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**THE INTENTIONS OF WORKING FATHERS TO USE FLEXIBLE
WORKPLACE ARRANGEMENTS: AN APPLICATION OF THE THEORY OF
PLANNED BEHAVIOUR**

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award
of the Degree of Master of Social Sciences in Organisational Psychology

Faculty of Humanities

2014

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Abstract

This study utilised the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) to investigate the intentions of South African working fathers to use flexible workplace arrangements (FWAs). The study aimed to broaden the limited knowledge of the experiences of working fathers in a South African context. Usable responses to an electronic questionnaire were received from white collar male employees across a variety of industries ($N = 371$). Exploratory Factor Analyses and reliability analyses showed strong support for the use of TPB scales in future behavioural research. Hierarchical binary logistic regression analyses showed that attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control help to predict working fathers intentions to use FWAs. Attitudes was the strongest predictor and subjective norms was the weakest. It was also found that intentions do not significantly predict actual behaviour for most of the FWAs assessed, however actual behavioural control helps predict actual use of FWAs. Support was found for using perceived behavioural control as a proxy measure for actual behavioural control. Theoretical and management implications of the present findings are discussed.

Key words: Theory of Planned Behaviour, flexible workplace arrangements, attitudes, subjective norms, behavioural control, intentions, working fathers.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my supervisor, Professor Jeffrey Bagraim and co-supervisor, Ameeta Jaga for their direction and guidance throughout this research process, without which, this dissertation would not have been possible.

To the participating organisation, thank you for allowing me to conduct my research, and particularly, thank you to the employees who completed my survey.

Lastly, thank you to my family and friends for their support throughout my academic journey.

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The Intentions of Working Fathers to use Flexible Workplace Arrangements: An Application of the Theory of Planned Behaviour

The global business environment has become progressively competitive and dynamic in the past decade (Vandello, Hettingger, Bosson, & Siddiqi, 2012). Owing to the increasing expansion of globalisation and technology development, employees are expected to remain connected to the work environment constantly, thereby intensifying work-related demands (Pitt-Catsoupes, & Brown, 2011). Moreover, family-related demands have also increased owing to the prominent changes in labour force demographics and family arrangements (Prentice & Carranza, 2002).

In line with the increasing numbers of women entering the global workforce, traditional family roles are becoming increasingly balanced for mothers and fathers, leading to a more liberal view of roles in this domain. Fathers are taking on increasing responsibility at home, while mothers are increasing their involvement in work-related roles (Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004; Vandello, Bosson, & Cohen, 2008). A similar trend is evident in the South African context with increasing dual earner families becoming apparent in the national workforce (Smit, 2002). Previously, South Africa was a country shaped by an androcentric framework, whereby men were viewed as the primary breadwinners while women were solely responsible for family duties (Uchendu, 2008). Recently however, these ideals have begun to change. Working fathers are thus taking on increasing family related tasks, which in the past had been the sole responsibility of women. These emerging changes in responsibilities have become an area of increasing interest for researchers (Morrel, 2006).

An apparent change in values is also occurring, whereby working fathers have a stronger desire for a more prominent involvement in family life (Vandello et al., 2008). Men are increasingly being labelled as 'working fathers,' thereby depicting the more equal importance that their work and home domains are beginning to play (Bianchi, Milkie, Sayer, & Robinson, 2008). In line with global changes, increasing attention has been paid to the needs of working fathers in South Africa, particularly in relation to paternity leave (Jackman, 2014). Recently, a White Paper published by the Department of Social Development called for paternity leave to be included in the

Basic Conditions of Employment Act (Jackman, 2014). The debate around the family responsibilities of working fathers is thus becoming an area of increasing interest.

Globally, organisations are responding to changing work and family trends by developing and implementing arrangements that take into account the family responsibilities of their employees (Vandello et al., 2012). A popular form of such arrangements involves flexibility. Flexible workplace arrangements (FWAs) provide flexibility with regard to the location and timing of an individual's work responsibilities. Veiga, Baldrige, and Eddleston (2004) categorised flexible arrangements as being a type of workplace policy in their framework of policies, benefits and services. According to Veiga et al. (2004), workplace policies refer broadly to formal or informal flexibility initiatives, generally concerning work hours. The two primary categories of FWAs are flextime and flexplace. Flextime provides employees with the opportunity to work the required number of hours, however they are able to personally select the way in which this time is allocated. Flexplace gives employees the flexibility to decide the location at which their work is done (Hill, 2001). These arrangements are especially important for working fathers, as although gender roles have become more balanced, men are still often viewed as the primary breadwinner (Prentice, & Carranza, 2002). In order to thus meet their responsibilities in the work domain, while adapting to changing values relating to the family, working fathers should make use of flexibility initiatives (Vandello et al., 2008).

Whilst prominent research findings relating to the positive impact of flexibility arrangements on work-family balance are apparent, these arrangements remain largely underutilised, particularly by males (Hill, Hawkins, Martinson, & Ferris, 2003; Kossek, Lautsch, & Eaton, 2006; Veiga et al., 2004). In order to ensure the use of FWAs, it is important to assess possible reasons for their current underutilisation (Rudman & Mescher, 2013). Previous researchers investigating the use of FWAs have considered groups that are likely to benefit from their implementation (Rudman & Mescher, 2012), as well as the advantages to organisations that may ensue from such arrangements, such as increased organisational commitment and job performance (Bagraim & Sader, 2007). Few studies have however assessed the

factors that underlie the reluctance of male employees to use FWAs (Veiga et al., 2004).

Research Aims and Objectives

Given the limited understanding around the reluctance of working fathers to use FWAs, this study will apply the TPB to assess the factors that predict the intentions of working fathers to use FWAs. This should allow for the development of more effective methods of implementing flexible arrangements and policies, allowing organisations to meet the needs of their male employees. In so doing, organisations are likely to attract and retain a more committed male workforce (Bagraim & Sader, 2007).

Research Question

Based on the above research context, the research question under consideration is:

What are the factors that predict the intention to use FWAs in working fathers?

Structure of the Dissertation

The first section of this dissertation introduces to the topic under investigation, the goals of the research and the rationale for its undertaking. Section two provides background on the literature relating to this topic including a description of the theory of planned behaviour, as well as an explanation of the variables under consideration, based on this underlying theory. This section will also present the propositions to be tested in this study. Section three describes the method undertaken to investigate the topic of interest and provides information to enable replication of the study. The results of the study are presented in section four, providing statistical depictions of the findings. Section five provides a discussion of the main findings, in relation to the demographic sample as well as in the context of South Africa. Implications of the findings are discussed and limitations of the study acknowledged. Additionally, recommendations for future research are provided. This section will then conclude the dissertation.

Literature Review

This section provides a detailed review of the literature relevant to this study. The section is organised into three main sub-sections. Firstly, a description of the strategy used to identify relevant literature is described. Secondly, the underlying theory used in this study is explained. Finally, the variables relevant to this research are presented, along with the propositions that will be tested.

Literature Search Procedure

An electronic based search was conducted, using the databases PsycINFO, Google Scholar, Academic Search Premier, Humanities International Complete and Business Source Premier. The primary literature search took place from February 2014 to July 2014. Follow up searches were conducted from July 2014 to December 2014. This search was limited to academic peer-reviewed articles published between 2000 and 2014. Owing to the relative inconsistency in the use of certain terms to refer to FWAs (Veiga et al., 2004), and the interchangeable use of terms such as family friendly practices, flexibility arrangements and family supportive policies, numerous variations of search terms were used in order to find relevant literature. Furthermore, while there has been an abundance of literature specifically assessing working mothers and flexible work arrangements in the past, few studies have specifically addressed the experiences of working fathers. A Boolean search using the phrases, *flexible/family friendly working arrangements and mothers* and *flexible/family friendly working arrangements and fathers* was conducted on the PsycINFO database and showed that there have been significantly more studies conducted based on the experiences of working mothers than working fathers, however this trend seems to be changing (see Figure one). It is apparent that in the first two decades assessed, more studies were conducted that specifically sampled mothers. Four years into the present decade however, equal numbers of studies are apparent that have sampled mothers and fathers respectively. Such findings provide support for the argument that a change in research focus is occurring, based on the home life of working fathers becoming increasingly important. Research is thus beginning to focus on working fathers in order to understand the experiences of this demographic group. Following this search, a more refined Boolean search was

under-taken, making use of a number of combinations of the following keywords: *fathers, family friendly human resource practices, flexibility, flexible work practices, flexible work arrangements, flextime, flexplace, policies, work-family, paternal leave, family leave, job sharing, telecommuting, use, flexible scheduling, compressed work weeks, males, working from home.*

Cross-disciplinary studies using planned behaviour approaches were then identified to provide an understanding of this approach to the study of behaviour and to enable application of the TPB to the present study. Of the search conducted on the PsycINFO database, three studies were found that used a planned behaviour approach to specifically assess work related behaviours (Conner & Armitage, 1998; Griefes, 2013; Grootenboer, 1990). Further studies were identified from disciplines such as health sciences to aid in the conceptualisation of the planned behaviour approach. Additionally, work-family handbooks, encyclopaedias and dictionaries were consulted to develop a list of concise definitions for the constructs of interest.

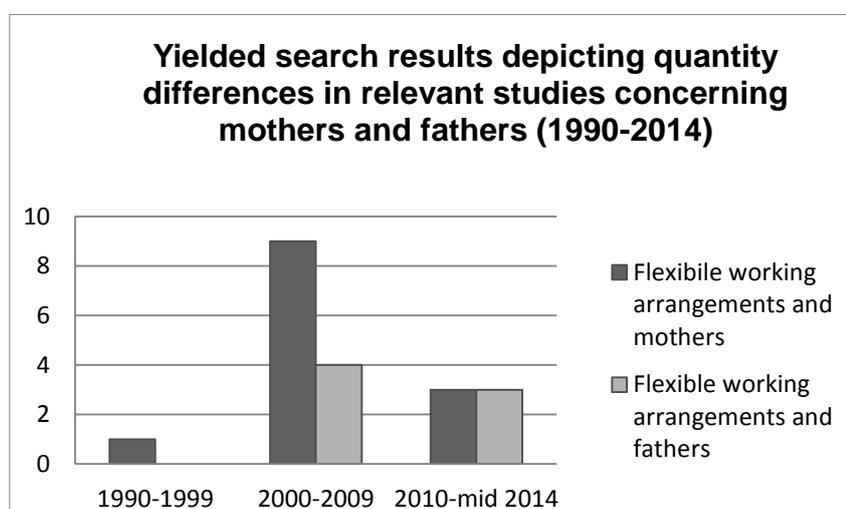


Figure 1. Bar graph depicting the results yielded from a peer reviewed academic journal search on the PsycINFO database.

Applying Behaviour Change Theories in the World of Work

Behavioural change theories have been utilised as tools to aid in the understanding and explanation of constructs that have an influence over human

behaviour (McKenzie, Neiger, & Smeltzer, 2005). Ajzen and Klobas (2013) advocate the use of behaviour change theories in work behaviour studies, as a theoretically grounded approach often proves more effective than those that are atheoretical. Past studies have used behavioural change theories as the framework for work-related behavioural research. Examples of such studies include the study of entrepreneurial intentions (Grieves, 2013), marketing and organisational behaviours (Gronroos, 1990) and goal directed organisational behaviours (Conner & Armitage, 1998).

Several behaviour change theories may be used to explain behaviour and behaviour change. These include the transtheoretical model (Prochaska, 1984), social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1989), the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977) and the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). When assessing possible factors that may relate to the intention to use FWAs, Veiga et al. (2004) argued that these factors may fall into the categories set out by the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; 2005; 2012). In line with this theoretical approach, factors relating to the intention to use FWAs may be identified.

Theory of planned behaviour.

Prior to the development of the theory of planned behaviour, Fishbein and Ajzen (1977) established the theory of reasoned action (TRA). The argument of the TRA is that an individual's attitudes and subjective norms predict their intention to engage, as well as their actual engagement in a particular behaviour (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1977). Thus, Fishbein and Ajzen (1977) argued that behavioural intention is the primary predictor of behaviour. The key variables that make up the TRA are attitudes, subjective norms, and behavioural intention (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1977). A limitation of the TRA is the lack of consideration given to behaviours over which individuals may not have complete volitional control. In order to overcome this limitation, Ajzen (1991) established the theory of planned behaviour, to which it was added that perceived behavioural control is a third predictor of behavioural intention and in turn, behaviour.

The theory of planned behaviour maintains that an effective method of determining if an individual will engage in a particular behaviour is to assess their information processing preceding the behaviour. One would thus assess the factors that may predict the strength of their intention to engage in that particular behaviour (Ajzen, 2012). In general, an individual's intention to engage in a behaviour will be stronger if it is likely to elicit a favourable attitude from the individual. Secondly, the individual's surrounding environment must be conducive to their engagement in the behaviour. Finally, the individual must be confident in their ability to engage in the behaviour. Therefore, Ajzen (1991; 2005; 2012) assessed three factors that are seen to predict one's intention to engage in behaviour, namely attitudes, subjective norms and behavioural control.

The TPB has been criticised for limiting its focus to rational decision making factors, when often human decision-making processes may be irrational (Ajzen & Klobas, 2013). The assumption that all individuals engaging in certain behaviours are rational actors may exclude background factors that may have an influence on the decision making process. In order to account for this, Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) developed an updated version of the theory, converging the TRA and TPB. The authors deemed this the Reasoned Action Approach (RAA) which developed from more than 45 years' worth of research conducted by each author as well as other research which added background variables such as self-efficacy and age to the TPB models. These factors are usually specific to the characteristics of the sample being studied. Examples of background variables used in previous research are personality (Chatzisarantis & Hagger, 2008), self-efficacy (Araújo-Soares, McIntyre, & Sniehotta, 2009) and extended variables such as anticipated regret (Sandberg & Conner, 2008) and perceived need (Fen & Sabaruddin, 2009). Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) thus drew on such studies in developing the RAA which takes into account similar background factors in its assessment of decision making processes. The RAA therefore encompasses all constructs included in the TPB, however adds background factors to the model which relate to the sample and study characteristics (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). While this study will utilise the TPB as its theoretical underpinning and thus primarily assess the constructs outlined in the TPB, three background factors will be assessed, drawing on previous research relating to FWA

utilisation. The sub-section that follows will briefly describe the components of the TPB, which will be more thoroughly described in the section outlining the variables of the study.

TPB constructs.

Attitudes. Ajzen and Fishbein (2000) describe an attitude as “a person’s degree of favourableness or unfavourableness with respect to a psychological object” (p. 2). Attitudes are developed through behavioural beliefs. Behavioural beliefs refer to the positive or negative consequences perceived to be associated with behaviour. Behavioural beliefs thus lead to the formation of individual attitudes regarding performance in behaviour (Ajzen, 2012).

Subjective norms. Subjective norms are described by Ajzen (2013) as one’s perceived social pressure to engage or not engage in a behaviour. Perceived expectations and behaviours relating to important referent groups are assessed and associated with the individual’s motivation to comply with the norms set out by such groups.

Perceived behavioural control. Perceived behavioural control is seen as an individual’s perception of their ability to engage in a particular behaviour. Ajzen (1991) argued that perceived behavioural control is developed through one’s combined accessible control belief strength and control belief power, which indicate the presence of factors that may facilitate or interfere with one’s engagement in the behaviour (Ajzen, 2005; 2012).

Actual behavioural control. While an individual may possess the intention to use a FWA, there may be factors beyond their control that hinder their actual engagement. Therefore, actual behavioural control is the extent to which the individual is actually able to participate in behaviour.

On the following page, figure two provides a diagrammatic depiction of the theory of planned behaviour, as outlined by Ajzen (1991).

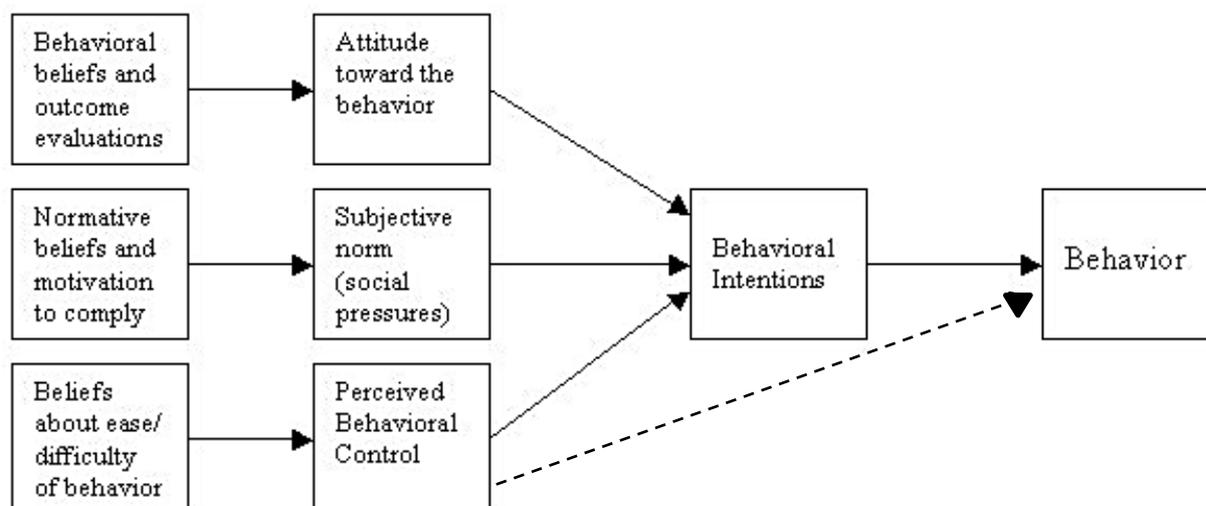


Figure 2: Diagram depicting the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).

Support for using the TPB in behavioural research.

The TPB is a widely used and accepted approach to behavioural research, as depicted in the growing numbers of studies citing the theory. Ajzen (2011) explained that the theory was cited 22 times in 1985. At the beginning of 2010, this had grown to 4550 citations. Owing to the cross-disciplinary use of the TPB, researchers have conducted meta-analyses in order to determine the validity of the constructs underlying the theory. One such meta-analysis was conducted by Sutton (1998). Sutton gathered data from a number of other meta-analyses in order to explain the predictive power of the TPB constructs in relation to intention and behaviour. Additionally, Sutton (1998) distinguished between two outcomes related to the TPB. Firstly, the TPB constructs may lead to an explanation of behaviour. Explanatory models may be constructed, which are seen as causal in nature. Secondly, Sutton (1998) explained that even if the exact factors behind behaviour are not confirmed, a prediction may still be made. Sutton concluded that the antecedents included in the TPB explained between 40% and 50% of the variance in intention to engage and from 19% to 38% of the variance in actual engagement.

Armitage and Conner's (2001) meta-analysis also assessed the usefulness of the TPB by evaluating 161 book chapters and journal articles that had previously used the theory (Armitage & Conner, 2001). The authors concluded that perceived behavioural control and behavioural intention made up 27% of the variance in the prediction of behaviours across a variety of research areas. While support was also found for attitudes and subjective norms as predictors of behaviours, subjective norms were seen as the weakest predictors. A possible explanation for this is the use of single items per referent group making up a composite subjective norm scale. While such scales have been widely used, they have tended to yield low reliability scores. To remedy this, Armitage and Conner (2001) suggested using two or more items per referent scale.

The TPB was used to assess the constructs in this study for two main reasons. Firstly, the categories outlined in the theory of planned behaviour align favourably with the potential factors relating to the intention to use flexibility arrangements, as delineated by Veiga et al. (2004). Secondly, behaviours that are not always strictly under the individual's control such as the use of flexibility arrangements are more adequately assessed by the TPB than other behaviour theories such as the TRA (Ajzen, 2005). Therefore, the TPB was used to detect factors that may predict the intention to use FWAs in working fathers.

In the context of this study, individual attitudes relating to FWAs, subjective norms of referent groups in the work and home domains and perceived behavioural control are likely to influence the intention of a working father to participate in a FWA (Veiga et al., 2004). This intention is then likely to lead to participation. The TPB is therefore useful in determining potential factors that predict the intention to use FWAs in working fathers.

Conceptual Framework

The following diagram provides a graphic depiction of the proposed relationships in this study, based on the TPB.

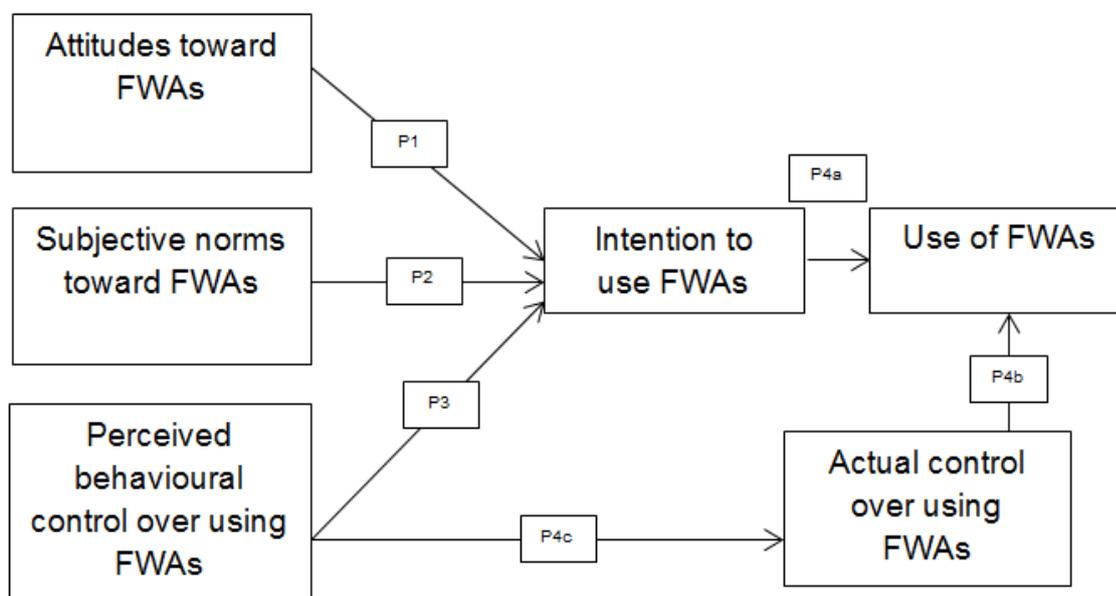


Figure 3: Conceptual framework relating to the relationships for this study.
Notes. P = proposition.

Flexible workplace arrangements (FWAs)

According to Grobler and De Bruyn (2012), FWAs refer to those practices that “enable both the employee and manager to customise work schedules, arrangements and duties to accommodate family responsibilities and other personal circumstances” (p. 64). FWAs are thus a flexibility resource and may be regarded as formal and informal policies that manage an employee’s schedule in terms of their work time and place. In so doing, FWAs may afford employees resources that are accommodating in handling the demands associated with dual roles (Veiga et al., 2004). There are numerous forms of FWAs that may be made available to employees. These may include compressed work-weeks, job-sharing, informal flextime, informal flexplace, flexible leave schedules and telecommuting (Bagraim & Sader, 2007; Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Veiga et al., 2004). Such arrangements allow for flexibility by managing the location and timing of an employee’s work (Bagraim & Sader, 2007; Schein & Chen, 2011).

It is beneficial for employers to provide flexibility to their employees as this has been found to be related to a number of constructive outcomes. These include increased employee commitment, productivity, motivation and retention (Bagraim & Sader, 2007; Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011; Schein & Chen, 2011). In support of these outcomes, British labour legislation provides employees with children under the age of six with the right to request flexible arrangements (O'Brien, 2005). Further, Allen and Russell (1999) argued that employed fathers' had more of a positive influence over their children's upbringings, when they were more involved in family-related tasks.

Schein and Chen (2011) determined that workplace flexibility was associated with enhanced performance in both the work and family domains. Conversely; Wayne et al. (2003) did not find a significant relationship between family-friendly benefit usage and positive work-related outcomes. Wayne et al. suggested that this finding may have arisen as a score that was based on total family-friendly benefit utilisation was used, making up numerous forms of benefits. To ensure future research did not suffer from a similar limitation, it was recommended that researchers focus on specific family-friendly work arrangements separately (Wayne et al., 2003). Owing to this recommendation, this dissertation examines two specific FWAs, namely flextime and flexplace.

Flextime. Flextime enables employees to work their contractual number of hours, however personally select the way in which they wish to use this time (O'Brien, 2005). Employees may be obliged to be at their place of work during core hours, however allocate the rest of their hours as they see fit (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011). Core hours are generally seen to be between 9.30 a.m. and 3 p.m. (Odendaal & Roodt, 2009). Flextime has been consistently rated as one of the most desirable benefits that may be offered by employers and is also one of the most utilised FWAs (Grobler & De Bruyn; Hill et al., 2001; O'Brien, 2005; Rodgers, 1992). Flextime has also been correlated with improved dual-role balance, organisational commitment, workplace productivity, and decreased absenteeism (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011; Odendaal & Roodt, 2009).

This study will assess four flextime arrangements namely, job sharing, flexible work hours, compressed work weeks and informal flextime. Each arrangement is discussed below.

Job sharing. Job sharing is a flextime arrangement that permits employees to be employed on a reduced time basis, in order to allow for increased time to attend to other responsibilities (O'Brien & Hayden, 2008). Job sharing involves two or more employees being retained on reduced time, to complete a job that would usually be undertaken by one employee (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011). Grobler and De Bruyn (2011) found that 4% of companies offered job sharing as a flexibility policy in a study of 105 JSE listed companies.

Flexible work hours. Flexible work hours allow employees to personally select the times they begin and end work on a daily basis (O'Brien & Hayden, 2008). While employees may be required to be at work during 'core hours' they may select the way in which their other work hours are allocated (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011). Flexible work hours is seen as one of the most popular forms of flextime, and was found to be offered by 90% of a sample of 105 JSE listed companies (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011).

Compressed work weeks. Compressed work weeks refer to a flexibility approach whereby an employee works their full contractual hours; however does so in fewer than five working days. Thus an employee may work up to 12 hours a day, without being compensated for overtime, in order to fulfil their hours in fewer days (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011). While compressed work weeks are less popular than flexible scheduling, they are still implemented in a South African context whereby 41% of a sample of 105 JSE listed companies offered this practice (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011).

Informal flextime. While many companies offer flexibility arrangements through formal human resource policies, many may offer these arrangements informally, where the decision to allow flexibility rests with one's supervisor (Hill et al., 2001). Thus, although a company may not formally offer flexibility relating to working hours, the personal needs of their employees are still taken into account through informal flexibility allowance.

Flexplace. Flexplace offers employees flexibility in terms of the location of their work. This flexibility option may be defined as “giving employees varying degrees of control over where their work is done” (Hill et al., 2001, p. 51). Flexplace is made up of a number of options which may include telecommuting and working from home (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011; Hill et al., 2001). Typically, organisations have been more likely to offer flextime than flexplace in order to maintain a level of control over productivity (Hill et al., 2001).

Although flexplace has not been as well utilised as flextime in the past, utilisation and availability are increasing owing to the reduced cost of telecommuting technology and the rising cost of office space (Hill et al., 2001). Additionally, it is in an employer’s interests to provide flexplace as a FWA owing to its associated facilitation of work-family balance and associated decreases in work-family conflict (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011; Hill et al., 2001; Hill, Ferris, & Mårtinson, 2003; McNall et al., 2009). Three flexplace arrangements will be assessed in this study namely telecommuting, working from home and informal flexplace. Each arrangement is presented below.

Telecommuting. Telecommuting is a flexplace initiative that allows an employee to work from an assortment of locations, other than their office space or home (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011). While employees are not physically present in the work environment, they remain available through the use of communication technology such as cellular phones and electronic mail (O’ Brien & Hayden, 2008). It was found that 41% of a sample of 105 JSE listed companies offered this arrangement (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011).

Working from home. Working from home is similar in nature to telecommuting, however involves employees predominantly working from their home, rather than any other location. This arrangement is offered slightly more frequently than telecommuting, with 45% of a sample of 105 JSE listed companies offering the practice (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011).

Informal flexplace. Similarl to informal flextime, while an organisation may not offer flexplace formally, they may make allowances for this arrangement informally

(Hill et al., 2003). Thus, employees may be allowed to work from home, or multiple locations, in order to attend to conflicting demands (Hill et al., 2001).

Paternity leave as a flexibility arrangement. In the South African context, it is important to note that legislation provides little support for working fathers in terms of flexibility. While legislatively, mothers are entitled to four months paid maternity leave, the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (1997) does not insist on paid paternity leave. Fathers are entitled to three annual days of family responsibility leave, however no paternity leave is legislatively required. Therefore, organisations are not obliged to provide male employees with such leave provisions. It has been suggested that this lack of consideration in the legislation is due to South Africa's preoccupation with other labour issues such as unemployment and employment equity (Sanichar, 2004). Thus, as paternity leave is currently not a legislative requirement, it may be seen as a flexibility policy when it is offered by an organisation. Similarly, Veiga et al. (2004) described paternity leave as a flexibility policy that aims to address conflicts between work and family responsibilities. Accordingly, paid and unpaid paternity leave will be assessed in this study.

Table 1

Framework of FWAs used in this study

Flexitime	Flexplace	Paternity leave
Job sharing	Telecommuting	Paid
Flexible scheduling	Working from home	Unpaid
Compressed work weeks	Informal flexplace	
Informal flexitime		

Behaviours relating to FWAs

Intention to use FWAs. Behavioural intention refers to an individual's readiness to engage in a particular behaviour (Ajzen, 2013). Ajzen (2012) argued that this intention is seen as the main predictor of actual behavioural engagement. Behavioural intention is primarily predicted by one's attitudes toward the behaviour, the subjective norms regarding the behaviour, as well as the perceived behavioural

control that they have over engaging in the behaviour (Ajzen 1991; 2005; 2012). Each predictor's relative importance is weighted according to the context of the behaviour and the population under investigation (Ajzen, 2005). In relation to this study, if a working father develops an intention to participate in a FWA, it is likely that he will participate.

Use of FWAs. An actual behaviour refers to an individual's observable response to their behavioural intention (Ajzen, 1991). Therefore, a behaviour may be seen as the result of intention and actual behavioural control. In the context of this study, the behaviour would involve the actual use of FWAs by working fathers. Despite the positive outcomes of this behaviour for employees, the use of FWAs remains generally limited (Haar & Spell, 2004; Hill et al., 2003; Kossek et al., 2006; Veiga et al., 2004). Employees are likely to assess their individual attitude toward participating, the subjective norms of those around them, as well as the extent to which they feel they have control over their participation, before developing an intention to participate (Ajzen, 1991; 2005; 2012). Once this intention is developed, it is likely that participation will take place.

According to the TPB, behaviour may be predicted from intention if two main conditions are met. Firstly, behavioural intention and actual behaviour must be measured with the same degree of specificity regarding the target, action, context and time frame (TACT) related to the behaviour of interest (Ajzen, 1991). Secondly, the individual must be given little opportunity to change their intention and therefore ideally, intention and behaviour should be measured at the same time, or within limited time intervals (Ajzen, 1991).

Factors relating to the Intention to use FWAs

1. Attitudes. Behavioural beliefs are seen to form the basis of an attitude toward a behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Each behavioural belief is seen to link using a FWA with a particular outcome. The strength of the beliefs and the anticipated outcomes combine and develop an overall positive or negative attitude toward using a FWA. Literature relating to the TPB maintains that an individual's attitude is an important antecedent of their intention to engage in a behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Nadler, 1983). Thus, it is important to assess such individual assessments when

attempting to understand one's intention to use FWAs. Veiga et al. (2004) described three main areas that may be related to one's attitude in the context of FWA research. Firstly, it was argued that the extent to which the individual views the arrangement as useful is likely to encourage their participation. Therefore, the more the employee perceives that the programme will assist them, the more likely they are to use it (Cleavenger, Gardner, & Mhatre, 2007). Consequently, Veiga et al. (2004) proposed that in an ideal context, the more an employee views a programme as useful, the more they are likely to use it.

Secondly, Veiga et al. (2004) assessed attitudes as the extent to which the individual feels that their use of a flexibility arrangement will negatively affect their image. As often measured through subjective norms, participating in a FWA may lead to an implicit judgement by one's co-workers and superiors, therefore bringing about a negative consequence for one's career (Anderson & Williams, 1996). Furthermore, employees who use FWAs may be seen to be less involved in the organisation and therefore may be regarded as less of an organisational citizen (Veiga et al., 2004). In line with the literature on traditional gender roles, Ferber and O'Farrell (1991) found that although men and women had both used FWAs, men were more likely to lead their organisations to believe that the reason for their participation in the FWA was not family related, thus maintaining their image of an ideal organisational citizen. Therefore, Veiga et al. (2004) summarises that the attitude that participation in a FWA would be damaging to one's organisational image may make them less likely to participate.

Veiga et al. (2004) also argued that the perception that the use of FWAs is fair may influence the use of these arrangements. If an employee feels that the way in which FWAs are implemented and applied is unfair, they will be less likely to use these arrangements (Greenberg, Ruback, & Westcott, 1983). Gilliland (1993) argues that fairness is assessed subjectively based on varying rules. Furthermore, employees may use the 'needs rule' as a guiding principle, whereby they feel that resources should be allocated solely by need (Gilliland, 1993). Owing to the fact that flexible resources are aimed at those employees with increased family responsibilities, it may be perceived that such resources should only be applied to those with such responsibilities (Veiga et al., 2004). Therefore, in line with traditional gender roles, as women are seen as the caretakers regarding the home, it may be

perceived as unfair for working fathers to apply for FWAs. When assessing this from a TPB perspective, the attitude that women should be the sole benefiter of FWAs given that they are the caretakers, may negatively predict working father's behavioural intention to participate in a FWA (Gilliland, 1993).

Numerous considerations may aid in the development of attitudes toward using FWAs in working fathers. These attitudes are in turn likely to predict a father's intention to use FWAs.

Proposition 1: Attitudes toward the use of FWAs explain a significant amount of variance in the intention to use FWAs amongst working fathers.

2. Subjective norms. According to the TPB, subjective norms are determined by any readily available normative beliefs in relation to important referent individuals or groups (Ajzen, 2005). The strength of the normative belief as well as one's motivation to comply with these norms are grouped to develop subjective norms. Therefore, individuals do not only engage in a behaviour based on their own attitudes, they also take into account the norms of those around them and namely what others think they should do (Ajzen, 1991). The theory explains that these assessments serve as predictors of behavioural intention (refer to figure 2) and thus, may influence the likelihood of participation in a behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Literature has provided support for the argument that the views of one's supervisor (Allen, 2001), top management (Thomas & Ganster, 1995) and co-workers (Rudman & Mescher, 2013), are important determinants of decision making (Lobel & Kossek, 1996; Powell, 1997). Furthermore, in the family domain, the views of one's spouse (Tracy & Rivera, 2010) and friends (Felmlee & Muraco, 2010) may influence one's decision to engage in a particular behaviour.

2.1. Supervisor. Research conducted in the area of FWAs maintains that the implementation of such arrangements alone does not ensure their utilisation (Allen, 2001; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). When these arrangements are combined with support from one's supervisor, they are more likely to be utilised (Allen, 2001). Researchers support the argument that the views of one's supervisor

are important determinants of decision making (Lobel & Kossek, 1996; Powell, 1997).

2.2. Top management. In addition to the views of supervisors, employees are likely to assess the norms of top management before engaging in behaviours, in order to avoid negative consequences to their careers (Anderson & Williams, 1996). The norms of top management are often related to an organisation's culture, which may indicate to employees whether or not their participation in a FWA is advocated by top management (Allen, 2001; Thompson et al., 1999; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Should top management view participation in FWAs as unfavourable, working fathers may be less likely to use them.

2.3. Co-workers. An employee is also likely to assess the opinions of their co-workers before participating in a FWA (Veiga et al., 2004). If one's co-workers do not advocate the use of FWAs, working fathers may anticipate negative stigma, and thus decide not to utilise flexibility arrangements (Rudman & Mescher, 2013).

2.4. Spouse. While female participation in the modern workforce continues to increase, there are some middle class families that maintain the traditional arrangement of having the mother stay at home (Tracy & Rivera, 2010). A stay at home spouse may be less likely to advocate the use of FWAs if the father is the primary breadwinner, in order to avoid possible loss of income (Rudman & Mescher, 2013). Conversely, should one's spouse also have work-related responsibilities, they may be in favour of a working father using FWAs in order to assist them with family-related responsibilities (Tracy & Rivera, 2010).

2.5. Friends. Social norms influence individual behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; 2012; Nadler, 1991; Rudman & Mescher, 2013; Veiga, 2004). These social norms specify which behaviours are appropriate within a particular cultural framework (Felmlee & Muraco, 2010). One may therefore seek the opinions of those in the social domain in relation to their decision to engage in behaviours (Ajzen, 1991; 2005). Their immediate social environment often shapes an individual's perceptions of social

norms and those with whom they wish to spend their time and thus, they are likely to conform to norms that are stipulated in these domains (Felmlee & Muraco, 2010).

Proposition 2: Perceptions of subjective norms explain a significant amount of variance in the intention to use FWAs amongst working fathers.

3. Behavioural control. Behavioural control may be seen as the understanding that an individual is able to have an influence over their immediate environment in order to make that environment less threatening and increasingly rewarding (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). This construct may be categorised as perceived behavioural control and actual behavioural control (Ajzen, 2012).

3.1 Perceived behavioural control. The TPB maintains that a predictor of behavioural intention is the perceived control one has over the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Perceived behavioural control is made up of control beliefs. Control beliefs relate to possible resources and barriers that may facilitate or hinder the process of engaging in a behaviour (Ajzen, 2012). These beliefs are then combined to form an overall perception of behavioural control, which in turn, is an important predictor of behavioural intention. In relation to this study, if the father perceives that they have little control over participating in the FWA, he may be less likely to use it.

Proposition 3: Perceived behavioural control explains a significant amount of variance in the intention to use FWAs amongst working fathers.

3.2. Actual Behavioural Control. Actual behavioural control is the extent to which the individual possesses the necessary skills, resources and further requirements that may be needed in order to engage in a particular behaviour (Ajzen, 2012). The TPB maintains that a strong behavioural intention is insufficient in predicting behaviour. Successful behaviour is also dependent on an adequate level of behavioural control, allowing an individual to actually engage in the desired behaviour (Ajzen, 2012). In certain cases, while an individual may possess the intention to engage, there may be factors beyond their control that hinder their actual engagement. In the context of this research, working fathers may wish to use a

FWA, but may be unable to due to forces beyond their control. This may relate to the nature of their job or industry (Shockley & Allen, 2007). For example, an employee in the emergency services may wish to use a flexibility arrangement, however due to the criticality of their presence at work, this may not be possible. Therefore, as the TPB maintains, behavioural intention may predict behaviour, however the amount of actual behavioural control an individual has may affect this relationship.

Ajzen and Klobas (2013) argued that perceived behavioural control may act as a proxy for actual behavioural control. In TPB research, it is often difficult to measure the actual control one may have over a specific behaviour and thus, Ajzen (2012) argued that should perceived behavioural control be a significant predictor of intention, it is likely to predict actual behavioural control and in turn may be used as a proxy measurement.

Proposition 4a: Intention to use FWAs explains a significant amount of variance in actual use of FWAs amongst working fathers.

Proposition 4b: Actual behavioural control explains a significant amount of variance in the actual use of FWAs amongst working fathers.

Proposition 4c: Perceived behavioural control may be used as a proxy measure for actual behavioural control.

The role of background factors. Certain contextual factors may already be modelled within the constructs of the TPB such as those comprised in actual behavioural control (Ajzen & Klobas, 2013). In addition to these, certain background factors may relate to behavioural intention by influencing the beliefs that form attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. Therefore, in the context of this study, background factors may be seen to be of the kind that are often assessed in FWA research. Such research is thus useful in identifying potential background factors relevant to the focus of this study. Previous FWA research has assessed the influences of the age of one's children (Whitehouse, Diamond, & Baird,

2007), the use of paid domestic support (Spector et al., 2007) and whether one's spouse has a fulltime job (Aycan & Eskin, 2005) on the use of FWAs.

Paid domestic support. Within a middle class South African context, domestic support is easily accessible and widely utilised in order to manage the home environment (Smit, 2002). A domestic worker is able to assist with home and childcare responsibilities, thus allowing working parents to focus more on their careers (Tobo & Gorfinkel, 2007). While paid domestic support provides assistance to working mothers alleviating home/family demands, such support does little to change the stance of the father as the career orientated provider (Spector, 2007). Accordingly, having domestic support may present a resource needed for working parents. This may result in working fathers being less likely to be involved in the family context (Tobo & Gorfinkel, 2007). Fathers may thus view FWAs as less useful; as home-related tasks are already attended to by paid domestic support.

Age of children. When assessing individual reasons for the underutilisation of FWAs, Whitehouse et al. (2007) found that fathers who had children of a younger age cohort (under the age of five) were more likely to use FWAs than fathers with children of an older age cohort. The researchers argued that the family demands of fathers with children of a younger age were more prominent and thus required fathers to be more available. Therefore, it is likely that fathers with younger children may find that their family responsibilities are more prominent, and thus they may be more likely to use FWAs, than fathers with older children.

Spouse's occupational status. While female participation in the global workforce continues to increase, many middle class families maintain the traditional arrangement of having the mother stay at home or only working part time (Tracy & Rivera, 2010). Such an arrangement allows a working father to maintain a career-orientated perspective, while the family responsibilities lie with the mother (Golden, 2007). Furthermore, Whitehouse et al. (2007) found that fathers in Australia were less likely to make use of FWAs if their spouse had given up full time employment after having a child. Thus, working fathers with instrumental spousal support may be

less likely to perceive FWAs as useful to them, as their family domain is already attended to by their spouse.

In order to account for the background factors discussed, these will be included as control variables in the analyses of this study. This will allow for the consideration of irrational decision-making influences.

Theoretical constructs and study factors

The following table provides an outline of the planned behaviour constructs and the related factors to be used in this study.

Table 2

Theoretical constructs aligned with study factors

Theoretical construct	Factor used in this study
Attitudes	Perceived usefulness of the FWA Anticipated cost to image Perceived fairness of using the FWA General views of FWA use
Subjective norms	Supervisor Top management Co-workers Spouse Friends
Perceived behavioural control	Perceived control over using FWAs
Actual behavioural control	Actual control over using FWAs
Background factors (Controls)	Age of children Paid domestic support Spouse's occupational status

Final notes

The previous sections have attempted to provide theoretically and empirically supported proposed factors that may relate to the intention to use FWAs in working fathers. While previous research has primarily focused on the experiences of working mothers, current trends report that the experiences of working fathers are becoming more prevalent in the literature (Blair-Loy, 2004). In line with the TPB, individual attitudes, subjective norms, behavioural control and specific background factors, may predict a working father's intention to use FWAs (Ajzen, 1991; 2005; 2012; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010; Veiga et al., 2004). Factors of this nature need to be taken into account by organisations implementing these arrangements, in order to ensure their utilisation and thus, a more positive work-family interface for their employees.

Method

This section describes the methods used in this study when applying the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) to examine factors that may help predict working fathers' intention to use flexible workplace arrangements (FWAs). The section is divided into six sub-sections. These sub-sections describe the research design, the participants that took part in the study, the sampling technique used, the measures used to collect self-report data, the procedure followed as well as the statistical techniques used to analyse the data.

Research design

A quantitative descriptive research design was adopted. Cross-sectional data collection allowed for appropriate data to be collected within the desired time frame (Hair, Babin, Money, & Samouel, 2003). Using self-report survey questionnaires allowed for measurement of the variables and testing of the propositions. Furthermore, the use of self-report questionnaires allowed for statistical analysis of the data, confirming associations between the variables (Neuman, 2000). The research design was chosen in order to meet the needs of the research, with the resources available, as well as meet the requirements for an effective research design (Burns & Burns, 2004).

Participants

1911 questionnaires were distributed to potential participants across seven organisations. Snowballing was also used and in total 409 responses were received. Thirty-eight participants answered 'no' to at least one of the qualifying questions and were thus excluded from the data set. This left a sample of 371 participants. The participants' ages ranged from 23 to 70 years ($M = 41.8$; $SD = 9.01$). Fathers had an average of two children, who were also living with them. Tenure ranged from 3 months to 48 years ($M = 11.17$; $SD = 9.40$). Of the sample, 213 (57%) fathers employed paid domestic help, while 149 (40%) did not. Furthermore, 227 (61%) participants had a spouse with a fulltime job, while 119 (32%) had a spouse who was

not engaged in fulltime work. Of the sample, 25 (6.8%) participants were single/divorced, 338 (91.8%) were married or living with a partner and only five (1.4%) selected the option: 'it's complicated' ($M = 1.94$; $SD = .28$). Further characteristics of the sample are provided in the following table.

Table 3

Demographic characteristics of the sample

Demographic characteristic	Category	%	N
Sample	Total sample	100	371
Race	Black	9.5	35
	Coloured	27.2	100
	Indian	9	33
	White	51.1	188
	Other	.5	2
	Prefer not to answer	2.7	10
Occupation	Management/supervisory	47.8	176
	Specialist/technical/professional	37.2	137
	Sales/admin/support	14.9	55
	Other		
Age of children living at home	Preschool (0-5 years)	38.8	176
	School (6-18 years)	43.4	197
	Adult at home (over 18 years)	17.8	81

Sampling

A non-probability, purposive sampling approach was used which met the needs of the study because of the specific requirements of sample composition (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2006). Snowballing was also used to increase the pool of participants in the limited time period provided (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2006). Participants were asked to send the questionnaire link to any white collar working

individuals who may meet the study criteria. These responses were therefore sent to individuals outside of the original sampling frames obtained from each organisation sampled. Cozby (2004) justified this approach with reference to the concern with estimating relationships between variables, rather than population dispositions. These two non-probability sampling techniques were employed as they are both considered effective designs from which to sample participants given both time and budgetary constraints, as evident in this research (Burns & Burns, 2008). According to the nature of each organisation within which the questionnaire was distributed, the possible respondents were able to be classified according to sector. It is estimated that around 12 responses were received from snowballing, based on the technical server identification displayed via Qualtrics, which differed from those received from company based servers. These responses were not able to be classified according to sector (Table 4).

Within the participating organisations, an electronic mail containing the link to the online survey was sent to each office based male employee. Male employees at the distribution centres were also included. To ensure this, two qualifying questions were asked prior to the questionnaire items. The first question was “Do you work at your company full time?” The second question asked, “Do you have at least one child?” If the employees answered “no” to one or both of these questions, they were directed to a page thanking them for their time and explaining that they were not eligible to complete the rest of the questionnaire. An incentive was offered to those that completed the questionnaire. For every response, 2.00 South African Rand was donated to one of five possible charities. Four days after the original survey was sent, a reminder e-mail was sent to the sample thanking those that had taken the survey and urging others to partake. This reminder e-mail was then sent again four days later. Table four depicts the way in which questionnaires were distributed across six organisations, using shared data collection with two researchers.

Table 4

Survey distribution across sectors

Sector of the organisation	Number of questionnaires sent
Retail (Only office-based employees)	1161
Financial services	166
Hospitality	30
Information technology	554
Snowballing	+/- 12
Total	1923

Procedure

Ethics clearance to conduct this study was obtained from the Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee at the University of Cape Town prior to commencing the empirical work. Approval to collect data at an individual retail organisation was obtained from the Head of Human Resources, prior to the research being conducted. The research guidelines of the American Psychological Association (2009) were followed and the participating organisation and respondents were assured of confidentiality and anonymity.

The questionnaire was compiled online via an electronic platform on Qualtrics (Qualtrics, 2014). A pilot test was conducted, whereby a link to the questionnaire was sent to four head office employees, one regional office employee and one distribution centre employee, in order to ensure no issues were experienced with accessing the questionnaire. Positive feedback was received and the research was then deemed appropriate to begin. An electronic link to the questionnaire was sent to all male employees included in the sampling frame. After opening this link, respondents were directed to a cover page, explaining the goals of the research and the ethical considerations taken. Anonymity was assured as no form of identification was asked of the participants (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2006). Participants were provided with clear instructions as to how to answer each question, and when completed, were thanked for their participation. Qualtrics automatically recorded the responses as they were concluded (Qualtrics, 2014). The questionnaire took approximately 15 minutes for participants to complete; a short time commitment was expected to increase participation (De Leeuw & Dillman, 2008).

Measures

A 46-item questionnaire was compiled with 34 of the items measuring TPB constructs and 12 items measuring the dependent variables. In order to construct the TPB scales, brief informal interviews with working fathers were held to aid in the understanding of behavioural, normative and control beliefs in practical settings. Literature was also reviewed for this purpose. The full questionnaire is presented in Appendix A.

Use and intention to use formal organisational FWAs. The four column checklist used by Bagraim and Sader (2007) was applied to measure the provision, current use, and intended use of formal FWAs amongst the participants. Nine formal FWAs were examined. FWAs that were selected were scored with a one and those not selected were scored with a zero (Allen, 2001; Haar & Spell, 2004).

Use and intention to use informal organisational FWAs. Three items from Valcour (2007)'s informal flexibility scale, were used to measure control over informal flexibility in the workplace. An example item from this scale is "how much control do you feel you have over when you begin and end each workday or work week?" As this scale only measured aspects of flextime, two additional items that measure flexplace were added to the scale from Hill, Hawkins, Ferris and Weitzman's (2001) measure of flexibility. These items were "how much choice do you have to leave work early or arrive late to attend to other responsibilities?" and "to what extent can you choose to work from a location other than your workplace or home but be available via email or phone?" Items were rated on a five-point Likert-type scale from 1 = *very little* to 5 = *very much*.

Attitudes.

Direct measure. Ajzen's (2013) guidelines on constructing a TPB scale were followed. Six items were constructed to measure attitudes directly. As this study is assessing the influences of the actual TPB constructs, the direct measures were used to test the propositions (Francis et al., 2004). Items were measured on a

seven-point Likert-type semantic differentiation response scale. A sample item is “For me to use flexible work arrangements on a regular basis is (1 = *extremely worthless* to 7 = *extremely valuable*)”

Indirect measure. The behavioural beliefs and outcome evaluations measures were used for descriptive purposes in order to allow for correlation analyses to be conducted between the direct and indirect constructs (Clark-Richardson, 2003). One item was compiled to measure behavioural beliefs (“My using flexible work arrangements would result in a better balance between my work and home lives”) and one item measured outcome evaluations (“My having a better balance between my work and home lives is 1 = *unimportant*, 7 = *important*”). To construct a belief-based measures index for attitudes, the belief scores were multiplied by the outcome scores and summed. These scores were then divided by the number of items used to measure the construct in order to get an average score comparable to that of the direct measures. The scoring procedure is depicted in the below equation. (A_B = Attitude, Σ = sum of, b = behavioural belief, e = outcome evaluation).

$$A_B \propto \sum b_i e_i$$

Subjective norms.

Direct measure. Three items per referent group (supervisor, top management, co-worker, spouse, and friends) were compiled into a 15 item composite scale. A sample item is “My supervisor thinks I should use flexible work arrangements when I need to.” Participants responded to the items on a seven point Likert-type semantic differentiation scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Indirect measure. Two items per referent group were selected to measure normative beliefs and motivation to comply. The item measuring normative beliefs is “The opinion of my supervisor is important to me.” The item measuring motivation to comply is “Generally speaking, I do what my supervisor wants me to do regarding flexible work arrangements.” Participants responded on a seven point Likert-type semantic differentiation scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

agree). The below equation was used to compile a belief based score of subjective norms (Clark-Richardson, 2003). ($SN = \text{Subjective Norm}$, $\Sigma = \text{sum of}$, $n = \text{normative belief}$, $m = \text{motivation to comply}$).

$$SN \propto \sum n_i m_i$$

Perceived behavioural control.

Direct measure. Four items were constructed to measure perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 2013). An example item is “Whether or not I use flexible work arrangements is completely up to me.” Items were rated on a seven-point Likert-type semantic differentiation scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Indirect measure. Two items were constructed to measure the power and strength of control beliefs. The control power item is “If I encountered unanticipated events that placed demands on my time, it would make it more difficult for me to use flexible work arrangements on a regular basis.” The control strength item is “How often do you encounter unanticipated events that place demands on your time?” Items were rated on a seven-point Likert-type semantic differentiation scale. To construct a belief based measures index for perceived behavioural control, the below formula was used. ($PBC = \text{Perceived Behavioural Control}$, $\Sigma = \text{sum of}$, $c = \text{control strength}$, $p = \text{control power}$).

$$PBC \propto \sum c_i p_i$$

Actual behavioural control. Three items were selected to measure actual behavioural control. An example item is “The nature of the industry I work in allows me to use flexible workplace arrangements.” Items were rated on a seven-point Likert-type semantic differentiation scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Demographic characteristics. Single items were used to measure the demographic control variables of paid domestic support, ages of children living at home, and spouse's occupational status. These demographic variables were selected to provide insight into the characteristics of the sample and to control for their influence over the dependent variable.

Statistical analysis

Data was analysed using the IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22. Data was imported into SPSS directly from the Qualtrics server and coded, cleaned and used to analyse the data of this study. Exploratory factor analysis using principal axis extraction and varimax rotation when indicated was used to assess the dimensionality of each scale. Internal consistency reliability was then calculated for each scale using Cronbach's co-efficient alpha. Descriptive statistics were calculated on the final scales. Correlation analyses were conducted to assess the extent to which variables were associated with one another. ANOVA was applied to assess differences between groups. Hierarchical binary logistic regression and chi square analyses were used to test the propositions. The results of these analyses are presented in the following section.

Results

The aim of this research is to utilise the constructs outlined in the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) in order to assess the factors that may predict the intention to use flexible workplace arrangements (FWAs) amongst working fathers. This section will present the statistical results of this enquiry.

This section is divided into five sub-sections. The first sub-section assesses the variability of the underlying dimensions of each study construct through exploratory factor analysis. Sub-section two presents the results of the reliability analyses relating to each scale constructed for this study. Sub-section three presents the descriptive statistics relevant to this study and further provides the results of the correlation analyses conducted between each of the scales. Sub-section four provides the analyses used to test the propositions through hierarchical binary logistic regression and chi square calculations. The final sub-section summarises the results of the study in relation to the research propositions and concludes the section.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted in order to determine the underlying dimensionality of the constructed TPB scales (Burn & Burns, 2008). A principal axis extraction with varimax normalised rotation when indicated was used in order to maximise the variance exposed across the variables (Hair et al., 2003). Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was not selected as it does not take into account the underlying structure across the variables (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test produced values larger than .50 for each of the EFAs conducted, providing favourable evidence for sampling adequacy (Burns & Burns, 2008; Kaiser, 1960). All results indicated that Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant, indicating that the items within the sub-scales adequately correlated with each other (Burns & Burns, 2008). Following the satisfaction of the aforementioned assumptions, it was appropriate to conduct EFA using principal axis factoring to extract factors for each scale. Factors with eigenvalues above one were retained

(Kaiser, 1960). Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham (2006) suggested that factor loadings above .30 may be considered for a sample between 300 and 400 at a .01 significance level. This suggestion was followed in this study.

Informal flexibility at work scale. The informal flexibility at work scale yielded one factor as expected. Principal axis extraction produced one significant factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1.0 which accounted for 58.97% of the variance. Table five reflects the factor loadings of the items onto the significant factor. Item two loaded most significantly on the extracted factor while item one had the weakest factor loading. The scale is unidimensional and measures control over informal flexibility at work.

Table 5

Informal Flexibility Scale

		IF
IF1	How much choice do you have over when you begin and end each workday or each work week?	.450
IF2	How much choice do you have to leave work early or arrive late to attend to other responsibilities?	.558
IF3	To what extent can you choose to do some of your work at home instead of your usual place of employment	.526
IF4	To what extent can you choose to work from a location other than your workplace or home if you remain available via email or phone?	.465
IF5	How much control do you have over when you can take a few hours off to attend to other responsibilities?	.468
Eigenvalues		2.949
Individual total variance (percent)		58.972%
Cumulative total variance (percent)		58.972%

Note. N = 371 after casewise deletion of missing data; Principal axis factor analysis; Significant loadings are presented in bold face. IF = Informal Flexibility.

Attitudes scale. The TPB attitudes scale yielded one significant factor with an eigenvalue greater than one through principal axis extraction. This factor accounted for 70.4% of the total variance. Item five had a very strong factor loading of .83, while item 6 had a weaker loading of .49. All items loaded significantly on the extracted factor. The scale is thus unidimensional and measures attitudes toward using FWAs. The final factor structure is presented in Table six.

Table 6

Attitudes scale

		ATT
ATT1	My using flexible work arrangements would be: (bad – good)	.709
ATT2	My using flexible work arrangements would be: (unpleasant – pleasant)	.702
ATT3	For me to use flexible work arrangements on a regular basis is: (unacceptable – acceptable)	.536
ATT4	For me to use flexible work arrangements on a regular basis is: (extremely worthless – extremely valuable)	.829
ATT5	For me to use flexible work arrangements on a regular basis is: (unuseful – useful)	.830
ATT6	As a working father, for me to use flexible work arrangements is: (unfair – fair)	.485
Eigenvalues		4.224
Individual total variance (percent)		70.402%
Cumulative total variance (percent)		70.402%

Note. N = 371 after casewise deletion of missing data; Principal axis factor analysis; Significant loadings are presented in bold face. ATT = Attitude.

Subjective norms scale. Principal axis extraction using normalised varimax rotation yielded four significant factors with eigenvalues greater than one. These factors accounted for 43.21%, 23.34%, 8.95% and 8.60% of the variance in subjective norms respectively. Table seven represents the loadings onto the four extracted factors. Items one to six loaded significantly onto factor one (all factor loadings above .70) measuring subjective norms relating to supervisors and top

management. Items seven to nine loaded strongly (all factor loadings above .70) onto factor two, measuring the subjective norms relating to one’s co-workers. Items ten to twelve loaded strongly onto factor three, with all factor loadings exceeding .70. Following examination of the items, this factor measures the subjective norms relating to one’s spouse. Finally, items 13 to 15 significantly loaded onto factor four (all factor loadings above .70) measuring the subjective norms relating to one’s friends. The final factor structure is presented in the table below.

Table 7

Subjective norms scale

		MAN	CW	SP	FR
SN1	My supervisor thinks I should use flexible work arrangements when I need to	.831	.166	.074	-.011
SN2	My supervisor expects me to use flexible work arrangements when I need to	.839	.201	.089	.035
SN3	My supervisor would approve of me using a flexible work arrangement	.770	.174	.087	.053
SN4	Top management thinks I should use flexible work arrangements when I need to	.880	.120	-.022	.120
SN5	Top management expects me to use flexible work arrangements when I need to	.870	.123	-.001	.130
SN6	Top management would approve of me using a flexible work arrangement	.863	.096	-.018	.064
SN7	My co-workers think I should use flexible work arrangements when I need to	.244	.861	.204	.227
SN8	My co-workers expect me to use flexible work arrangements when I need to	.290	.831	.200	.220
SN9	My co-workers would approve of me using a flexible work arrangement	.211	.825	.218	.219
SN10	My spouse think I should use flexible work arrangements when I need to	.034	.183	.914	.210
SN11	My spouse expect me to use flexible work arrangements when I need to	.080	.178	.730	.235
SN12	My spouse would approve of me using a flexible work arrangement	-.005	.156	.807	.205
SN13	My friends think I should use flexible work arrangements when I need to	.070	.192	.230	.924
SN14	My friends expect me to use flexible work arrangements when I need to:	.111	.218	.208	.841
SN15	My friends would approve of me using a flexible work arrangement	.083	.192	.279	.813
Eigenvalues		6.482	1.343	1.289	3.501
Individual total variance (percent)		43.214%	23.340%	8.954%	8.596%
Cumulative total variance (percent)		43.214%	66.554%	75.508%	84.105%

Note. N = 371 after casewise deletion of missing data; Principal axis factor analysis with varimax normalised data; Items with significant factor loadings are presented in bold. SN = subjective norms; MAN = management; CW = co-workers; SP = spouse; FR = friends

Behavioural control scales. EFA using principal-axis extraction and varimax normalized rotation revealed two significant factors with eigenvalues greater than one for the perceived behavioural control and actual behavioural control scales. These factors accounted for 59.03% and 20.30% of the total variance respectively. The extracted factors represent perceived behavioural control and actual behavioural control. The final factor structure is presented in the following table.

Table 8

Behavioural control scales

		PBC	ABC
PBC1	For me to use flexible work arrangements (FWAs) on a regular basis is (extremely difficult – extremely easy)	.559	.405
PBC2	Whether or not I use FWAs on a regular basis is completely up to me	.822	.152
PBC3	I am confident that if I wanted to I could use FWAs on a regular basis	.825	.284
PBC4	I feel in complete control over whether I use FWAs or not	.877	.190
ABC1	The nature of the industry I work in allows me to use flexible workplace arrangements	.200	.955
ABC2	The nature of my job allows me to use flexible workplace arrangements	.306	.724
ABC3	My current position in this company allows me to use flexible workplace arrangement	.192	.848
Eigenvalues		4.132	1.420
Individual total variance (percent)		59.03%	20.30%
Cumulative total variance (percent)		59.03%	79.32%

Note. *N* = 371 after casewise deletion of missing data; Principal axis factor analysis with varimax normalised data; Items with significant factor loadings are presented in bold. PBC = Perceived Behavioural Control, ABC = Actual Behavioural Control.

Reliability Analysis

Reliability was assessed using Cronbach's co-efficient alpha (α) to measure internal consistency. Cronbach's α values of .70 and above were considered as satisfactory levels of internal consistency with higher values indicating increased consistency between the scale items (Hair et al., 2006). Reliability analyses were run on all factors that emerged in the EFA. The Cronbach's α values for the scales used in this study ranged from .825 to .946, exceeding the benchmark (.70). All item total correlations exceeded .30 and thus, all items were retained (Field, 2009). Table nine provides the reliability scores for each of the scales used in this research.

Table 9

Cronbach's co-efficient alpha scores for study scales

Scale	Cronbach's α
Informal FWA scale	.825
Attitudes scale	.911
Management subjective norms	.941
Co-worker subjective norms	.946
Spouse subjective norms	.896
Friends subjective norms	.943
Perceived behavioural control scale	.885
Actual behavioural control scale	.904

Note. $N = 371$ after casewise deletion of missing data. All reliability scores show strong internal consistency (Hair et al., 2006).

Descriptive statistics

This sub-section provides descriptive statistics relating to the composite variables of this study. Descriptive statistics allow for a depiction of the distribution of the scores relating to each variable (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2006). The means (M), standard deviations (SD), standard error around the mean (SE), skewness and kurtosis were computed (see table 10). Upon screening of the data, it was apparent

that certain FWAs were more widely utilised than others. Compressed work weeks (204 intended to use, used by 33), job sharing (139 intended to use, used by 20) and unpaid paternity leave (98 intended to use, used by 23) were used significantly less than the other FWAs assessed in the study. These three arrangements were thus removed from further analyses of intention and use in order to ensure they did not skew the results. Additionally, owing to the multidimensionality of the subjective norms scale revealed in the EFA, only the management norms was used in subsequent analyses. This factor accounted for most of the total variance as well as most significantly correlated with overall intention ($r = -.117, p < .05$) and use ($r = .310, p < .01$) of FWAs and is thus seen as the most important referent group. Owing to differences in response formats, control over informal flexibility was only used for descriptive purposes, while the formal FWAs were assessed inferentially.

TPB constructs. Reported attitudes relating to the use of FWAs were positive with a mean score of 5.77 on a seven point scale ($SD = 1.25$). In comparison, participant's perceptions of management subjective norms were negative, with a mean score of 3.18 ($SD = 1.79$). Reported levels of PBC were low with a mean of 3.32 ($SD = 1.89$). Levels of ABC were very low with a mean score of 2.32 on a seven point scale ($SD = 1.67$). Additionally, control over informal flexibility was also very low with a mean of 2.67 ($SD = .91$) on a seven point scale indicating low control over using informal flexibility arrangements.

Intention to use and actual use of FWAs. The most used FWA in this study (used by 39% of the sample) was *flexible work hours* ($N = 143, M = .35, SD = .48$). Even more participants possessed the intention to use this arrangement ($N = 233, M = .57, SD = .50$). Only, 174 participants (50%) were aware that this arrangement was available at their organisation. A large portion of the sample (36%) had also used *paid paternity leave* ($N = 131, M = .32, SD = .47$) and also intended to use this arrangement in the future ($N = 134, M = .33, SD = .47$). Most participants (68%) were aware that this arrangement was available. *Telecommuting* was less widely used ($N = 98, M = .24, SD = .43$), however 64% of the sample intended to use this arrangement in the future ($N = 236, M = .57, SD = .50$). Of the FWAs that were assessed incrementally, the FWA that was used the least amongst the sample in this

study was *working from home* ($N = 63$, $M = .16$, $SD = .36$). Many more participants did however intend to use this arrangement in the future ($N = 256$, $M = .62$, $SD = .49$) and 15% of the sample had knowledge of the arrangement's availability. Interestingly, intention scores for *flexible work hours*, *telecommuting* and *working from home* were significantly higher than the *knowledge of availability* scores. This indicates that working fathers would like to use these practices but are unaware of their availability.

Intention scores for *flexible work hours*, *telecommuting* and *working from home* were slightly negatively skewed with skewness of between $-.27$ and $-.51$. Scores were flatter than in normal distribution with less probability of extreme scores (*kurtosis* = -1.75 to -1.94). Comparatively, intention to use *paid paternity leave* was slightly positively skewed with skewness of $.75$ but scores were still flatly distributed with kurtosis of -1.45 . All *actual use* scores were positively skewed with skewness ranging from $.64$ to 1.93 . Scores were also flatter than in normal distribution, with kurtosis ranging from $-.48$ to 1.74 . All of the TPB constructs were negatively skewed with skewness ranging from $-.25$ to $-.71$. Scores were also flatly distributed with kurtosis ranging from -1 to $.52$. *Informal flexibility* scores were slightly positively skewed (*skewness* = $.31$) and flatly distributed (*kurtosis* = $-.17$). While it is evident that the results are not strictly normally distributed, the parametric analyses used in SPSS are highly robust and can thus be used even when normal distribution of the data is not evident (Pallant, 2010).

Figure four graphically presents the intention to use, actual use and knowledge of availability of the FWAs assessed in this study.

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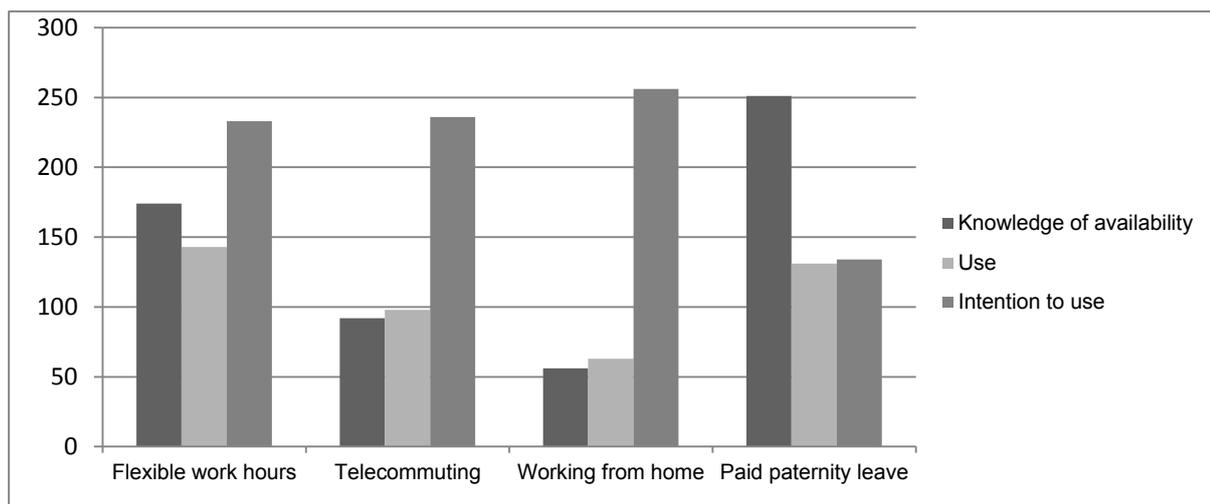


Figure 4. Graph depicting FWA knowledge, use and intention to use.

Table 10

Descriptive statistics for composite scales

Variables	N	M	SD	SE	Skewness	Kurtosis
<u>Intention to use FWAs</u>						
Intention to use flexible work hours	233	.57	.50	.02	-.27	-1.94
Intention to use telecommuting	236	.57	.50	.02	-.30	-1.92
Intention to use working from home	256	.62	.49	.02	-.51	-1.75
Intention to use paid paternity leave	134	.33	.47	.02	.75	-1.45
<u>Use of FWAs</u>						
Use of flexible work hours	143	.35	.48	.02	.641	-1.60
Use of telecommuting	98	.24	.43	.02	1.232	-.48
Use of working from home	63	.16	.36	.02	1.932	1.74
Use of paid paternity leave	131	.32	.47	.02	.781	-1.40
<u>TPB constructs</u>						
Attitudes	371	5.77	1.25	.07	-0.52	.52
Subjective norms	370	3.18	1.79	.09	-0.25	-.99
Perceived behavioural control	370	3.71	1.89	.09	-0.71	-1.00
Actual behavioural control	370	2.32	1.67	.09	-0.43	-.81
Informal flexibility	371	2.67	.91	.05	.31	-.17

Note. N = Number of respondents using or intending to use FWAs after casewise deletion of missing data/ number of participants following caewise deletion, M = Mean; SD = standard deviation; SE = standard error around the mean, FWA = flexible work arrangements.

Correlation analyses with casewise deletion were conducted in order to determine the extent to which each variable correlated with one another. Table 11 presents the correlation matrix indicating significant correlations at the following significance levels; $*p \leq .05$; $**p \leq .01$, $***p < 0.001$. Additionally, correlations were conducted using the direct TPB measures with the indirect TPB measures, in order to determine the extent to which the indirect beliefs behind the measures were related to the direct measurements. It must be noted that dichotomous variables were entered into the correlation matrix alongside the continuous variables. Point-biserial correlations may be seen as a special case of the Pearson product moment correlation applied to a dichotomous and continuous variable. SPSS allows for these correlations when detecting these variable types and thus, these variables were able to be correlated with one another (IBM, 2014).

Intention and use of FWAs. Intention to use *flexible work hours* was moderately positively correlated with the intention to use *telecommuting* ($r = .229$, $p < 0.01$), the intention to use *working from home* ($r = .227$, $p < 0.01$) and the intention to use *paid paternity leave* ($r = .261$, $p < 0.01$). Participant's intention to use *telecommuting* was also strongly positively correlated with the intention to use *working from home* ($r = .512$, $p < 0.01$) and moderately positively correlated with the intention to use *paid paternity leave* ($r = .270$, $p < 0.01$). Finally, respondent's intention to use *working from home* was moderately positively correlated to the intention to use *paid paternity leave* ($r = .209$, $p < 0.01$).

The use of *flexible work hours* was moderately positively correlated to the use of *telecommuting* ($r = .278$, $p < 0.01$). It was also moderately correlated with the use of *working from home* ($r = .258$, $p < 0.01$), and weakly positively correlated to the use of *paid paternity leave* ($r = .184$, $p < 0.01$). The use of *telecommuting* was also moderately positively correlated to the use of *working from home* ($r = .407$, $p < 0.01$) and weakly positively correlated to the use of *paid paternity leave* ($r = .195$, $p < 0.01$). Additionally the use of *working from home* was weakly positively correlated with the use of *paid paternity leave* ($r = .157$, $p = .002$).

The intention to use *paid paternity leave* was weakly positively correlated with the use of *flexible work hours* ($r = .153, p = 0.03$). The intention to use *working from home* was weakly positively correlated with the use of *working from home* ($r = -.123, p = .018$). Intention to use *paid paternity leave* was also weakly positively correlated with the use of *working from home* ($r = .116, p = .002$). The intention to use *paid paternity leave* was also weakly positively correlated with the actual use of this arrangement ($r = .160, p = .002$).

TPB constructs. Attitudes toward the use of FWAs was moderately positively correlated with *subjective norms* ($r = .202, p < 0.01$), as well as moderately positively correlated with *perceived behavioural control* ($r = .447, p < 0.01$) and *actual behavioural control* ($r = .386, p < 0.01$) as well as control over *informal flexibility* ($r = .301, p < 0.01$). *Subjective norms* were also strongly positively correlated with *perceived behavioural control* ($r = .619, p < 0.01$), *actual behavioural control* ($r = .589, p < 0.01$) and control over *informal flexibility* ($r = .370, p < 0.01$). *Perceived behavioural control* was strongly positively correlated with *actual behavioural control* ($r = .519, p < 0.01$) and control over *informal flexibility* ($r = .519, p < 0.01$). Additionally, *actual behavioural control* was weakly positively correlated with control over *informal flexibility* ($r = .125, p = .016$).

Intention and use as outcomes of the TPB constructs. Attitudes were weakly positively correlated to the use of *working from home* ($r = -.122, p = .019$), as well as the intention to use *flexible work hours* ($r = .166, p = .001$) and intention to use *paid paternity leave* ($r = .125, p = .017$). *Subjective norms* were moderately correlated to the use of *flexible work hours* ($r = .293, p < 0.01$), the use of *telecommuting* ($r = .191, p < 0.01$) and the use of *working from home* ($r = .253, p < 0.01$). *Subjective norms* were also weakly negatively correlated with the intention to use *paid paternity leave* ($r = -.144, p < 0.29$). *Perceived behavioural control* was moderately correlated to the use of *flexible work hours* ($r = .293, p < 0.01$), the use of *telecommuting* ($r = .166, p = 0.01$) and the use of *working from home* ($r = .221, p < 0.01$). It was also weakly negatively correlated with the intention to use *paid paternity leave* ($r = -.164, p < 0.01$). Similarly, *actual behavioural control* was found to be moderately positively correlated to the use of *flexible work hours* ($r = .229, p < 0.01$),

telecommuting ($r = .193, p < 0.01$) and *working from home* ($r = .252, p < 0.01$). The correlation matrix for this study is presented in table 11.

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Table 11

Mean, Standard Deviation and Correlation Analysis for composite variables

Variable	M	SD	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	3	4	5	6	7
1.1 Use of FWH	.35	.48	(-)												
1.2 Use of TM	.24	.43	.278**	(-)											
1.3 Use of WH	.155	.36	.258**	.407**	(-)										
1.4 Use of PPL	.32	.47	.184**	.195**	.157**	(-)									
2.1 Intention to use FWH	.57	.50	-.077	.026	.045	.105*	(-)								
2.2 Intention to use TM	.57	.50	.044	-.052	.020	.136**	.229**	(-)							
2.3 Intention to use WH	.62	.49	-.017	.053	-.123*	.060	.227**	.512**	(-)						
2.4 Intention to use PPL	.33	.47	.153**	.090	.116*	.160**	.261**	.270**	.209**	(-)					
3. Attitudes	5.77	1.25	.081	.040	.122*	.017	.166**	.090	.055	.125**	(.911)				
4. Management SN	3.18	1.79	.293**	.191**	.253**	-.036	-.083	-.101	-.114*	-.005	.202**	(.941)			
5. PBC	3.71	1.89	.231**	.166**	.221**	-.009	-.164**	-.089	-.164**	-.021	.589**	.510**	(.885)		
6. ABC	3.32	1.67	.229**	.193**	.252**	-.002	-.099	-.045	-.052	.012	.386**	.370**	.510**	(.904)	
7. Informal flexibility	2.67	.91	.275**	.318**	.326**	.053**	-.144**	-.148**	-.152**	-.060	.619**	.370**	.519**	.125*	(.825)

Note. $N = 369$ after casewise deletion of missing data: * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; Cronbach's Alpha reflected in brackets, M = mean; SD = standard deviation, FWH = flexible working hours, TM = telecommuting, WH = working from home, PPL = paid paternity leave, SN = subjective norm, PBC = perceived behavioural control, ABC = actual behavioural control. Cronbach's alpha scores not computed for dependent variables due to use of a binary index-type scale.

Indirect and direct measures correlations.

Indirect and direct measures: Attitudes. The indirect *behavioural beliefs* and *outcome evaluations* were significantly positively correlated with the direct measure of *attitudes* ($r = .60, p < 0.01$). Thus, although the indirect assumptions behind attitudes are not used to test the propositions of this study, such assumptions are significantly associated with the attitudes that are assessed.

Indirect and direct measures: Subjective norms. *Normative beliefs* and *motivation to comply* were also significantly positively correlated to the direct *subjective norms* measure ($r = .38, p < 0.01$). Therefore, it is likely that the indirect assumptions behind subjective norms were partially accounted for in the direct measure.

Indirect and direct measures: Perceived behavioural control. Although weak, *control beliefs* were significantly positively correlated to the direct measure of *perceived behavioural control* ($r = .198, p < 0.01$). Thus, these beliefs were likely to have been measured to some degree by the direct subjective norms scale.

ANOVA analysis

ANOVA analyses were conducted in order to assess the differences in intention to use FWAs across race, marital status, occupational category, spouse's occupational status and the use of paid domestic support. All of the results were insignificant (i.e. $p > .05$). Further ANOVA analyses were also conducted in order to assess differences across groups in relation to actual use of FWAs. All of the analyses were again insignificant ($p > .05$) and thus no significant differences across these groups were found in actual use of FWAs.

Regression analysis

Hierarchical binary logistic regression was used in order to test the predictive relationships outlined in propositions 1; 2 and 3. The results of these analyses were able to indicate the amount of variance in the intention to use FWAs that was explained by attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control as well as background factors.

Assumptions of binary logistic regression. The assumptions for the analyses were satisfied. The dependent variable in each analysis was dichotomous (Agresti, 1996). The sample of 371 participants satisfied the assumption of 50 cases per predictor (Agresti, 1996). Tolerance values were assessed and no multicollinearity was observed (Pallant, 2010). Finally, no outliers were found to exceed a standardised residual value of ± 2.58 (Agresti, 1996). Residual plots were also examined. In each plot, the patterns of observed values were not found to deviate much from the diagonal line and thus, it was assumed that the data made up standard normal probability distributions (Pallant, 1996).

TPB constructs as predictors of intention to use FWAs. In order to investigate the predictive relationships between attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and intention to use each FWA, hierarchical binary logistic regression analyses were conducted. These analyses aimed to investigate the relationships stipulated in propositions 1, 2 and 3. Four regressions were conducted, each adopting a four-step approach. In step one, the three control variables were introduced (*use of paid domestic support, age of children, and one's spouses occupational status*). The second step added *attitudes* as a covariate. The third step added *subjective norms* to each model. Finally, the fourth step added *perceived behavioural control* as a covariate to each model.

Intention to use flexible work hours as an outcome of the TPB constructs. Logistic regression analysis was conducted with *intention to use flexible work hours* as the dependent variable. In step one, none of the *background factors* explained significant variance in the dependent variable and the model was

insignificant ($\chi^2(4) = 3.58, p = .47, N = 361$). In step two, *attitudes* was added as a covariate to the model. The model was statistically significant ($\chi^2(5) = 7.96, p < 0.01, N = 361$) and explained 4.3% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in *intention to use flexible work hours* and correctly classified 64% of the cases in the sample. At this step, respondents with positive *attitudes* toward the use of FWAs were 1.28 times more likely to *intend to use flexible work hours* than those with a more negative attitude. Thus, in the second step of the model, *attitudes* were the only significant predictor of *intention to use flexible work hours* (Wald $\chi^2 = 7.86, p < 0.01$). The third step of the model added *subjective norms* as a covariate. The change in the model was significant for one additional degree of freedom ($\Delta \chi^2(1) = 5.95, p < 0.05, N = 361$). The third model explained 6.5% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in the dependent variable and classified 63.2% of the cases in the sample correctly. At the second step, respondents with positive perceptions of *management subjective norms* were 0.84 times more likely to have an *intention to use flexible work hours* than those with more negative perceptions of these norms. After the third step, *attitudes* (Wald $\chi^2 = 10.41, p < 0.001$), and *subjective norms* (Wald $\chi^2 = 5.84, p < 0.05$) significantly predicted the *intention to use flexible work hours*. In the final model, *perceived behavioural control* was added as the final covariate. The model was again significant for one additional degree of freedom ($\Delta \chi^2(1) = 12.88, p < 0.001, N = 361$). The final model explained 11% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in the dependent variable and correctly classified 65.4% of the cases in the sample. Participants who felt higher levels of *perceived behavioural control* were .75 times more likely to have an *intention to use flexible work hours*. In the final model, *subjective norms* became insignificant in predicting *intention to use flexible work hours* (Wald $\chi^2 = .003, p = .958$) and thus, only *attitudes* (Wald $\chi^2 = 15.93, p < 0.001$) and *perceived behavioural control* (Wald $\chi^2 = 12.38, p < 0.001$) were significant in predicting the dependent variable.

Table 12

Model summary with Beta values and odds ratios for dependent variable: Intention to use flexible work hours

Variable	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Odds Ratio at step 4	95% CI	
	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta		Lower	Upper
Paid domestic support	.017	.005	.043	0.46	.582	.522	1.280
Having a child under age five	-.231	-.214	-.236	-.201	1.047	.664	1.652
Spouse with a full time job	.352	.199	.244	.281	1.324	.835	2.099
Attitudes		.247**	.296**	.396**	1.488	1.226	1.805
Subjective norms			-.169**	-.004	.996	.846	1.174
Perceived Behavioural Control				-.292**	.746	.634	.877
Nagelkerke R²	.013	.043	.065	.110			

Note. N= 361 (after casewise deletion of missing data); *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001; CI = confidence interval for odds ratio.

Intention to use telecommuting as an outcome of the TPB constructs. A logistic binary regression was conducted, utilising *intention to use telecommuting* as the dependent variable. In step one, none of the *background factors* significantly predicted the dependent variable and the model was insignificant ($\chi^2(4) = 9.07, p = .06, N = 361$). In step two, *attitudes* was added to the model as a covariate and the second model was statistically significant ($\chi^2(5) = 4.08, p < 0.05, N = 361$). *Attitudes* explained 4.9% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in *intention to use telecommuting* and correctly classified 64.3% of the cases in the sample. At this step, participants with *positive attitudes* toward the use of FWAs were 1.2 times more likely to develop an *intention to use telecommuting*. Thus, *attitude* was a significant predictor of the dependent variable (*Wald* $\chi^2 = 4.07, p < 0.05$). In the third step of the analysis, *subjective norms* was added as a covariate. The change in the model was significant at one additional degree of freedom ($\Delta \chi^2(1) = 6.31, p < 0.05, N = 361$). With the addition of *subjective norms*, the model explained 7.2% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in *intention to use telecommuting* and correctly classified 64.3% of the cases in the sample. At this step, participants with more positive perceptions of *subjective norms* were .84 times more likely to intend to use *telecommuting*. At the third step, both *attitudes* (*Wald* $\chi^2 = 6.20, p < 0.05$) and *subjective norms* (*Wald* $\chi^2 = 6.18, p < 0.05$) significantly predicted the dependent variable. In the final step,

perceived behavioural control was added to the model as a covariate. The change in the model's χ^2 was insignificant for one additional degree of freedom ($\Delta \chi^2(1) = 2.44$, $p = .119$, $N = 361$) however the final model remained significant ($\chi^2(7) = 21.90$, $p < 0.01$, $N = 361$). After the addition of *perceived behavioural control*, the model accounted for 8.1% of the total variance (Nagelkerke R^2) in the dependent variable and correctly classified 65.4% of the cases in the sample. While the model was significant, *perceived behavioural control* did not significantly predict the intention to use *telecommuting* (Wald $\chi^2 = 2.44$, $p = .119$) and after its addition, *subjective norms* was no longer a significant predictor in the model (Wald $\chi^2 = 1.47$, $p = .225$). Thus, in the final model, only *attitudes* was a significant predictor of the dependent variable (Wald $\chi^2 = 7.91$, $p < 0.01$).

Table 13

Model summary with Beta values and odds ratio for dependent variable: Intention to use telecommuting

Variable	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Odds ratio at step 4	95% CI	
	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta		Lower	Upper
Paid domestic support	-.127	.230	-.165	-.170	.911	.586	1.416
Having a child under age five	-.125	-.224	-.123	-.103	1.315	.838	2.065
Spouse with a full time job	-2.18	-2.33	-2.345	-2.48	.761	.480	1.206
Attitudes		.180*	.231*	.273**	1.262	1.050	1.519
Subjective norms			-.174*	-.101	.888	.755	1.045
Perceived Behavioural Control				-.127	.904	.744	1.057
Nagelkerke R²	.034	.049	.072	.081			

Note. $N = 361$ (after casewise deletion of missing data); * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, CI = confidence interval for odds ratio.

Intention to use working from home as an outcome of the TPB constructs. Hierarchical binary logistic regression analysis was conducted with the *intention to use working from home* as the dependent variable. In the first step of the analysis, the three *background factors* were entered as controls. The model was insignificant ($\chi^2(4) = 5.30$, $p = .26$, $N = 361$) and none of the controls significantly contributed to variance in the dependent variable. The second step added *attitudes* to the model, however the change in χ^2 was insignificant ($\Delta \chi^2(1) = 1.36$, $p = .24$, $N = 361$) and thus the model remained insignificant ($\chi^2(5) = 6.65$, $p = .25$, $N = 361$).

Therefore, *attitudes* did not significantly contribute to the variance in the dependent variable. In the third step of the analysis, *subjective norms* were added to the model. The change was significant ($\Delta \chi^2(1) = 7.10, p < 0.01, N = 361$) and moreover, the model became significant ($\chi^2(6) = 13.75, p < 0.05, N = 361$). The model explained 5.3% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in *intention to use working from home* and correctly classified 69% of the cases in the sample. Thus, at step 3, only *subjective norms* significantly predicted the dependent variable ($Wald \chi^2 = 6.93, p < 0.01$) and *attitudes* remained an insignificant predictor ($Wald \chi^2 = 2.89, p = .09$). In the final step, *perceived behavioural control* was added as a covariate. The change was significant for one additional degree of freedom ($\Delta \chi^2(1) = 10.53, p < 0.01, N = 361$). The final model explained 9.2% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in the dependent variable and correctly classified 70.9% of the cases in the sample. In the final step, *attitudes* became a significant predictor of intention to use *working from home* ($Wald \chi^2 = 6.40, p < 0.05$) while *subjective norms* became insignificant ($Wald \chi^2 = .21, p = .65$). Fathers with positive attitudes were 1.3 times more likely to have an intention to use *working from home*. *Perceived behavioural control* remained a significant predictor ($Wald \chi^2 = 10.28, p < 0.01$) and fathers with higher perceived control were .78 times more likely to have an intention to use *working from home*. Thus, in the final model, only *attitudes* and *perceived behavioural control* predicted *intention to use working from home* as a FWA.

Table 14

Model summary with Beta values and odds ratio for dependent variable: Intention to use working from home

Variable	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Odds ratio at step 4	95% CI	
	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta		Lower	Upper
Paid domestic support	.330	.330	.375	.392	.917	.575	1.461
Having a child under age five	-.120	-.110	-.130	-.090	1.584	.978	2.564
Spouse with a full time job	-1.04	-1.13	-1.13	-1.407	.778	.478	1.269
Attitudes		.107	.163	.259*	1.262	1.036	1.537
Subjective norms			-.192	-.04	.950	.803	1.124
Perceived Behavioural Control				-.275**	.774	.656	.913
Nagelkerke R²	.021	.026	.053	.081			

Note. N= 361 (after casewise deletion of missing data); *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001, CI = confidence interval for odds ratio.

Intention to use paid paternity leave as an outcome of the TPB constructs. A four step hierarchical logistic binary regression was conducted for the dependent variable *intention to use paid paternity leave*. Step one introduced the *background factors* as controls. The model was insignificant ($\chi^2(3) = 1.36, p = .71, N = 361$). None of the *background factors* were significant predictors of the dependent variable. In the second step, *attitudes* were added as a covariate. The change in the model was significant ($\Delta \chi^2(1) = 6.05, p < 0.05, N = 361$) and *attitudes* significantly predicted the dependent variable ($Wald \chi^2 = 5.72, p < 0.01$), however the overall model remained insignificant ($\chi^2(4) = 7.43, p = .16, N = 361$). In step three, *subjective norms* was added to the model but did not significantly predict the dependent variable ($Wald \chi^2 = 7.67, p = 0.18$). *Attitudes* were the only significant predictor of the dependent variable ($Wald \chi^2 = 5.96, p < 0.05$) however the change was insignificant ($\Delta \chi^2(1) = .239, p = .625, N = 361$) and the model again remained insignificant ($\chi^2(5) = .175, p = .16, N = 361$). In the final step, *perceived behavioural control* was added to the model. The change was insignificant ($\Delta \chi^2(1) = 1.13, p = .287, N = 361$) and the model again remained insignificant ($\chi^2(6) = 8.80, p = .19, N = 361$). *Attitudes* were again found to significantly predict the dependent variable in this step ($Wald \chi^2 = 6.81, p < 0.01$), however the model as a whole was not significant in predicting the *intention to use paid paternity leave*.

Table 15

Model summary with Beta value and odds ratio for dependent variable: Intention to use paid paternity leave

Variable	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Odds ratio at step 4	95% CI	
	Beta	Beta	Beta	Beta		Lower	Upper
Paid domestic support	0.89	.093	.099	.106	1.146	.740	1.776
Having a child under age five	.104	.130	.125	.136	1.112	.714	1.733
Spouse with a full time job	-.221	-.248	-.254	-.256	.774	.494	1.214
Attitudes		.226*	.234*	.257*	1.293	1.066	1.568
Subjective norms			.033	.017	1.017	.865	1.195
Perceived Behavioural Control				.084	.920	.788	1.074
Nagelkerke R²	.005	.028	.029	.033			

Note. N= 361 (after casewise deletion of missing data); *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001, CI = confidence interval for odds ratio.

Actual use of FWAs as an outcome of behavioural intention. In order to test whether *behavioural intention* significantly predicted *actual use of the FWAs* measured in this study, chi square analyses were conducted. The first chi square analysis used *intention to use flexible work hours* and *actual use of flexible work hours*. The model was insignificant ($\chi^2(1) = .163$ $p = .69$, $N = 371$) and thus *intention* was not found to be a significant predictor of *actual use of flexible work hours*. The second analysis introduced *intention to use telecommuting* and *actual use of telecommuting*. The results were insignificant ($\chi^2(1) = .164$ $p = .69$, $N = 371$) and *intention* therefore did not significantly predict *use of telecommuting*. The third analysis conducted introduced *intention to use working from home* and *use of working from home*. The results were again insignificant ($\chi^2(1) = .828$ $p = .36$, $N = 371$). *Intention* did not predict *use of working from home* as a FWA. Finally, *intention to use paid paternity leave* and *use of paid paternity leave* were introduced into the final chi square analysis. The model was found to be significant ($\chi^2(1) = .16.64$ $p < 0.001$, $N = 371$). Thus, there is a significant relationship between these two variables.

Actual use of FWAs as an outcome of actual behavioural control. Four binary logistic regressions were conducted. The first logistic regression utilised *use of flexible work hours* as the dependent variable and *actual behavioural control* as the covariate. The results were significant ($\chi^2(1) = 20.26$ $p < 0.001$, $N = 370$). *Actual behavioural control* explained 7.2% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in *actual use of flexible work hours* and was thus seen as a valid predictor of the dependent variable (Wald $\chi^2 = 18.84$, $p < 0.001$) and respondents with higher levels of *actual behavioural control* were 1.3 times more likely to use flexible work hours. The second binary logistic regression used *use of telecommuting* as the dependent variable and *actual behavioural control* as the covariate. The results were significant ($\chi^2(1) = 14.20$ $p < 0.001$, $N = 370$) and *actual behavioural control* explained 5.5% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in the dependent variable. Respondents with higher levels of *actual behavioural control* were 1.28 times more likely to use *telecommuting*. *Actual behavioural control* was thus a significant predictor of *use of telecommuting* as a FWA (Wald $\chi^2 = 13.14$, $p < 0.001$). The third logistic regression used *use of working from home* as the dependent variable with *actual behavioural control* as the covariate. Likewise, the results were significant ($\chi^2(1) = 25.68$ $p <$

0.001, $N = 370$) and *actual behavioural control* explained 11.3% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in *use of working from home* as a FWA. *Actual behavioural control* therefore significantly predicted the use of *working from home* ($Wald \chi^2 = 13.14, p < 0.001$). Participants with higher levels of *actual behavioural control* were 1.52 times more likely to use *working from home* as a FWA. The final binary logistic regression introduced *use of paid paternity leave* as the dependent variable with *actual behavioural control* as the covariate. The results were insignificant ($\chi^2(1) = 0.00, p = .993, N = 370$). Thus, *actual behavioural control* was not a predictor of *use of paid paternity leave* ($Wald \chi^2 = 0.00, p = .993$).

Perceived behavioural control as a proxy measure for actual behavioural control. Four binary logistic regression analyses were conducted using ABC in place of PBC, as was performed in the previous analyses. This was expected to validate the use of PBC as a proxy measure for ABC in TPB research. In the analysis using intention to use *flexible work hours* as the dependent variable, PBC significantly predicted intention ($Wald \chi^2 = 12.38, p < 0.001$). When using ABC in place of PBC, the results were very similar ($Wald \chi^2 = 10.26, p < 0.001$). Similarly, in the analysis using intention to use *telecommuting* as the dependent variable, PBC was not a significant predictor ($Wald \chi^2 = 2.44, p = .119$). ABC was then entered into this analysis in the place of PBC and again, the results were reasonably similar and both were not significant predictors of the dependent variable ($Wald \chi^2 = 1.31, p = .252$). The same approach was implemented with intention to use *working from home* as the dependent variable. This analysis yielded different results where PBC was a significant predictor of the dependent variable ($Wald \chi^2 = 10.28, p < 0.01$), however ABC was not ($Wald \chi^2 = .813, p = .25$). Finally, the same analysis was run using intention to use *paid paternity leave* as the dependent variable. The analyses yielded similar results, whereby both PBC ($Wald \chi^2 = 1.13, p = .290$) and ABC ($Wald \chi^2 = 6.91, p = 0.08$) did not significantly predict the dependent variable.

Final notes

The results of this study confirmed that attitudes and perceived behavioural control are indeed significant predictors of behavioural intention. Subjective norms were however not found to be significant in the overall models and were only significant in predicting intention to use telecommuting and intention to use working from home when perceived behavioural control was not present in the respective model. Intention was only found to predict actual use of paid paternity leave and no significant results were found for the other FWAs assessed in this study. The analyses using ABC in the place of PBC yielded similar results, thus supporting the use of PBC as a proxy measure for ABC. The three background factors assessed in this study, namely the age of one's children, the use of paid domestic support and the occupational status of one's spouse were not found to be significant predictors of behavioural intention. The findings of this study provide support for the TPB and offer valuable insight into the intention of working fathers to use FWAs. The main findings of this study are summarised in table 16.

Table 16

Summary of Research Findings

Proposition	Data Analysis Technique	Level of Support
1. Attitudes toward the use of FWAs explain a significant amount of variance in the intention to use FWAs amongst working fathers.	Hierarchical Binary Logistic Regression	Supported
2. Perceptions of subjective norms explain a significant amount of variance in the intention to use FWAs amongst working fathers.	Hierarchical Binary Logistic Regression	Supported for <i>telecommuting</i> and <i>working from home</i> (without PBC in the model)
3. Perceived behavioural control explains a significant amount of variance in the intention to use FWAs amongst working fathers.	Hierarchical Binary Logistic Regression	Supported for <i>flexible work hours</i> and <i>working from home</i>
4a. Intention to use FWAs explains a significant amount of variance in actual use of FWAs amongst working fathers.	Chi Square Analysis	Supported for <i>paid paternity leave</i>
4b. Actual behavioural control explains a significant amount of variance in actual use of FWAs amongst working fathers.	Binary Logistic Regression	Supported for <i>flexible work hours</i> , <i>telecommuting</i> and <i>working from home</i>
4c. Perceived behavioural control may be used as a proxy measure for actual behavioural control	Hierarchical Binary Logistic Regression	Fully supported

Note. FWA = flexible workplace arrangement

Discussion

The primary aim of this research was to assess the factors that predict the intentions of working fathers to use flexible workplace arrangements (FWAs) by utilising the constructs outlined by the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991; 2005; 2012). This section will discuss the main findings of this enquiry with reference to the propositions outlined in the literature review section. Implications of the research findings are discussed and suggestions for future research are presented.

Contributions of the present study

The findings of this study have contributed to research on the work family interface in a number of ways. Firstly, the research has provided theoretical support for the assessment of intentions in line with the TPB. The study has validated the theory by supporting the notion that attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control predict behavioural intention. Further, it has supported the findings of previous TPB studies, whereby subjective norms were found to be the weakest predictor of intention. Practically, this study has contributed to knowledge around working fathers in South Africa, and their intentions to make use of FWAs in the workplace.

Psychometric properties of the TPB scales

The EFA and reliability analyses of this study showed strong support for the use of TPB scales in future research. In the past, TPB scales have been criticised for being low in internal consistency. In particular, subjective norms scales have often been found to suffer from low Cronbach's co-efficient alpha values (Armitage & Connor, 2001). Sutton (1998) suggested that low internal consistency may be attributed to the use of single items making up composite scales, as often used to measure this domain. This study thus made use of multiple items per referent group to make up a composite subjective norm score. The Cronbach alpha value in this study was found to be high for subjective norms, (.941) thereby supporting Sutton's

(1998) recommendation. In addition all other Cronbach's alpha values for the TPB scales were found to be high (.885 to .911) thereby suggesting that these scales were reliable for this sample and may be portable in cross-cultural applicability.

The factor analyses supported the dimensionality of the attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and actual behavioural control scales respectively. The attitudes scale exposed one factor, as expected. The behavioural control scales exposed two factors, representing perceived behavioural control and actual behavioural control. All items were found to load strongly on the extracted factors (loadings = .485 to .955), with no significant cross loadings being revealed. The subjective norms scale revealed four extracted factors, with supervisor and top management norms loading onto the same factor. Each other norm group was found to load on single individual factors. It was decided to only assess the factor measuring management norms owing to this factor accounting for majority of the variance in the subjective norms construct. This provides insight into the importance of the norms of this referent group in the decision to use FWAs amongst this sample of working fathers. These findings suggest that the TPB scales were well-developed based on Ajzen's (2013) guidelines and adequately measured the constructs assessed in this study.

Indirect measures of the predictor variables

The TPB maintains that the direct constructs that predict behavioural intention are primarily made up of both behavioural and normative beliefs (Ajzen, 1991; 2005; 2012). Attitudes are seen to be made up of behavioural beliefs and outcome evaluations. This study found strong support for this notion, as the product of behavioural beliefs and outcome evaluations strongly correlated with the direct attitude construct. Thus, it is likely that behavioural beliefs and outcome evaluations assist in determining the attitudes that one holds toward the use of FWAs. Similarly, a moderate correlation was found between the product of normative beliefs and motivation to comply and the direct construct of subjective norms. Subjective norms encompasses the social pressure one feels to engage or not engage in a particular behaviour (Ajzen, 2012). Such norms are made up of the beliefs relating to important

referent groups and the motivation to comply with these beliefs. The correlation found in this study supports this notion. The final construct of the TPB, perceived behavioural control, is seen as an individual's perception of their ability to perform certain behaviours (Ajzen, 1991). This construct is made up of certain control beliefs. This study found a weak positive correlation between control beliefs and perceived behavioural control. Although weak, the correlation was significant and thus provides some support for the TPB's notion that perceived behavioural control is made up of indirect control beliefs.

Predictors of Behavioural Intention to use FWAs

Attitudes. When examining the intention to use FWAs as an outcome of attitudes toward using FWAs, binary logistic regression showed strong predictive influence of attitudes for all the FWAs assessed. Therefore, the positive or negative evaluation toward using FWAs significantly influenced participants' intentions or lack of intentions to use the FWAs assessed in this study. Taking into consideration the white collar, corporate context in which this study took place, this finding is not surprising and indicates that the decision to use FWAs is somewhat directed by personal choice. This finding implies that attitudes are one of the major barriers against the use of FWAs by working fathers, and thus may be the focus of certain interventions to address this phenomenon. It may be important for managers to analyse the particular attitudes assessed in this study, such as perceptions of fairness of FWA use, acceptability, usefulness and value. In so doing, particular attitudes may be targeted as barriers of the intention to use FWAs.

This study indicated that a prominent number of participants had positive attitudes toward using FWAs. This finding may link to the change in values that is occurring as described by Vandello et al. (2012), whereby there has been an apparent shift towards fathers being more interested in spending time in the family domain, rather than being solely focused on work. With working fathers improving attitudes towards using FWAs, comes the possibility of increased intention to use these practices. Again, this may be partly explained by the sample demographics, as

managers and supervisors are more likely to have control over using FWAs (Rudman & Mescher, 2013).

Attitudes were found to predict working father's intentions to use flexible work hours, telecommuting, working from home and paid paternity leave. Interestingly, attitudes were found to be the only TPB construct that significantly predicted the intention to use telecommuting when all other constructs were present in the model. Again, telecommuting is a practice largely used by employees at a management/supervisory level (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011), and thus based on the sample demographics, the attitudes toward this arrangement were likely to be positive.

Attitudes only significantly predicted the intention to use working from home when all the other TPB constructs were present in the model. In order to thus intend to use working from home as a FWA, working fathers needed to have a favourable attitude, but also needed to have some positive perceptions of subjective norms as well as higher levels of perceived behavioural control. This finding is similar to a number of findings in studies using the TPB as delineated in the meta-analysis by Armitage & Conner, (2001), whereby all TPB constructs needed to be present in the model for one construct to be significant. In addition, attitudes significantly predicted the intention to use flexible work hours and paid paternity leave and thus were found to be the strongest predictor of intentions to use FWAs. This finding is in line with a number of other TPB studies, including those assessing organisational behaviours (e.g. Griefes, 2013), who found that out of all TPB predictors, attitudes most strongly and most consistently predicted intention (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Clark-Richardson, 2003; Sandberg & Conner, 2008; Skogstad, 2003).

Ajzen (1991, p.188) argued that "the relative importance of attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control in the prediction of intention is expected to vary across behaviours and situations." Therefore, the predictive influence of attitudes is dependent upon the context and type of behaviour taking place (Skogstad, 2003). One may therefore argue that, as attitudes were significant predictors of intention to use all of the FWAs assessed in this study, it is an important factor to consider in this area, and thus should be addressed when implementing

FWAs and developing a culture that is supportive of fathers using these arrangements.

Subjective Norms. Unsurprisingly, subjective norms emerged as the weakest predictor of intention to use the FWAs assessed in this study. This has been the finding of many studies using the TPB in western contexts (Ajzen & Klobas, 2013; Armitage & Connor, 2001; Sheppard, Hartwick, & Warshaw, 1988; Skogstad, 2003). Past studies have reported that the subjective norm construct in the TPB has more relevance in non-western cultures, as decisions are more dependent on group norms than in cultures where decision-making factors are more individualistic (Fekadu & Kraft, 2002; Wilson, Zenda, McMaster, & Lavelle, 1992). This study made use of a predominantly white, professional sample in corporate settings, which may be more likely to be conducive to an individualistic culture as opposed to a rural environment, where decisions are largely dependent on social and cultural context (Wilson et al., 1992). Subjective norms were only found to predict intentions to use telecommuting and working from home. Therefore, this construct was not a significant predictor of most of the FWAs assessed in this study.

Binary logistic regression revealed that subjective norms significantly predicted telecommuting and working from home when perceived behavioural control was not present in the models. Telecommuting and working from home are arrangements that have been frowned upon by supervisors and line managers, owing to the fact that they remove supervisory control (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2010). Therefore, employees in junior positions are rarely provided with these arrangements (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2010). As these arrangements are likely to be predominantly used by more senior employees, the views of supervisors may not be as important. Interestingly, when perceived behavioural control was entered into the models, subjective norms became insignificant for both telecommuting and working from home. This may indicate that while subjective norms are significant predictors for these FWAs, when employees have higher levels of perceived behavioural control, subjective norms become unimportant.

It is important to note that the supervisory and top management subjective norms in this study were found to be relatively negative when compared with the

other TPB constructs. This indicates that respondents did not perceive top management or their supervisors to be supportive of them using FWAs. While this perception did not significantly predict their intentions to use these arrangements in the overall models, it may be important for managers to take into consideration in order to alter these perceptions in the future.

Perceived Behavioural Control. Perceived behavioural control was found to be the second strongest predictor of intentions to use FWAs in this study. Such findings provide insight into the potential constraints to use FWAs, as perceived by working fathers (Armitage & Conner, 2001). Participants reported low perceived control over using FWAs, indicating prominent perceived constraints to using these arrangements. Ajzen (1991) explained that people would be more inclined to develop an intention to perform a behaviour, if they believe that behaviour to be achievable. Thus, with little perceived control, working fathers were likely to have lower intentions to use the various FWAs.

Perceived behavioural control significantly predicted the intention to use two of the FWAs assessed in this study. Firstly, perceived behavioural control predicted intention to use flexible work hours. This arrangement is characterised by giving employee's the freedom to allocate their work time as they see fit (O'Brien & Hayden, 2008). Thus, as working fathers would have the authority to allocate their working time in a way that is most effective for them, they would need to have control over this process. Consequently, those employees who had higher perceived control were more likely to intend to use flexible work hours than those who felt they had low control over this behaviour. This arrangement has been found to be widely offered to employees and thus is a prominent focus area, specifically in the South African context. 90% of a sample of JSE listed companies were found to offer this practice (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2010) and thus, it is important for such companies to note that in order for working fathers to intend to use this arrangement, it is important that they feel they have control over how they allocate their time.

Perceived behavioural control was also found to significantly predict working father's intention to use working from home as a FWA. Working from home is seen

as the allowance for an employee to predominantly work from their home, rather than any other location (Allen, 2001; Ferber & O'Farrel, 1991; Grobler & De Bruyn, 2010). In order to be productive in a home environment, workers would need to be disciplined and have control over their day-to-day work processes (O'Brien & Hayden, 2008). It is therefore not surprising that high levels of perceived behavioural control predicted increased intentions to use working from home as a FWA. Organisations are encouraged to be cognisant of the finding that employees need to perceive themselves as being in control of the process in order to intend to use this arrangement. In order to thus ensure that working fathers intend to use working from home when it is offered, it is important for them to feel they have control over the process.

Interestingly, perceived behavioural control did not predict the intention to use paid paternity leave as a FWA. In a South African context, paid paternity leave is not legislatively required (Jackman, 2014). While most of the organisations sampled in this study offered some form of paternity leave allowance, these allowances were found to be minimal. For example, a prominent corporate organisation sampled in this study offered working fathers paternity leave only if they had been working at the organisation for over one year, and when this was the case, only four paid days were offered. Organisations must be cognisant of the finding that working fathers feel that they have little control over using paternity leave. As increasing attention is starting to be given to the inclusion of paid paternity leave in South African labour legislation (Jackman, 2014), organisations should be cognisant to provide adequate control and support for this arrangement, should it be offered to working fathers.

Comparison of findings with other TPB studies

Overall, reviews of the TPB maintain that it may be applied to a number of different behaviour types (Ajzen, 1991; Armitage & Conner, 2001; Sutton, 1998). The prominent meta-analysis conducted by Armitage and Conner (2001) combined the findings of previous TPB reviews including those conducted by Ajzen (1991) in order to develop a coherent understanding of the TPB constructs. The findings of this study are compared with those of Armitage and Connor (2001) (Table 17). The

pattern of results found in the present study are somewhat similar to this meta-analysis. While the comparison of this study should be interpreted slightly differently, owing to the dichotomous nature of the dependent variables, it is clear that intention to use certain FWAs measured in this study were similarly predicted by the TPB constructs as those intentions measured in previous studies. Noticeably, the predictive power of subjective norms is lower in this study to those observed by Armitage and Conner (2001). This is likely attributed to the lower variance in the dichotomous intention variables assessed in this study. The predictive power of attitudes and perceived behavioural control were comparable to those found in the meta-analysis. Furthermore, the correlations between the indirect and direct measures of the TPB constructs were found to be similar in the present study and Armitage and Conner's (2001) findings.

Table 17

Comparison of relationship between Armitage and Conner's (2001) meta analysis and the present study

TPB Relationships	Size of Relationship	
	Armitage and Conner (2001)	Present Study
Prediction of BI by PBC (Beta)	.52***	-.13 to .29**
PBC – BI Correlation	.37***	-.009 to .23**
Prediction of BI by SN (Beta)	.63***	-.004 to .017
SN – BI Correlation	.34***	-.036 to .29**
Prediction of BI by ATT	.63***	.26** to .40**
ATT – BI Correlation	.49***	.04 to .12**
Behavioural belief – ATT correlation	.50***	.60**
Normative Belief – ATT correlation	.50***	.38**
Control Belief – PBC Correlation	.52***	.20**

Note. BI = behavioural intention; PBC = perceived behavioural control; ATT = attitude; SN = subjective norms

Background factors. None of the background factors assessed in this study were found to significantly predict the intention to use any of the FWAs amongst the sample of working fathers. This study assessed whether having children under the age of five, having a spouse without a full time job and using paid domestic support significantly predicted the intention to use the various FWAs in line with previous research findings on general employee samples (Aycan & Eskin, 2005; Spector, 2007; Whitehouse et al., 2007). The difference in findings may be due to the dissimilar sample as this study assessed working fathers in particular. Further research is needed into the impact of background factors, which may include other factors outside of the scope of this study.

Behavioural intention as a predictor of actual behaviour

The TPB/TRA theorists argued that the predictive relationship between intentions and behaviour should be positive and strong (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Ajzen, 1991). Intentions are viewed as the most prominent predictor of actual behaviour, suggesting that people will generally act upon an intention. This notion has been widely supported and 22% to 36% of the variance in actual behaviour has been found to be explained by behavioural intention (Armitage & Conner, 2001). Armitage and Conner also argued that the predictive relationship between intention and behaviour is stronger when self-report measures are used. The present study found little support for this argument, and intention did not predict behaviour for most of the FWAs assessed in the study. This was in line with the findings of Skogstad (2003) who also found no relationship between intention and behaviour when a self-report measure was used. In this study, intentions to use *flexible work hours*, *telecommuting* and *working from home* did not predict the actual use of these arrangements. These findings suggest two main possibilities: there may be an absence of a relationship between intentions and behaviour for the current context, or the way in which the constructs were measured failed to detect a relationship that may actually exist. These possibilities are examined in turn.

The intention-behaviour relationship is non-existent for working fathers using FWAs. The context of working fathers in a corporate setting as opposed to a

non-corporate environment may have lowered the potential relationship between the intentions to use various FWAs and the actual use of these arrangements. Specifically, the low levels of actual behavioural control found in this context may not have allowed working fathers to use the FWAs, even when they intended to. It is important to note that the levels of actual behavioural control reported in this study were significantly below the midpoint of the scale, indicating that working fathers had very little actual ability to make use of the FWAs assessed. Ajzen (2012) argued that while intention is seen as the main predictor of behaviour, the person must have actual behavioural control in order for participation in the behaviour to take place. As working fathers are often seen as the primary bread-winners and are the predominant occupants of top management positions in corporate organisations in South Africa (Smit, 2002), the nature of their work, position and demographics may not allow for them to use FWAs, even if they intend to. Further, previous research has noted that there remains a stigma around working fathers using FWAs in order to attend to family responsibilities (Rudman & Mescher, 2012; Vandello et al., 2012; Veiga et al., 2004), which may further decrease the control fathers have to use these arrangements. Additionally, participants may have been using FWAs due to the nature of their work for example, telecommuting in order to visit different work spaces or flexible work hours in the context of shift work. Therefore, some participants may have used the arrangements for operational reasons, rather than for personal motivation to balance their home and work responsibilities. This is in line with Skogstad's (2003) finding, where help seeking among inmates took place for operational reasons, rather than through personal motivation. It is however most likely that the corporate environment and low levels of actual behavioural control weakened the intention-behaviour relationship in this study.

The measurement of actual behaviour was unable to detect a relationship between intention and behaviour. As noted in the method section, use of and intention to use FWAs were both measured as dichotomous variables on a self-report scale. While Armitage and Conner (2001) argued that self-report behavioural measures generally improve the intention-behaviour relationship, this was not found in this study. Both the intention and behaviour measures forced participants to select one option, not allowing for large variance in either variable.

Therefore, the reduced variance may have contributed to the lack of relationship. This finding is similar to that of Skogstad (2003) who found no relationship between the intention to seek help and the actual behaviour of help-seeking amongst prison inmates. Perhaps if seven-point Likert-type scales were used, which are most commonly used in TPB research (Ajzen, 2012), the analyses would have yielded different results. Additionally, the use of a self-report behaviour measure could have given rise to error in measurement (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2006). By using an indirect, self-reported measure of the actual behaviours under consideration, accuracy cannot be assumed. Again, if more time was available and a direct measure such as observation or examination of company records had been used to determine actual behaviour, perhaps the results would have differed to those that have been reported.

Intention and behaviour: Paid paternity leave. The only FWA for which a predictive relationship was found between intention and behaviour was paid paternity leave. This finding alluded to the perception that paternity leave is not seen as a flexibility policy as suggested by Veiga et al. (2004), but rather as a leave entitlement. Increased attention has recently been focused on paternity leave in the South African context, with a White Paper on families being submitted to parliament, calling for the inclusion of ten days paid paternity leave in the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (1997). The findings of this study provide valuable insight into this phenomenon, and suggest that working fathers do have intentions to use paternity leave, and these intentions do lead to the actual use of the arrangement. This finding is important for managers, organisations and government in the debate over whether to include paternity leave in the country's labour legislation.

Actual behavioural control as a predictor of behaviour

As previously noted, actual behavioural control is an important construct to consider in the prediction of actual behaviour (Ajzen, 2012). In order to further analyse this point, binary logistic regression was run with actual behavioural control as a predictor of actual use of the various FWAs. The findings for flexible work hours, telecommuting and working from home were significant, accounting for up to 11.3%

of the variance in the target behaviour. These findings further illustrate that working fathers need to have actual control over using FWAs, in order for actual use to take place. As explained previously, actual behavioural control was found to be extremely low in this study, possibly hindering intentions from leading to behaviours. It is important for organisations to note that without actual control over using a FWA, it is unlikely that use will take place. Therefore, providing fathers with control should be a focus of future interventions, in order to ensure working fathers make use of the various FWAs offered.

Interestingly, actual behavioural control did not predict the use of paid paternity leave. This further illustrates that paid paternity leave is viewed in a different light to the other flexibility arrangements assessed in this study. These results may be due to the fact that although paternity leave was offered in some form by the organisations sampled in this study, a stigma may still exist around fathers making use of it (Rudman & Mescher, 2012). While paternity leave was found to be included in the formal leave policies of most of the companies sampled, it is suggested that a stigma still exists around applying for this entitlement. Thus, although fathers have actual control over using paid paternity leave as it is a formal leave allowance, they may still not feel comfortable using the arrangement, in fear of portraying an image that is not in line with that of an 'ideal organisational citizen' (Vandello et al., 2008). As there is the possibility of the inclusion of paid paternity leave in the labour legislation of South Africa, it is important to be cognisant of this possible stigma, and aim strategies at lessening its impact.

Perceived behavioural control as a proxy measure for actual behavioural control

The theory of planned behaviour maintains that perceived behavioural control (PBC) is a predictor of actual behavioural control (ABC) (Ajzen & Klobas, 2013). As measuring ABC has proven more difficult than PBC in TPB research, Ajzen (2005) argued that PBC may be used as a proxy measure for ABC. This study aimed to assess this argument and thus, three items measured ABC in the measurement scales. This method may be criticised for still utilising self-report data however it was the most appropriate method for the current study given time and resource

restrictions. It was intended that the results of this analysis would further validate the use of PBC as a proxy measure for ABC. The EFA analysis showed PBC and ABC to be distinct constructs, representing different dimensions. After adding measures of ABC in the same way that measures of PBC had previously been used, most of the analyses showed the same predictive influence on intention for both predictors. This confirmed that PBC and ABC had very similar influences on intention and thus has empirically supported the notion that PBC can be used as a proxy measure when ABC cannot be measured. This finding is in line with what was found by Ajzen and Klobas (2013) who found similar results when entering self-reports of both PBC and ABC into regression analyses. As ABC is a relatively underused construct of the TPB (Ajzen, 2012), this research provides knowledge around the construct and further, supports its use in future TPB research.

Limitations and suggestions for future research

While this study has contributed to the literature relating to the TPB as well as the experiences of working fathers in a South African context, a few limitations should be addressed in future research assessing this topic.

Firstly, it is suggested that future research adopt a longitudinal approach in order to allow for causal inferences among the variables assessed in this study. As this study was cross-sectional in nature, whereby participant's attitudes, perceptions of subjective norms and perceived behavioural control were measured at a single point in time, causality cannot be assumed (Spector, 1994). Adopting a longitudinal approach would allow for the assessment of intentions to use FWAs from a long term perspective, and thus allow for the observation of intentions leading to actual behaviours. Adopting a more long term approach would also facilitate the conduction of pilot studies, allowing for the direct measures assessing the TPB constructs to be solely based on the indirect assumptions behind these measures. While this study did assess the indirect beliefs behind the direct constructs, it is desirable to measure these in a pilot study and then base the development of the direct items on these findings. It is however useful to take into consideration the recommendation by Aryee, Srinivas and Tan (2005) who suggested that longitudinal data is only seen as

useful when the time lag for any given relationship is predetermined. It may be difficult to determine the time lag between the intention to use FWAs and the actual use of these arrangements, and thus researchers are cautioned to take this consideration into account.

It must be noted that the method used to measure intentions to use FWAs and actual use of FWAs decreased the amount of variance that can be assessed in these variables. As participants were only able to select from two options (use/do not use; intend to use/do not intend to use), the spread across selected scores was minimal. Similarly to the study conducted by Skogstad (2003), this study assessed intention and behaviour as dichotomous variables. While the study used logistic regression to account for this measurement method, it is suggested that future research on intentions possibly make use of seven-point Likert-type scales as suggested by Ajzen (2013) in order to assess increased variance in the dependent variables.

It is suggested that future research make use of multiple methods in their assessment of the TPB constructs, allowing for a greater understanding of intentions to use FWAs. The present study only made use of self-report questionnaires, which may have led to mono-method bias (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002). A major critique of self-report questionnaires is that they are regarded as subjective in nature and thus may lead to response bias. In the context of this specific study, social desirability bias may have occurred whereby fathers were likely to be hesitant to reflect their true views in fear of being stigmatised (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Precautions were however taken to remedy this occurrence, and an anonymous online survey was thus used. It is suggested that an alternative method be used to assess actual behaviour, as self-report data has been found to limit the predictive power of intentions on actual behaviour (Skogstad, 2003). Self-report methodologies are however widely used in TPB research, and while this is often reported as a methodological limitation, such criticisms are often arguably overstated (Behson, 2002).

Future research in the area of FWAs is urged to place more focus on informal flexibility. While this study descriptively assessed control over informal flexibility in the workplace, this variable was not assessed as an outcome of the TPB constructs owing to differences in response formats. It is suggested that this variable be inferentially assessed in future research, as it is likely to produce different results to those FWAs that are formally offered (Thompson et al., 1999).

While the findings of this study were collected from a number of different organisations, it is important to note that the respondents were predominantly white collar employees, who worked in a corporate environment. Additionally, over half of the participants that took part were white, and similarly, half of the participating employees were in a management or supervisory position. This lends itself to a very specific sample, thus limiting the generalisability of the results. Replication of this study amongst varying samples in South Africa may be beneficial in broadening the findings of this research.

Theoretical Implications

Theoretically, this study has added to the literature using the TPB in a South African context. It has provided support for the main TPB constructs as predictors of behavioural intention and produced similar findings to that of previous studies utilising this theory. Attitudes were found to be the most significant predictor of behavioural intention, followed by perceived behavioural control. In line with previous findings (Ajzen & Klobas, 2013; Armitage & Conner, 2001; Clark-Richardson, 2003), subjective norms was found to be the weakest predictor of intention. This study supported a previous finding relating to the response format of actual behaviour. Skogstad (2003) found that the use of self-reported responses regarding actual behaviour negatively affected the intention-behaviour relationship. Overwhelmingly, this study did not find a predictive relationship between intention and behaviour and this finding may support the notion that actual behaviour could be measured with alternative methods. This study also supported the argument that perceived behavioural control may be used as a proxy measure for actual behavioural control. As actual behavioural control is a largely unmeasured construct in the theory (Ajzen,

2012), it is important for studies to validate the argument that perceived behavioural control may be used as a proxy for this construct. This study has supported this argument. Finally, this study has further added to the literature relating to the predictive power of actual behavioural control. As the study found that actual behavioural control was a strong predictor of actual use of FWAs, further support is provided for the inclusion of this construct in future TPB research.

This study is also one of a limited number that has empirically assessed the experiences of working fathers. Further, as few studies have specifically assessed the factors that facilitate the noticeable underutilisation of FWAs among working fathers specifically, this study has aimed to narrow this gap, and in so doing, provided insight into the reluctance of working fathers to use FWAs.

Practical Implications

The interface between an individual's work and family life has become a primary concern for individuals and organisations and has presented a prominent challenge for employers (Veiga et al., 2004). Major changes in the way that families and workforces are composed as well as a prominent change in values amongst working fathers (Vandello et al., 2008) has increased the probability that both men and women will hold family responsibilities in addition to those responsibilities they hold at work (Allen, 2001). Organisations have increased their implementation of FWAs in order to support such employees, however these arrangements remain largely underutilised, specifically by men (Veiga et al., 2004). The results of this study have provided insight into this phenomenon, that may assist organisations in the development of FWAs, and the way in which they may be implemented to ensure proper utilisation and in turn, improved work-family balance for male employees.

The implementation of flexible work arrangements. While all of the participating organisations in this study provided certain FWAs, the results of this study may aid in the way in which these arrangements are implemented. The arrangements that were widely used in this study were flexible work hours, telecommuting, working from home and paid paternity leave. This provides insight

into the need for these arrangements among working fathers, and thus organisations are encouraged to be cognisant of their implementation. It is important to note that the actual behavioural control over using FWAs in this study was extremely low and further, the control over using informal FWAs was considerably lower than the midpoint of the scale. This may allude to the trend that organisations implement FWAs, however provide little control to employees who wish to use such arrangements. As perceived behavioural control was found to be a significant predictor of behavioural intention, control is seen as an important construct in the intention to use FWAs. Organisations are urged to be cognisant of this finding and begin to provide employees with the control required to make use of the flexible arrangements offered.

Support for the use of flexible work arrangements. In addition to perceived behavioural control, this study found that attitudes and to some degree, subjective norms, predicted the intention to use FWAs in working fathers. Attitudes evaluated in this study included those that assess the extent to which a working father feels that using a FWA will negatively affect their organisational image. Furthermore, attitudes relating to the fairness of FWA implementation were assessed, whereby if working fathers feel that the implementation of FWAs is unfair, they will be more likely to have an overall negative attitude toward using FWAs. Similarly, subjective norms assessed the extent to which supervisors and top management supported the use of FWAs. The finding that these elements predict the intentions to use FWAs among working fathers depict how important support for these arrangements is. Without the support of superiors, working fathers are unlikely to intend to use flexible arrangements (Veiga et al., 2004) and therefore, organisations must ensure that they not only implement such arrangements, but also openly support their utilisation and aim to create a culture that is supportive of balancing dual roles. Therefore, organisations should not only introduce FWAs, but assess and modify the ways in which performance is defined and measured, which will aid in developing a setting where employees are able to effectively perform in both work and family environments (Behson, 2002). Further, given that the request to use a FWA is most often made to an employee's supervisor (Kossek et al., 2006), line managers must be made aware of the benefits of these arrangements for both their employees and

the organisation as a whole. Managers are thus encouraged to be sensitive to the part they play in the use of flexible arrangements in the workplace as well as the concerns of their employees relating to perceived fairness, compliance and image costs (Veiga et al., 2004). Working fathers are increasingly identifying and pursuing organisations that allow them to fulfil their family obligations, while still performing in the work domain (Theunissen, Van Vuuren, & Visser, 2003). By implementing and supporting the use of flexible work arrangements while taking into account the factors that are likely to increase their use, organisations are likely to attract and retain a more skilled workforce. Therefore, rather than facilitating implementation to avoid legal penalties, organisations are encouraged to develop values and actions that aim to meet the needs of their employees in both their work and family domains.

Conclusion

The availability of flexible workplace arrangements (FWAs) has increased significantly in the last twenty years (Veiga et al., 2004). Evidence shows that working fathers are reluctant to use these arrangements for various reasons (Rudman & Mescher, 2012; Vandello et al., 2012; Veiga et al., 2004). This study has extended the limited research on this phenomenon in the South African context and specifically assessed the experiences of working fathers as opposed to mothers who have been more extensively sampled.

The findings of this study suggest that attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control are significant predictors of the intention to use FWAs amongst working fathers in a corporate South African environment. This finding provides support for the theory of planned behaviour in the assessment of work-related behaviours. This study highlighted that working fathers seem to be experiencing very low levels of actual behavioural control, which may be acting as a barrier against intentions developing into actual behaviours. It was revealed that attitudes, followed by perceived behavioural control were the most important predictors of intentions to use FWAs amongst working fathers. It is therefore important that these constructs form the basis of interventions aimed at addressing reluctance to use these arrangements. While it is encouraging that participants reported positive attitudes toward using FWAs, reported negative perceptions of subjective norms and low levels of control were evident and thus indicate the need for interventions to be conducted in the area of FWAs, particularly targeted at working fathers.

As increasing numbers of women continue to enter the South African workforce, the demands experienced by working fathers in the family domain increase (Smit, 2002). It is therefore important for organisations to evaluate the constructs that influence positive work-related outcomes and design and implement flexibility arrangements that are well utilised by the male workforce, in order to attend to the increasing change in values whereby fathers wish to spend more time attending to family responsibilities (Vandello et al., 2012). These considerations have

important implications for managers and organisations aiming to enhance performance in an increasingly competitive market.

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Appendix A

A list of the measures used in this study.

SCALE 1:

Flexible arrangements at work

Listed below are seven flexible workplace arrangements (FWAs) commonly offered by organisations.

In column 1: Please place an X next to the FWAs offered by your organisation.

In column 2: Please place an X next to the FWAs you currently use or have used in the past.

In column 3: please place an X next to the FWAs you would use in the future if they were available.

FWA	Available at your organisation.	Have used or currently using	Would use in future
Flexible work hours e.g. working 7am to 3pm instead of 9am to 5pm			
Compressed work week e.g. working four 10-hour days			
Telecommuting e.g. working from a location (other than the workplace or home) but being available via email or phone			
Working from home e.g. working from home on a regular basis but not necessarily every day			
Paid paternity leave i.e., paid leave given to you to allow you to take time off when your baby is born			
Unpaid paternity leave i.e., unpaid leave given to you to allow you to take time off when your baby is born			
Job Sharing i.e., have a colleague share your work so that you may work reduced hours.			

Informal flexibility at work

Please indicate how much control you feel you have over the following aspects of work time and place:

1. How much choice do you have over when you begin and end each workday or each workweek?

Very little: ___1___ : ___2___ : ___3___ : ___4___ : ___5___ Very much

2. How much choice do you have to leave work early or arrive late to attend to other responsibilities?

Very little: ___1___ : ___2___ : ___3___ : ___4___ : ___5___ Very much

3. To what extent can you choose to do some of your work at home instead of your usual place of employment?

Very little: ___1___ : ___2___ : ___3___ : ___4___ : ___5___ Very much

4. To what extent can you choose to work from a location other than your workplace or home if you remain available via email or phone?

Very little: ___1___ : ___2___ : ___3___ : ___4___ : ___5___ Very much

5. How much control do you have over when you can take a few hours off to attend to other responsibilities?

Very little: ___1___ : ___2___ : ___3___ : ___4___ : ___5___ Very much

SCALE 2:

Attitudes

Please indicate your opinion of the following items by responding from 1 to 7.

My using flexible work arrangements would be:

bad : ___1___ : ___2___ : ___3___ : ___4___ : ___5___ : ___6___ : ___7___ : good

My using flexible work arrangements would be

unpleasant : ___1___ : ___2___ : ___3___ : ___4___ : ___5___ : ___6___ : ___7___ : pleasant

For me to use flexible work arrangements on a regular basis is

unacceptable : ___1___ : ___2___ : ___3___ : ___4___ : ___5___ : ___6___ : ___7___ : acceptable

For me use flexible work arrangements on a regular basis is

extremely worthless : ___1___ : ___2___ : ___3___ : ___4___ : ___5___ : ___6___ : ___7___ : extremely valuable

For me to use flexible work arrangements on a regular basis is

unuseful : ___1___ : ___2___ : ___3___ : ___4___ : ___5___ : ___6___ : ___7___ : useful

As a working father, for me to use flexible work arrangements is

unfair : ___1___ : ___2___ : ___3___ : ___4___ : ___5___ : ___6___ : ___7___ : fair

Indirect measures

Behavioural beliefs:

My using flexible work arrangements would result in a better balance between my work and home lives

unlikely : ___1___ : ___2___ : ___3___ : ___4___ : ___5___ : ___6___ : ___7___ : likely

Flexible work arrangements provide an opportunity to working parents to better their work-life balance

Strongly disagree : ___1___ : ___2___ : ___3___ : ___4___ : ___5___ : ___6___ : ___7___ : Strongly agree

Working parents benefit from using flexible work arrangements

Strongly disagree : ___1___ : ___2___ : ___3___ : ___4___ : ___5___ : ___6___ : ___7___ : Strongly agree

Outcome evaluations

My having a better balance between my work and home lives is

unimportant : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : important

Balancing work and home lives is important for working parents

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

If I knew I would be able to spend more time with my family, I would be more likely to use flexible work arrangements

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

SCALE 3:

Subjective norms

Please indicate your opinion of the following items by responding from 1 to 7.

Supervisor:

My supervisor thinks I should use flexible work arrangements when I need to

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

My supervisor expects me to use flexible work arrangements when I need to

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

My supervisor would approve of me using a flexible work arrangement

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

Top Management:

Top management thinks I should use flexible work arrangements when I need to

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

Top Management expects me to use flexible work arrangements when I need to

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

Top Management would approve of me using a flexible work arrangements

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

Co-workers:

My co-workers think I should use flexible work arrangements when I need to

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

My co-workers expect me to use flexible work arrangements when I need to

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

My co-workers would approve of me using a flexible work arrangement

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

Spouse:

My spouse thinks I should use flexible work arrangements when I need to

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

My spouse expects me to use flexible work arrangements when I need to

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

My spouse would approve of me using a flexible work arrangement

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

Friends:

My friends think I should use flexible work arrangements when I need to

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

My friends expect me to use flexible work arrangements when I need to

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

My friends would approve of me using a flexible work arrangement

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

Indirect measures

Normative beliefs

The opinion of my supervisor is important to me

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

The opinion of top management is important to me

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

The opinion of my co-workers is important to me

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

The opinion of my spouse is important to me

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

The opinion of my friends is important to me

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

Motivation to comply

Generally speaking, I do what my supervisor wants me to do regarding flexible work arrangements

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

Generally speaking, I do what top management wants me to do regarding flexible work arrangements

Strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : Strongly agree

Generally speaking, I do what my co-workers want me to do regarding flexible work arrangements

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Strongly disagree : __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ : __6__ : __7__ : Strongly agree

Generally speaking, I do what my spouse wants me to do regarding flexible work arrangements

Strongly disagree : __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ : __6__ : __7__ : Strongly agree

Generally speaking, I do what my friends want me to do regarding flexible work arrangements

Strongly disagree : __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ : __6__ : __7__ : Strongly agree

SCALE 4:

Perceived Behavioural Control

Direct measures

Please indicate your opinion of the following items by responding from 1 to 7.

For me to use flexible work arrangements on a regular basis is

extremely difficult : __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ : __6__ : __7__ : extremely easy

Whether or not I use flexible work arrangements on a regular basis is completely up to me

strongly disagree : __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ : __6__ : __7__ : strongly agree

I am confident that if I wanted to I could use flexible work arrangements on a regular basis

Definitely false : __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ : __6__ : __7__ : definitely true

I feel in complete control over whether I use flexible work arrangements or not

strongly disagree : __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ : __6__ : __7__ : strongly agree

Indirect measures

Control belief power

If I encountered unanticipated events that placed demands on my time, it would make it more difficult for me to use flexible work arrangements on a regular basis

strongly disagree : __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ : __6__ : __7__ : strongly agree

Control belief strength

How often do you encounter unanticipated events that place demands on your time?

very frequently : __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ : __6__ : __7__ : very rarely

SCALE 5:

Actual behavioural control

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

The nature of the industry I work in allows me to use flexible workplace arrangements

strongly disagree : __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ : __6__ : __7__ : strongly agree

The nature of my job allows me to use flexible workplace arrangements

strongly disagree : __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ : __6__ : __7__ : strongly agree

My current position in this company allows me to use flexible workplace arrangements

strongly disagree : __ 1 __ : __ 2 __ : __ 3 __ : __ 4 __ : __ 5 __ : __ 6 __ : __ 7 __ : strongly agree