable (Stern et al, 1982).

To test the effect of moderator (Gender) on the relationship between independent and dependent variable author designed four hypotheses. Moderator effect was tested on four relationships. Graphical interpretation of results with path coefficients are depicted in Figure 4 and results are clearly depicted in Table 13. Four hypotheses are,

Table 11: Results of hypothesis testing

Hypotheses	P.C	S.E	T-Stat	Decision
There is a positive relationship between Manager support and work life-balance (H1)	0.189	0.075	2.518	Accepted
There is a positive relationship between Colleague support and work life-balance (H2)	0.066	0.087	0.760	Rejected
There is a negative relationship between Organizational time expectations and work-life balance (H3)	0.268	0.079	3.394	Accepted
There is a positive relationship between Partner support and work-life balance (H4)	0.343	0.069	4.948	Accepted
There is a negative relationship between Childcare responsibilities and work-life balance (H5)	-0.064	0.067	0.958	Rejected

H6: Gender will moderate the positive relationship between manager support and work-life balance, such that relationship will be stronger for women than for men.

H7: Gender will moderate the positive relationship between colleague support and work-life balance, such that relationship will be stronger for women than for men.

H8: Gender will moderate the positive relationship between partner support and work-life balance, such that relationship will be stronger for women than for women

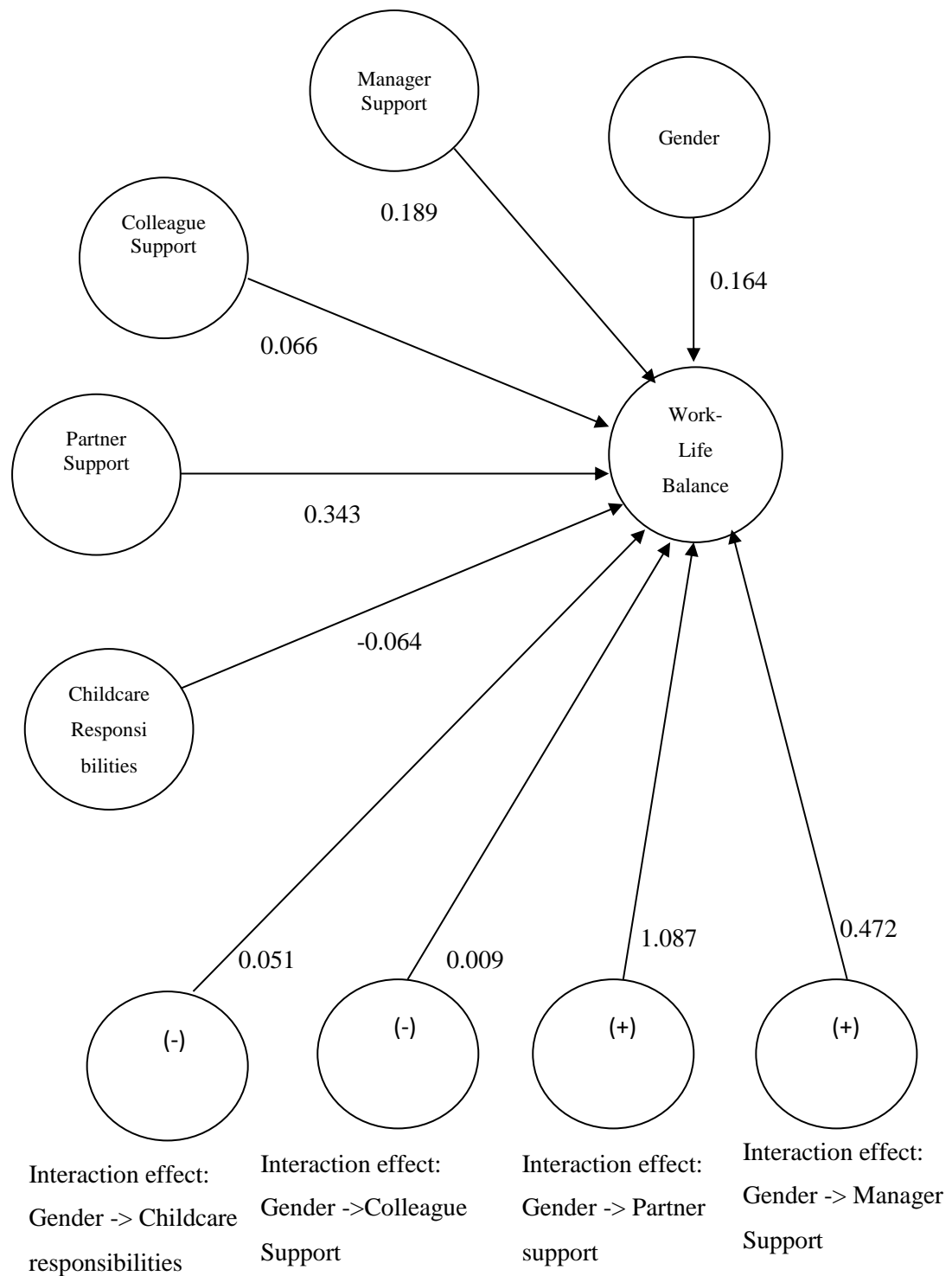
H9: Gender will moderate the negative relationship between childcare responsibilities and work-life balance, such that relationship will be stronger for women than for men.

In order to test the H6, H7, H8, and H9 PLS algorithm option was used and after that the bootstrapping procedure was performed to determine the significance of the scores and to determine the impact of gender on the relationship between factors affecting work-life balance (Independent Variables) and work-life balance (Dependent Variable). After verifying that there is a moderating effect on the relationships, second step was to test the strength of the relationship for male and female. According to West, Aiken and Krull (1996), IBM statistical package (SPSS) does not provide a straightforward method for plotting interactions/moderations, hence simple slope test was utilized when researcher is interested in testing the moderation effect.

H6, H7, H8 and H9 were developed to examine whether there is an influence of gender on the relationship between factors affecting work-life balance and work-life balance. Accordingly, the path coefficients or the beta values for the above relationships are positive with the scores of 0.472 (H6) and 1.087 (H8). Also these path coefficients are significant as the T-value is greater than the significant critical values (>1.96 , for significance at 95% level and >2.65 , for significance at 99% level). Therefore H6 is supported at 99% significant level with the t-value of 3.507, H8 is supported at 99% significant level with the t-value of 3.757. H7 was developed to examine whether gender moderates the relationship between colleague support and work-life balance. As per the results depicted in Table 13 H7 (0.009) is below the significant level of 1.96 and it is not significant it can be concluded that gender does not moderate the relationship between colleague support and work-life balance. It is evident that gender does not moderate the negative relationship between childcare responsibilities and work-life balance (H9) since the path coefficient is not significant (0.051) and it is below the significant level of 1.96.

Hence, it is evident that gender only moderates the positive relationship between manager support and work-life balance and positive relationship between partner support and work-life balance

Figure 4: Results of moderator testing with path coefficients



Source: Author compiled based on SmartPLS output

Table 12: Results of the structural model for H6, H7, H8 and H9

First half of the Hypothesis	P.C	T-stat	Decision
Gender moderates the positive relationship between manager support and work-life balance.(H6)	0.472	3.507	Gender moderates the relationship
Gender moderates the relationship between colleague support and work-life balance.(H7)	0.009	1.056	Gender does not moderate the relationship
Gender moderates the positive relationship between partner support and work-life balance.(H8)	1.087	3.757	Gender moderates the relationship
Gender moderates the relationship between childcare responsibilities.(H9)	0.051	0.093	Gender does not moderate the relationship

P.C Path Coefficient

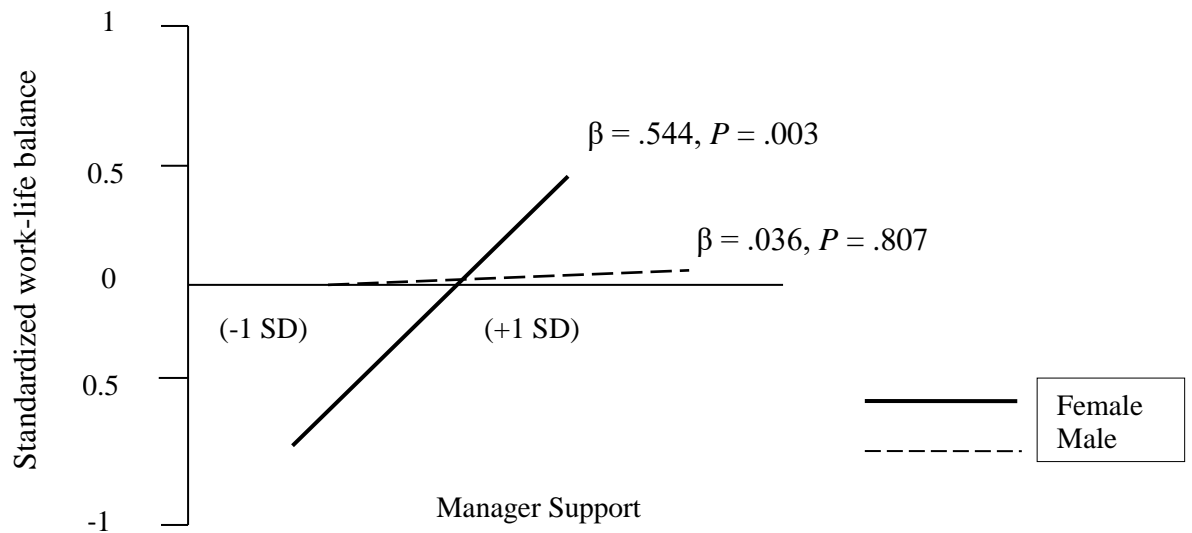
Source: Author compiled based on SmartPLS output

Second half of the particular hypotheses were to determine the strength of the relationship. According to West, Aiken and Krull (1996), IBM statistical package (SPSS) does not provide a straightforward method for plotting interactions/moderations; hence simple slope test was utilized when researcher is interested in testing the strength of the moderation effect of gender on relationships between Manager support and Work-life balance and Partner support and Work-life balance. And the results are clearly illustrated in Figure 5 and Figure 6.

According to the simple slope test results correlation coefficient is closer to +1 for female (0.544) than men (0.036) (Figure 5) and it can be concluded that the relationship between manager support and work-life balance is stronger for women than for men. Hence, H6 is supported and it can be said that gender moderates the relationship between

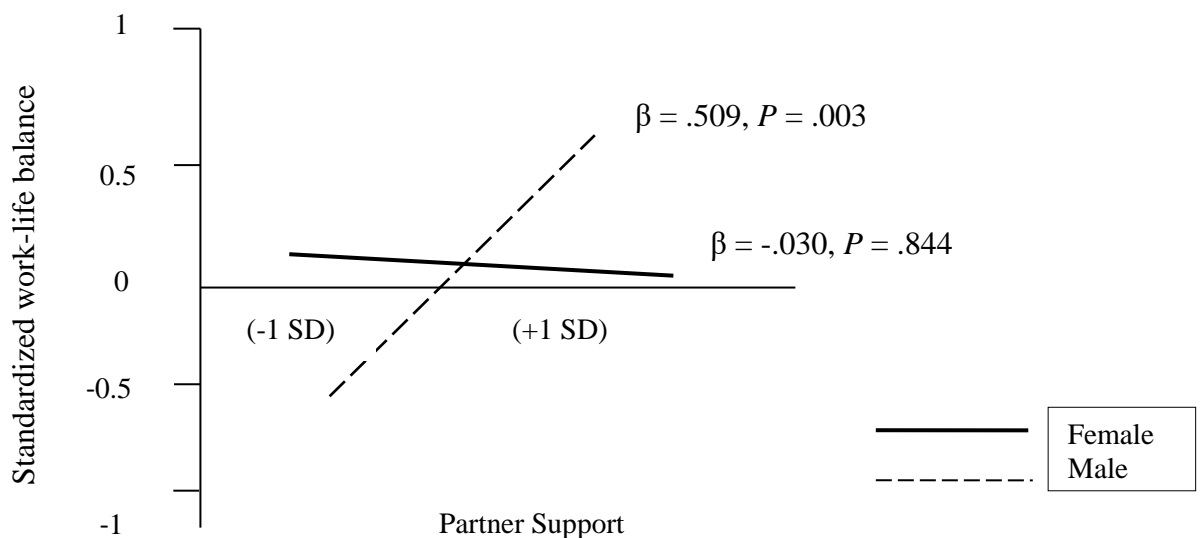
manager support and work-life balance and relationship is stronger for women than for men. Results are graphically interpreted in Figure 5.

Figure 5: Strength of the moderation effect of Gender on Manager Support and Work-life balance



In order to test the strength of the moderation effect of gender on the relationship between partner support and work-life balance, simple slope test was performed and results are interpreted in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Strength of the moderation effect of Gender on Partner Support and Work-life balance



According to the simple slope test results depicted in Figure 6 correlation coefficient is closer to +1 for male (0.509) than for women (-0.030) and it can be concluded that relationship between partner support and work-life balance is stronger for men than for women. Therefore H8 is not supported.

4.7. Summary of hypotheses testing

In order to achieve the objectives of the study, nine hypotheses were developed.

Objective 01: To identify the major determinants of work-life balance of corporate sector managers

Five hypotheses were developed to examine the relationship between factors affecting work-life balance and work-life balance, which leads to identify the major determinants of work-life balance. Three hypotheses out of five were supported at the significant level of 95%. They are;

H1: There is a positive relationship between manager support and work-life balance

H3: There is a negative relationship between organizational time expectations and work-life balance

H4: There is a positive relationship between partner support and work-life balance

Objective 2: To identify whether gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between determinants of work-life balance and work-life balance.

To test the effect of moderator (Gender) on the relationship between independent and dependent variable author designed four hypotheses. With the results, it was evident that relationship between colleague support and work-life balance and childcare responsibilities and work-life balance and partner support and work-life balance is not supported and one hypothesis was supported at the significant level of 95% which is;

H6: Gender moderates the positive relationship between manager support and work-life balance, such that relationship will be stronger for women than for men.

IBM statistical package (SPSS) does not provide a straightforward method for plotting interactions/moderations (West, Aiken & Krull, 1996); hence simple slope test was utilized to determine the strength of the moderation effect on relationships. According to the results, relationship between manager support and work-life balance is stronger for women than for men, so it can be concluded that H6 is supported, but relationship between partner support and work-life balance (H8) is stronger for men than for women, therefore H8 is not supported.

4.8. Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to analyse, data collected from the managers in the corporate sector of Sri Lanka to identify the major determinants of work-life balance. This was analyzed using the conceptual framework developed by the researcher in chapter two.

Sample composed of 150 respondents were tested for normality using IBM SPSS Statistical package and the data were analyzed using the SmartPLS software in two steps where via the measurement model the validity and reliability of the model was tested and with the structural model the analysis was carried out to assess the relationships characterized by the hypotheses and the findings were presented. Furthermore, the study tested one moderator which moderated the relationship between determinants of work-life balance and work-life balance. Discussion based on the analysis of data will be carried out in the next chapter.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION ON FINDINGS

5.1. Introduction

Chapter 4, (Data Analysis and Presentation) presented the findings of analysis in detail about the key outcomes in relation to objectives and hypotheses testing of the study. This chapter is to explain the findings of the data analysis with the discussion relevant to the purpose of the research. Each section discusses the findings along with the prior literature.

5.2. Key findings

The purpose of the study was to analyse factors affecting work-life balance among corporate sector managers in Sri Lanka. To accomplish this purpose two objectives were identified and to achieve the objectives nine hypotheses were developed in Chapter 2, (Conceptual framework & Methodology).

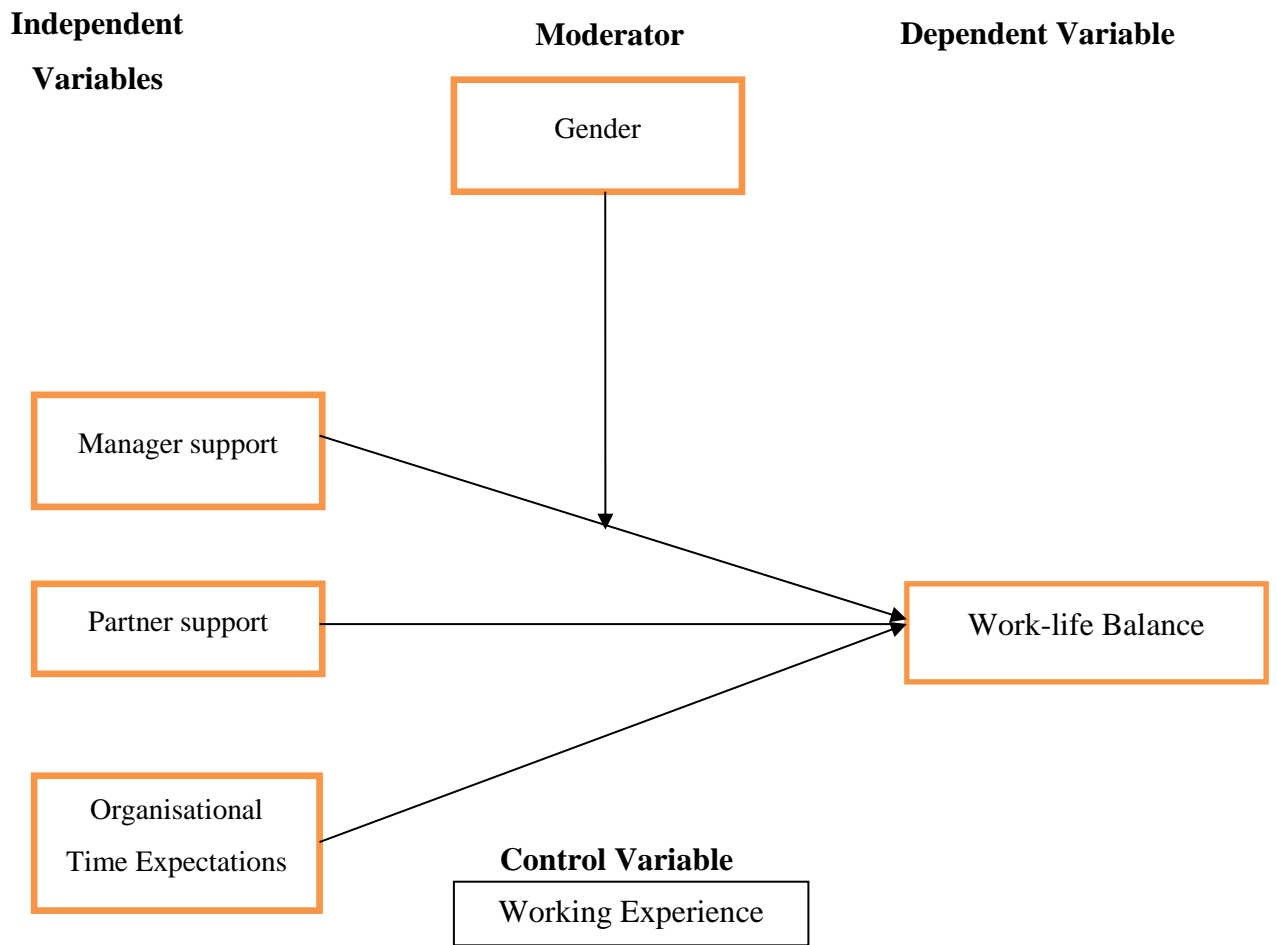
The first objective was to identify major determinants of work-life balance, five hypotheses were developed to achieve these objectives. As per the disclosure of results in Chapter 4 out of five hypotheses only three were significant. Manager support, Partner support and Organisational time expectations are found to be the major determinants of work-life balance. According to the results colleague support and childcare responsibilities have no significant impact on work-life balance among corporate sector managers in Sri Lanka.

The second objective was to examine whether gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between determinants of work-life balance and work-life balance. In order to achieve this objective four hypotheses were developed. According to the results gender moderates the positive relationship between manager support and work-life balance and relationship is stronger for women than for men. Contrary to the hypothesis gender moderates the positive relationship between partner support and work-life balance and the relationship is stronger for men than for women. Results revealed that gender does not moderate the relationship between childcare responsibilities and work-life balance and colleague support and work-life balance.

5.3. Re-examining the conceptual framework

After the results of the study obtained author had to modify the conceptual framework according to the results and it is depicted in Figure 7.

Figure 7: Modified Conceptual Framework



Source: Author developed based on the results of the research

5.4. Discussion on findings

When refer to the major determinants of work-life balance, Manger support is found to be one of the key factors which affect work-life balance among corporate sector managers. Work-life balance is one of the noteworthy topics that have risen amid the most recent decade in Sri Lanka because of impressive work escalation which was brought about by expansion business rivalry and women contribution in the workforce (Arachchige, 2013).

It has been shown that the immediate supervisor’s response to work and family concerns is more critical than that of the top management in setting the tone for a supportive environment which supports the finding of Bernas and Major (2000). Finding is also congruent with the finding of Friedman et al. (1999) who found that it was the supportive attitudes and immediate managers’ behaviours which employees considered the most

significant factor in balancing their work-life responsibilities. These findings of Bernasand Major (2000) and Friedman et al. are well supported by the finding of the current study. This study's finding is also in line with the finding of Allen et al. (2001) which describe that enthusiastic support of managers' means that employees will be more likely to feel balance between work and life and experience an overall lower level of work-life conflict. This finding also supports the finding of Kailasapathy et al. (2014), which says that a high-quality supervisor exchange relationship helps the individual better balance work and family demands .

Organisational time expectations is also found to be a major determinant of work-life balance. The finding of Bonney (2005) which reveals that Organisational time expectations are widely held to negatively influence the non-work domain is well supported by the finding of the current study. The result of the current study is also in the alignment with the dominant finding, that many employees are spending longer hours at work (Beynon et al., 2002; Green, 2001; Fagan, 2003), yet at the same time representing a stumbling block towards meeting non-work responsibilities. Study findings also supports the postulation of Van Dyne et al. (2007), which revealed that when there is a higher time expectations employee perceives lower level of work-life balance and when there is a lower time expectations employee perceive higher level of work-life balance.

Partner support is also found to be a major determinant of work-life balance. Given the increasing interdependence of the work and family domains, partner support is being recognised as an increasingly important factor contributing to the understanding of the well-being of employees (Peeters & LeBlanc, 2001). According to the current study, finding of positive relationship between partner support and work-life balance well supports the finding of Bird and Bird (1999) and Aneshensel (1986) which reveals that receiving spouse/partner support has been positively related to number of work-related outcomes, including occupational success (Bird & Bird, 1986), positive mental health, work-life balance (Aneshensel, 1986).

According to empirical findings colleague support is a major source of social support and coworkers have the ability to define the social environment at work (Schneider, 1987) and they can have a large influence on whether or not an employee is able to balance his/her time between work and non-work life (Cook & Minnotte, 2008). Colleague support was found not supportive pertaining to the current study. Presumably this is may be due to, majority of corporate sector managers have to perform heavy work load, under strict time lines, therefore assistance seeking behaviour or culture, in order to strike a balance

between work and home may not have been promoted. Since every manager is working under pressure and all are working hard to meet deadlines, they may not expect assistance or support from other colleagues to ease off the burden of work-life conflict.

Childcare responsibilities have not been found supportive in the current study. According to empirical findings childcare responsibilities can have largely a negative influence on work-life balance (Hochschild, 1989). Especially in Asian cultures, extended family support is considered as a major source of support to raise and take care of children. Working parents heavily depend on the assistance of their parents or relatives to raise children and they rely on the security, protection and affection that their children get from their grandparents or relatives when they (working parents) are at work. Presumably, support and assistance of extended family plays a major role in order to strike a balance between work and life, therefore working parents, especially in Asian cultures may not perceive childcare responsibilities negatively or as an obstacle which obstructs to maintain a balance between work and life.

Second objective of the study was to examine to identify whether gender has a moderating effect on the relationship between determinants of work-life balance and work-life balance. To test the effect of moderator (gender) on the relationship between independent and dependent variable author designed four hypotheses. Moderator effect was tested on four relationships.

It was found that gender has an impact on the relationship between manager support and work-life balance. It was also found that relationship is stronger for women than for men. This is because women still primarily take care of domestic tasks, irrespective of their employment status. So, many women employees continue to face difficulties in balancing these two forces (Hyman & Summers, 2004). The burden of meeting the demands of home front and office front is high when women's exposure to the labor force and to education increases. Given the context, for female employees a supportive supervisor may make work situations less stressful by discussing family-related problems and being flexible when emergencies arise at home (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999 as cited in Hyman & Summers, 2004). According to the current study's findings working women receive sufficient support from their managers/supervisors which helps them to ease off the burden they face in both the work and family domains.

Partner support is also significantly influenced by gender. Contrary to the hypothesis, the relationship between partner support and work-life balance is stronger for men than for women. Men perceive higher partner/spousal support than for women and it

means that even though both men and women are occupied; responsibilities of the home domain are not equally divided, findings of the current study support the finding of Arachchige (2013) which says that in the Sri Lankan context whether the non-work obligations, for example, family work is being separated amongst men and women in an equivalent way is questionable (Arachchige, 2013). Finding supports the postulation of Kailasapathy et al. (2014) which says that this is common in traditional countries like Sri Lanka where female holds more household and childcare responsibilities than men. This creates fewer home-based responsibilities for the male employee and allows him to focus more on work responsibilities.

In the current study childcare responsibilities were not found to be moderated by gender. Gender roles often become more differentiated when men and women become parents. Overall, women provide more direct care for and spend more time with children (Walzer, 2001) and men typically engage in more paid work. Presumably in Asian countries, working parents receive support and assistance from their extended families to raise children and it plays a major role to strike a balance between work and life. Especially women face uneven distribution of childcare and other domestic responsibilities which become major barriers in the career advancement as well as work-life balance, but when they receive support from their parents or other relatives, it eases the burden.

According to the findings of the current study colleague support also was not moderated by gender. According to the findings of Wajcman and Martin (2002), women can't survive in the corporate sector unless they adopted male norms and behaviours. Therefore irrespective of gender all the employees are compelled to work towards attainment of organizational goals and objectives. This may be due to less dependability on support provided by colleagues since every employee is in their own battle of meeting strict deadlines with challenging work tasks.

5.5. Managerial implications

This study shows that there is a positive relationship between manager support and work-life balance. For many employees the organisational culture is embodied in the attitudes and behaviours of their immediate line manager. Therefore whether an individual feels that he/she is able to discuss issues outside of work, request different ways of working and believe that the organisation genuinely enables balance, will depend considerably on the skills of the manager in creating an open communication culture of trust and respect.

Immediate manager should take the primary responsibility by ensuring above aspects and facilitate employee to strike the balance between work and life.

Organisational time expectations also have a significant impact on work-life balance. Organisations should take initiatives to make flexible working arrangements and preventing long-hour working cultures and not to emphasise on face time. When employee perceives higher time demands his/her intention of leaving the organisation is also increases (Perrons, 2003). When making work life balance initiatives, organisation should take this aspect into consideration.

5.6. Implications for individuals

This study shows that men perceive relatively higher partner support than women. Since there is an increase in dual-earner couples it is challenging for women to handle the entire domestic and children's responsibilities as well as meeting job demands. This might hinder the career progress of women and negatively influence the mental health. Therefore it is important for men to understand this scenario and share possible household responsibilities with women.

5.7. Limitations and areas for further research

The findings drawn from this research are subjected several constraints. Firstly the researcher concentrated only on five variables which affect work-life balance, future researches can expand their study by examining other variables such as leadership, organizational culture, eldercare responsibilities, etc. Researcher selected only one moderator and future researches can focus on more than one moderator such as age, level of emotional intelligence, etc.

Secondly, the data collection from the managers in the corporate sector in Sri Lanka was very difficult and the response rate was very poor. The researcher used convenient and judgmental sample (Ho & Dampsey, 2010) and therefore, the ability to generalise the findings of the study was confined only to this group. Future researchers can develop a more reliable probability sampling technique and gather data in order to ensure the statistical validation.

Thirdly, the data were derived from a single time point; as a result, the direction of significant associations could be not determined. That is, the results presented do not permit an assessment of the cause and effect relationships among variables of interest and all that can be said is that the results are consistent with the theoretical position that the study was

based (Abernethy & Brownell, 1999). Therefore, longitudinal studies are required to test out these speculations

The current study limited its scope to one sector which enables indirect control over potentially confounding industry effects (Abernethy & Brownell, 1999). Further research is required in other industries to access the generalisability of the model. The sample of the study was selected from Sri Lankan corporate sector. Generalising the results to other industries or countries should be done carefully.

Finally, the survey approach itself has limitations such as the use of self reported measures, lack of control over the respondents to the questionnaire, inability to contact the required personnel and survey method reduces the insights obtained regarding the causes and processes behind the phenomena under study (Samudrage, 2005).

5.8. Conclusion

This study was designed to identify major determinants of work-life balance among corporate sector managers in Sri Lanka. In order to conduct the study five variables were identified and they are Manager support, Colleague support, Organisational time expectations, Partner support and Childcare responsibilities. Based on the results it was found that Manager support, Partner support and Organisational time expectations are critical factors when determining work-life balance among corporate sector managers. This finding gives an important indication to both organisations as well as individuals.

Current study's findings has been shown that the immediate supervisor's response to work and family concerns is more critical for employees and immediate managers' behaviours which employees considered the most significant factor in balancing their work-life responsibilities. Therefore managers should promote and incorporate supportive working culture in organizations which also increases job satisfaction and work performance of employees. Partner support is also a critical factor which determines work-life balance. Receiving spouse or partner support has been positively related to work-life balance among corporate sector managers. Especially for dual-earner couples, negotiating work responsibilities and providing assistance is important to minimize consequences of demanding life style.

Organisational time expectations has been negatively associated with work-life balance. According to previous research findings for many organisations, time seen at work is typically understood in terms of productivity levels and the ideal worker is fully cognisant with organisational expectations of face-time and possesses no other areas of life

which might impinge on their ability to work (Rapoport et al., 2002, p.170). Organisations should pay attention to formulate flexible working policies such as flexi-hours, work from home, etc. in order to facilitate employees to strike a balance between work and family responsibilities.

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Appendices

Annexure 1 - Structured Questionnaire

Survey on Work Life Balance

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am Sanduni Gunawardena, a postgraduate student at Faculty of Graduate Studies of University of Colombo, conducting the research as per a requirement to complete the

Masters in Labour Relations and Human Resources Management. I would be very much grateful if you could extend your kind cooperation by filling this questionnaire.

This survey asks for your opinions on work and life. Your responses will help researcher to better understand lives of employees with family responsibilities. Please answer all questions openly and honestly, your answers to the questionnaire will strictly be considered as confidential and only be used for academic purposes. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact the researcher su.gunawardena@gmail.com.

1.This section provides a description of the manager/supervisor support.

Judge how frequently each statement fits your immediate manager/

supervisor and circle the relevant number.

Strongly Disagree
Disagree
Neither disagree nor
Agree
Strongly Agree

1	My manager is willing to listen to my problems in juggling work and non-work life	1	2	3	4	5
2	My manager makes me feel comfortable talking to him or her about my conflicts between work and non-work.	1	2	3	4	5
3	My manager and I can talk effectively to solve conflicts between work and non-work issues.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I can rely on my manager to make sure my work responsibilities are handled when I have unanticipated non work demands.	1	2	3	4	5
5	My manager works effectively with workers to creatively solve conflicts between work and non-work.	1	2	3	4	5
6	My manager demonstrates effective behaviors in how to juggle work and non-work balance.	1	2	3	4	5
7	My manager demonstrates how a person can jointly be successful on and off the job.	1	2	3	4	5
8	My manager thinks about how the work in my department can be organized to jointly benefit employees and the company.	1	2	3	4	5
9	My manager asks for suggestions to make it easier for employees to balance work and non-work demands.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I believe that my managers support is a significant factor in balancing work-life responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5

2. This section provides a description of the support received from co-worker/colleague. Judge how each statement fits your colleagues and circle the relevant number.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor	Agree	Strongly Agree
11	My colleagues would fill in while I am absent	1	2	3	4	5

1 2	I get support from my peers when I come across with difficulties at non-work life	1	2	3	4	5
1 3	My colleagues give useful advice on work related issues	1	2	3	4	5
1 4	My colleagues are helpful in getting my job done	1	2	3	4	5
1 5	My colleagues are really care about me	1	2	3	4	5
1 6	I feel close to my colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
1 7	I am appreciated by my colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
1 8	My colleagues are friendly to me	1	2	3	4	5

3. Listed below are statements about working in your organization. Judge how each statement fits that best reveal your degree of agreement or disagreement. Please answer by circling the relevant number.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1 9	I have to work beyond conditioned hours to keep up with my work load	1	2	3	4	5
2 0	I consider changing my job to help achieving a better work-life balance	1	2	3	4	5
2 1	My organization consider working long hours as an indicator of commitment towards work	1	2	3	4	5
2 2	I am unable to meet the requirements of my job without working long hours	1	2	3	4	5
2 3	My job takes up so much energy and I don't feel up to doing thing that need attention at home	1	2	3	4	5
2 4	I miss out lot of family together times due to work pressure	1	2	3	4	5

4.This section provides a description of the partner/spouse support. Judge how frequently each statement fits your partner/spouse and circle the relevant number.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
2 5	Support from spouse helps me to strike a balance between work and life	1	2	3	4	5
2 6	Support from spouse is of assistance to have quality time at work	1	2	3	4	5
2 7	My spouse listen to me when I have problems in work –non work life	1	2	3	4	5
2 8	I believe spousal support helps me to achieve career success	1	2	3	4	5

5.This section provides a description of managing childcare responsibilities and work. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling the number that best represent your point of view.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor	Agree	Strongly Agree
2 9	I feel that my children’s responsibilities are getting neglected due to the amount of work I have	1	2	3	4	5
3 0	Demands at work place restrict me from spending adequate time with my children	1	2	3	4	5
3 1	I find hard to attend my children’s affairs due to the demands of work place	1	2	3	4	5
3 2	I feel like my career progression hinders due to the child care responsibilities I have to meet	1	2	3	4	5

6. This section provides a description of managing work and family responsibilities. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling the number that best represent your point of view.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither disagree nor	Agree	Strongly Agree
3 3	I am able to negotiate and accomplish what is expected of me at work and in my family.	1	2	3	4	5
3 4	I do a good job of meeting the role expectations of critical people in my work and family life.	1	2	3	4	5
3 5	People who are close to me would say that I do a good job of balancing work and family.	1	2	3	4	5
3 6	I am able to accomplish the expectations that my supervisors and my family have for me	1	2	3	4	5
3 7	My co-workers and members of my family would say that I am meeting their expectations.	1	2	3	4	5
3 8	It is clear to me, based on feedback from co-workers and family members, that I am accomplishing both my work and family responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5

Information about Yourself

We are asking the following information so that we will be able to describe the overall surveysample. This information will not be used to identify specific respondents.

Please tick appropriately (√)

7) Gender

Male ----- Female -----

8) Years of working experience

1-5 ----- 6-10 ----- 11-15 ----- 16-20 ----- More than 20-----

9) Level of Management you are belong to:

Operational level ----- Middle Level ----- Top Level -----

- 10) Civil Status
 Single----- Married----- Widowed----- Divorced-----
- 11) Age category you belong to
 20-30yrs----- 31-40yrs----- 41-50yrs----- More than 50yrs-----
- 12) Do you have children?
 Yes ----- No -----
- 13) If yes, what are the age categories they belong to?
 less than 1yrs----- 1-5yrs ----- 6-10yrs -----
 11-15yrs----- 16-20yrs ----- More than 20yrs -----
- 14) Is your partner/spouse employed?
 Yes ----- No-----
- 15) Being an employed man/woman who is helping you to take care of your children?
 Spouse----- Parents----- In-laws----- Daycare Centre----- Servant
- 16) How many hours in a day do you normally work at office?
 7-8 hrs ----- 8-9 hrs----- 9-10-hrs 10-12 hrs More than-----
 12 hrs

Thank you for taking time to complete this questionnaire.

Annexure II- Average Variance Extracted of variables (PLS-Output)

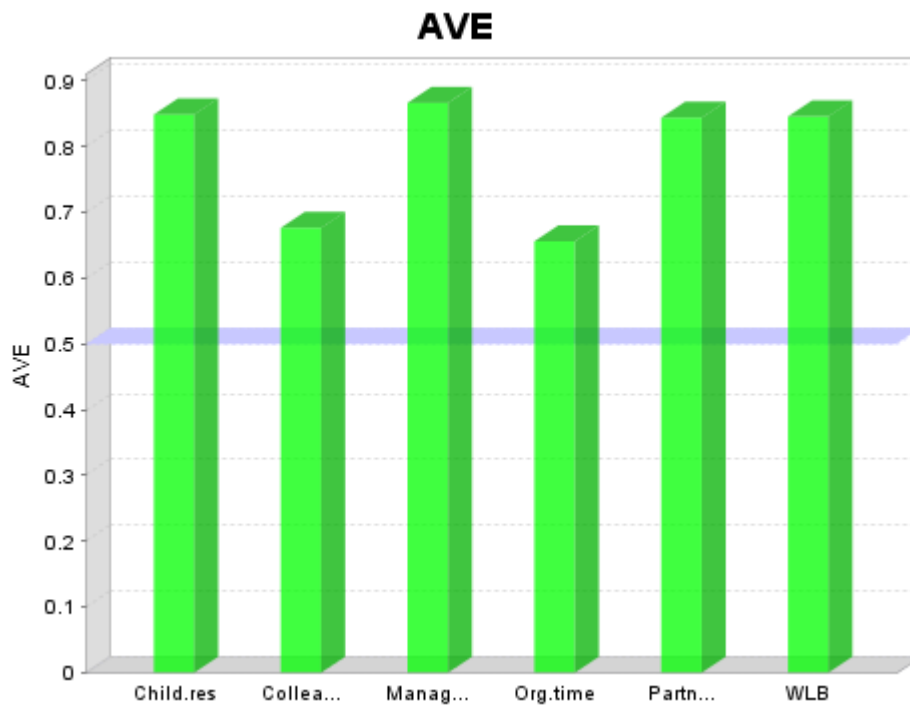


Table 13: Average variance extracted

Variable	AVE
Childcare responsibilities	0.849
Colleague Support	0.677
Manager Support	0.867
Organisational time expectations	0.656
Partner Support	0.844
Work-life balance	0.846

Source: PLS Output

Annexure III- Composite Reliability of Variables (PLS-Output)

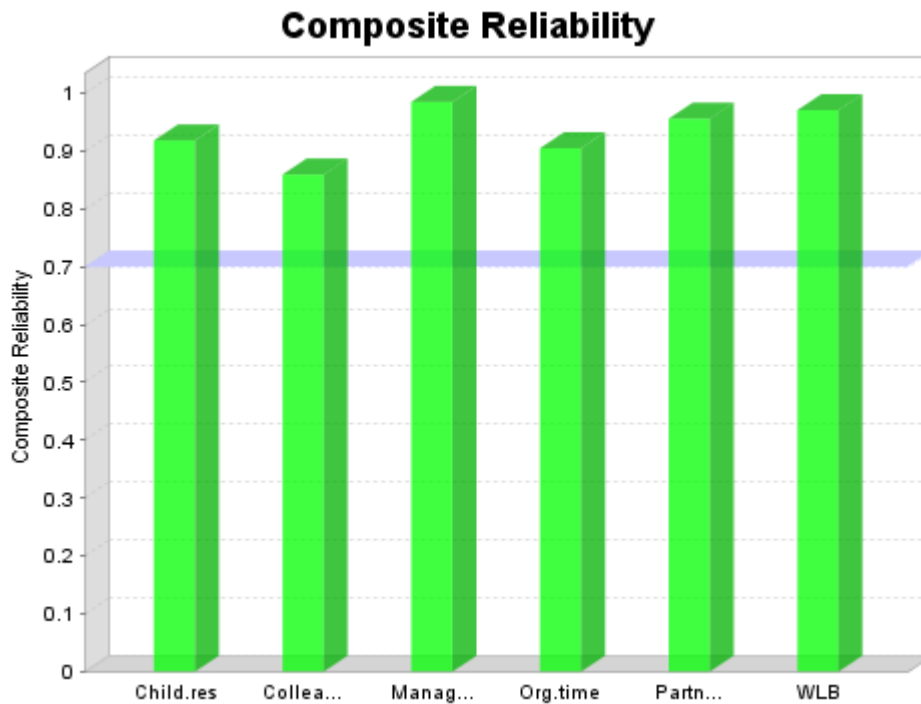


Table 14: Composite reliability of variables

Variable	CR
Childcare responsibilities	0.918
Colleague Support	0.859
Manager Support	0.985
Organisational time expectations	0.905
Partner Support	0.956
Work-life balance	0.971

Source: PLS Output

Annexure IV- Cronbach's Alpha of Variables (PLS-Output)

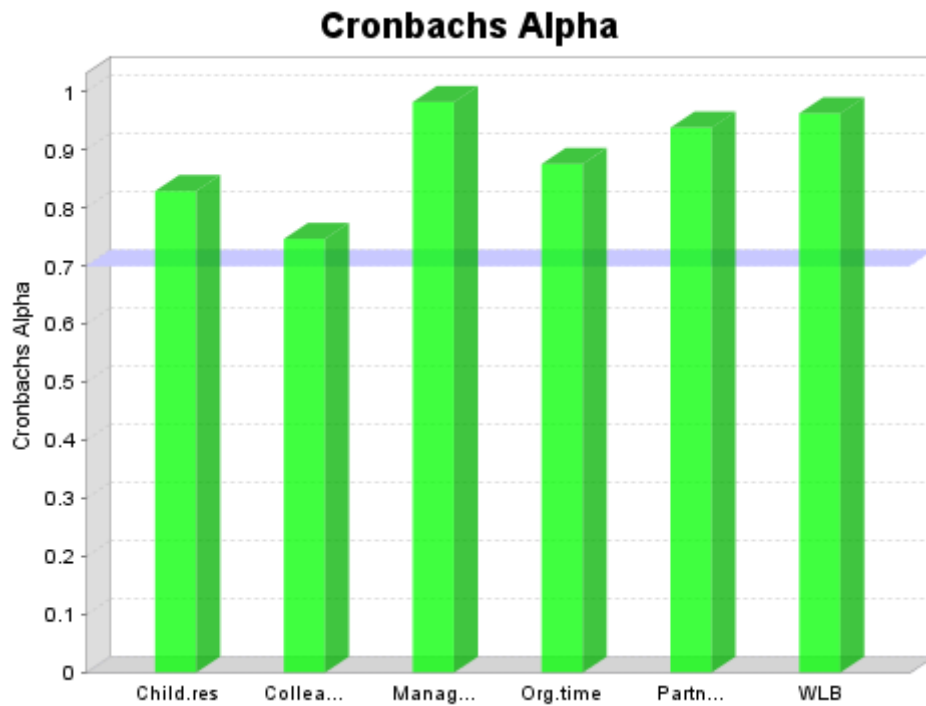
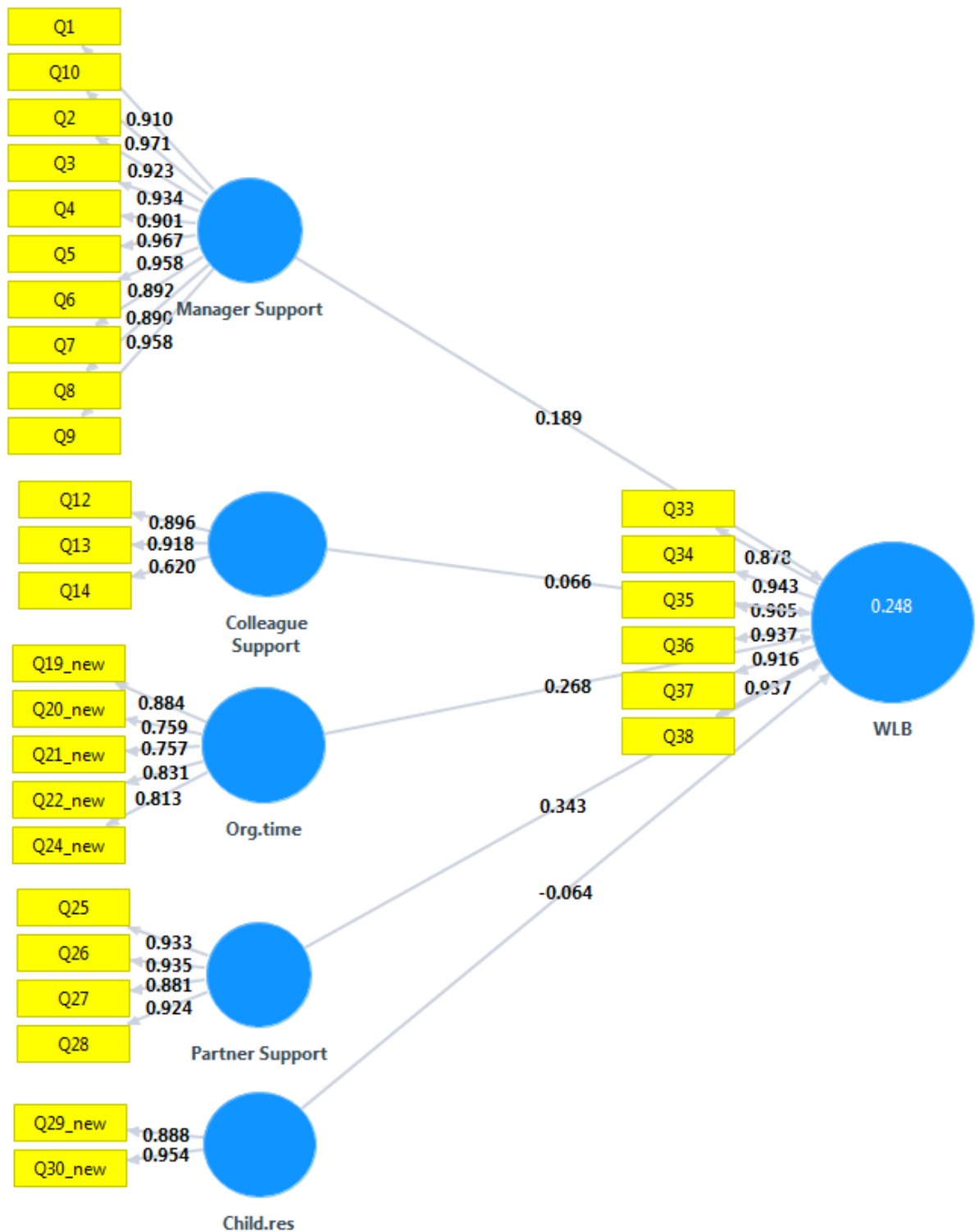


Table 15: Cronbach's Alpha Values of Variables

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha
Childcare responsibilities	0.830
Colleague Support	0.747
Manager Support	0.983
Organisational expectations time	0.876
Partner Support	0.939
Work-life balance	0.964

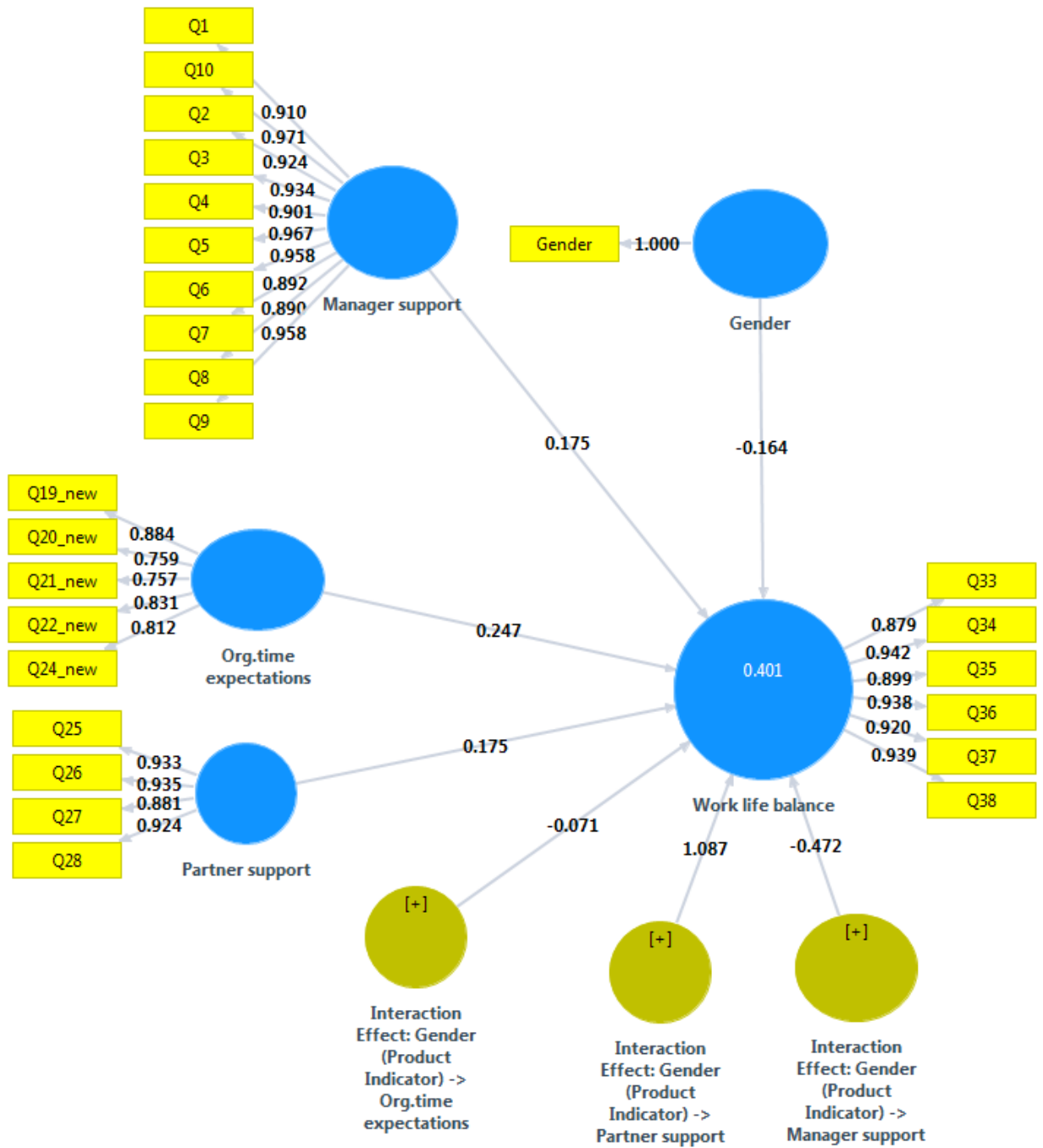
Source: PLS Output

Annexure V- Structural model with path coefficients (PLS-Output)



Source: PLS Output

Annexure VI- Structural model of moderator testing (PLS-Output)



Source: PLS Output

Annexure VII- Variables used for further analysis

Construct	Code assigned	Factor Loadings
Manager Support	Q1	0.910
Manager Support	Q2	0.923
Manager Support	Q3	0.934
Manager Support	Q4	0.901
Manager Support	Q5	0.967
Manager Support	Q6	0.958
Manager Support	Q7	0.892
Manager Support	Q8	0.890
Manager Support	Q9	0.958
Manager Support	Q10	0.971
Colleague Support	Q12	0.896
Colleague Support	Q13	0.918
Colleague Support	Q14	0.720
Org.Time Expectations	Q19	0.884
Org.Time Expectations	Q20	0.759
Org.Time Expectations	Q21	0.757
Org.Time Expectations	Q22	0.831
Org.Time Expectations	Q24	0.813
Partner support	Q25	0.933
Partner support	Q26	0.935
Partner support	Q27	0.881
Partner support	Q28	0.924
Childcare Responsibility	Q29	0.888
Childcare Responsibility	Q30	0.954
Work-Life Balance	Q33	0.878
Work-Life Balance	Q34	0.943
Work-Life Balance	Q35	0.905
Work-Life Balance	Q36	0.937
Work-Life Balance	Q37	0.916
Work-Life Balance	Q38	0.937