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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE USE OF FLEXIBLE WORKPLACE
ARRANGEMENTS AND SATISFACTION WITH WORK-FAMILY BALANCE
AMONGST WORKING FATHERS.

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COMPLUSORY DECLARATION

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Abstract

This study examined the relationship between the use of flexible work arrangements and satisfaction with work-family balance amongst working fathers in South Africa. Two types of flexible work arrangements were examined. Formal flexible work arrangements included flextime, flexplace and paternity leave. Informal flexibility was examined as job control. Survey responses were collected online via Qualtrics (2014). Based on the data from a sample of working fathers employed on a full-time basis in South Africa ($N = 371$), hierarchical regression analyses indicated that the use of flexible work arrangements was not significantly related to satisfaction with work-family balance. This finding was inconsistent with conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) whereby it was expected that using flexible work arrangements would generate employee resources required to effectively manage multiple role responsibilities, therefore facilitating satisfaction with work-family balance. Interestingly however, job control was found to explain a significant proportion of variance in satisfaction with work-family balance over and above work hours, commute time, neuroticism and number of children living at home. Moderated multiple regression analysis indicated that commute time moderated the relationship between job control and satisfaction with work-family balance such that as job control increased, employees with high and low commute time experienced greater satisfaction with work-family balance. The results of this study encourage greater attention to employee characteristics, such as job control, that represent resources useful for the effective management of work and family roles. Suggestions for future research and management implications are discussed.

Key words: work-family balance, flexible work arrangements, job control, conservation of resources, working fathers, South Africa

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Table of Contents

Abstract	i
Acknowledgements	ii
Table of Contents	iii
List of Tables	v
Introduction	1
Research Context	1
Research Aims and Objectives	3
Research Question	4
Structure of the Dissertation.....	4
Literature Review	5
Theoretical Framework	5
Role theory.	5
Scarcity hypothesis.....	5
Enhancement hypothesis.	6
Conceptualisation of SWFB	7
Development of SWFB.	8
FWAs	13
Flextime and flexplace.	14
Paternity leave.	16
Job control.	17
Demographic Control Variables	18
FWAs and SWFB.....	19
Conservation of resources theory.	20
Method	26
Research Design	26
Sampling	26
Participants	27
Measures	28
SWFB.	28
FWAs.....	29
Job control.	29

FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENTS AND SATISFACTION WITH WORK-FAMILY BALANCE

Demographic and control variables.	30
Procedure	31
Statistical Analysis	32
Results	34
Exploratory Factor Analysis	34
SWFB scale.....	35
Job control scale.....	35
Neuroticism scale.	36
Reliability Analysis	37
Descriptive Statistics.....	38
Correlation Analysis	39
Regression Analysis	40
Commute time as potential moderator.....	42
Assumptions of multiple regression.	44
ANOVA	45
Final Notes.....	45
Discussion	47
Contributions of this Study	47
The psychometric properties of SWFB and job control scales.....	47
Use of FWAs and SWFB.	48
Job control and SWFB.....	50
Commute time as a moderator of job control and SWFB.....	55
Management Implications	56
Suggestions for Future Research	57
Conclusion	60
References.....	62
Appendix A	74
A list of measurement scales used in this study.....	74
Appendix B	77
Item-total statistics for summary scales.	77

List of Tables

Table 1: <i>Framework of FWAs used in this study</i>	14
Table 2: <i>Percentage of FWAs used amongst 85 JSE listed companies</i>	16
Table 3: <i>Demographic characteristics of the sample</i>	28
Table 4: <i>Results of Principal-Axis Factoring for the SWFB Scale</i>	35
Table 5: <i>Results of Principal-axis Factoring for the Job Control Scale</i>	36
Table 6: <i>Results of Principal-Axis Factoring for the Neuroticism Scale</i>	37
Table 7: <i>Mean, Standard Deviation and Correlation Analysis for Indicators</i>	38
Table 8: <i>Descriptive Statistics for Summary Scales</i>	39
Table 9: <i>Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Dependent Variable: SWFB</i>	42
Table 10: <i>Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Dependent Variable: SWFB</i>	43
Table 11: <i>Propositions and Summary of Results</i>	46

List of Figures

Figure 1. <i>Conceptual framework of the proposed relationships in this study</i>	20
Figure 2. <i>The Moderating Effect of Commute Time on the Relationship between Job control and SWFB</i>	44

Introduction

Research Context

In the past decade, how to achieve a satisfactory balance between work and family life has become a central concern for working fathers and many of the organisations that employ them (Beham, Prag & Drobnic, 2012; Valcour, 2007). The diversity of family structures in the 21st century provides an important motivation to research satisfaction with work-family balance, as opposed to specified levels of work-family balance. Dual-earner couples, single parents and working parents caring for dependents have diverse perceptions of what it means to have balance between work and family (Abendroth & Den Dulk, 2011). For example, a dual-earner couple, where both partners have careers, may have different needs for satisfaction with work-family balance than a couple in which only one partner works full-time (Hill, Hawkins, Ferris, Weitzman, 2001). As traditional gender role ideologies give way to more egalitarian perspectives, working fathers are expected to be more involved and engaged in family responsibilities. This transition however, has not fully replaced the dominance of the male breadwinner role that remains prevalent in South Africa (Booyesen & Nkomo, 2010). Rather, in societies with patriarchal histories, working fathers are expected to first fulfil work responsibilities and then the family role. South Africa is still largely patriarchal and gender stereotypes are prominent. Moreover, men continue to dominate senior positions in organisations (Booyesen & Nkomo, 2010) and thus tend to experience higher work demands compared to employees at lower level positions. In addition, the notion of the ideal worker, an employee that is completely devoted to work, works longer hours than prescribed, does not have family responsibilities and thus requires minimal accommodation for personal life, is still evident in contemporary workplaces (Beham et al., 2012). How working fathers perceive satisfaction with work-family balance (SWFB) in the face of simultaneous yet sometimes conflicting expectations is thus important to research. Additionally, compared to women, men's experience of managing work and family roles has gained little attention in academic literature and thus deserves attention (Dermott, 2008).

SWFB is a new and important construct in the work-family literature. Few studies have examined SWFB specifically, or perceptions of work-family balance in general (Beham & Drobnic, 2010, Beham et al., 2012; McNamara, Pitt-Catsoupes,

Matz-Costa; Brown & Valcour, 2013; Milkie & Peltola, 1999, Milkie, Kendig, Nomaguchi, Denny, 2010; Valcour, 2007). SWFB is distinct from measures of work-family balance that have dominated work-family literature (Valcour, 2007). Rather, SWFB is a perceptual construct measuring an individual's overall contentment resulting from an appraisal of how well they believe they have succeeded in meeting work and family demands (Valcour, 2007). It is a purely subjective assessment of work-family balance, as opposed to an assessment of a specified level of balance (Beham & Drobnic, 2010). The subjectivity of satisfaction is what makes SWFB a valuable and important construct to research. SWFB recognises that individuals have different beliefs, values and expectations of work and family roles and therefore varied perceptions of what is required to achieve a satisfactory balance between work and family (Abendroth & Den Dulk, 2011). For example, a father that works at an organisation all day and only spends an hour with his children in the evening may be equally as satisfied with his work-family balance as another father who believes he needs to work from home so that he can be involved with childcare throughout the day, in order to be satisfied with work-family balance. Scholars and organisations cannot decide if working fathers have achieved work-family balance as this disregards the fact that people value different ideals based on their personal circumstances and environment.

Organisations have recognised working fathers' needs to manage work and family responsibilities as it promotes favourable outcomes for employees and the organisation (Saltzstein, Ting & Saltzstein, 2001). Research findings have indicated that employees' ability to manage work and family responsibilities is related to decreased employee turnover (Beham & Drobnic, 2010) and increased job satisfaction, organisational commitment (Patton & McMahon, 2006) and wellbeing (Abendroth & Den Dulk, 2011). The pressure that organisations face from global competition to recruit and retain valuable human capital highlights the importance of assisting employees to fulfil role responsibilities (Saltzstein et al., 2001). Employees have begun to re-evaluate decisions regarding choice of employer, willingness to stay at an organisation and job commitment based on opportunities that organisations offer for promoting SWFB (Beham & Drobnic, 2010; Valcour, 2007).

Recognising the importance of responding to these issues as a strategic talent management and retention tool, organisations have increasingly adopted flexible workplace arrangements (FWAs) (Allen, Johnson, Kiburz & Shockley, 2013; Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Valcour, 2007). In South Africa, organisations such as Nedbank, Accenture and British American Tobacco South Africa, among others, have integrated FWAs as an essential part of their human resource management system (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011). FWAs are regarded as a hallmark of good management practice (Hill, Grzywacz, Allen, Blanchard, Matz-Costa, Shulkin, & Pitt-Catsouphes, 2008) and a necessity in the contemporary workforce (Halpern, 2004). Drawing on conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989), it is proposed that when employees use FWAs, they acquire resources that assist them to manage work and family responsibilities and to experience satisfaction in doing so. FWAs are a valuable resource as they provide employees with flexibility in the time and location of work thereby making it easier for employees to better manage increased workplace demands, as well as the unpredictable demands of being a parent (Allen et al., 2013; Grzywacz, Carlson & Shulkin, 2008; Valcour, 2007). By enabling employees to fulfil work and family responsibilities, organisations facilitate employee satisfaction in the process (Veiga, Baldrige, & Eddleston, 2004). It can thus be reasonably assumed that FWAs are likely to increase employee satisfaction with their ability to balance work and family roles.

Research Aims and Objectives

The primary aim of this study was to examine the relationship between the use of FWAs and SWFB amongst working fathers in South Africa. The secondary aim was to examine SWFB, which is a distinct and relatively new construct compared to conceptualisations of work-family balance that have dominated the work-family literature (Valcour, 2007). The outcomes of this research intended to provide organisations with a deeper understanding of the factors (i.e. FWAs) that can promote working fathers' ability to manage work and family responsibilities, and therefore insight into ways of facilitating positive outcomes for employees and their organisations. The study also intended to contribute to the literature on working fathers in South Africa and their perspectives on managing work and family roles which, compared to women, is a less frequently examined sample in the work-family literature (Dermott, 2008).

Research Question

Based on the above rationale, the research question for the present study is:
To what extent does the use of FWAs predict SWFB amongst working fathers in South Africa?

Structure of the Dissertation

This dissertation is structured into six sections. The first section provides an introduction of the research topic, whereby its aims and motivation for its undertaking are outlined, core terms are presented and the structure of the dissertation is provided. Section two provides a literature review of the research topic. The literature review describes the theoretical framework, the variables used in this study and the relationship between the use of FWAs and SWFB. The propositions are described at the end of the literature review. Next is the methods section which explains the method used to investigate the propositions, providing detail that enables replication of the study. The research design, sampling, participants, measuring instruments used, data collection procedure conducted and the statistical analyses applied are described in this section. The following section describes the results of the research whereby the statistical analyses and findings are detailed in order to justify the conclusion. Finally, the discussion section discusses the results of this study in comparison to the literature presented in the literature review, and in relation to the South African context. Management implications for future research as well as the limitations of the study are also discussed in this section.

Literature Review

The literature review outlines the underlying theories that have been used to understand the relationship between work and family, and particularly work-family balance. These are role theory, the scarcity hypothesis and the enhancement hypothesis. The conceptualisation and development of the SWFB construct are then discussed. Following this is a discussion of FWAs and the particular FWAs used in this study. Finally, this literature review considers the relationship between FWAs and SWFB and this is used to develop the propositions for the study.

Theoretical Framework

Role theory.

Role theory has been the dominant theory used to understand the relationship between work and family (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Role theory proposes that roles are based on demands or expectations about appropriate behaviour which depend on factors such as an individual's own assumptions, role identity and culture (Katz & Kahn, 1978). When these role demands or expectations differ, role conflict may arise (Neal & Hammer, 2007). Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal (1964) defined role conflict as the "simultaneous occurrence of two (or more) sets of pressures such that compliance with one would make more difficult compliance with the other" (p. 19). Interrole conflict results when demands of multiple roles are incompatible purely because involvement in one role is increasingly challenging by virtue of involvement in another role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Within role theory, the scarcity hypothesis (Goode, 1960) and enhancement hypothesis (Sieber, 1974) are the predominant perspectives used to explain multiple role accumulation, and specifically work-family balance.

Scarcity hypothesis.

The scarcity hypothesis (Goode, 1960) has served as the predominant underlying theory to explain work-family balance (Barnett & Gareis, 2006; Haar, 2007). Advocates of the scarcity hypothesis propose that individuals' physical and psychological resources are limited, therefore the more roles an individual occupies, the more depleted their resources become (Barnett & Gareis, 2006). Accordingly, individuals participating in multiple roles will inevitably experience role conflict and

strain due to the limited availability of resources required to fulfil multiple roles (Frone, 2003). High levels of work-family conflict were therefore thought to result in work-family imbalance (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Importantly, the scarcity hypothesis has been the underpinning theory of many early conceptualisations of work-family balance that have ultimately led to the development of the new construct, SWFB. SWFB however, has as its basis a stronger standpoint and thus the enhancement hypothesis (Sieber, 1974) serves as the underlying theory of this construct.

Enhancement hypothesis.

Unlike the scarcity hypothesis, the enhancement hypothesis (Sieber, 1974) provides a positive understanding of work-family balance. Contrary to the conflict perspective, Sieber (1974) and Marks (1977) suggested that the advantages of pursuing work and family roles are likely to outweigh the disadvantages. According to Sieber (1974), resources are abundant and through role accumulation individuals acquire resources that may be beneficial when facing diverse life challenges. Similarly, Marks (1977) argued that resources of time and energy are flexible and through multiple role involvement, individuals can expand their resources and energy supply. Active engagement and commitment to multiple roles provides individuals with resources and opportunities which may enhance functioning in different roles (Barnett & Gareis, 2006; Lee, Chang & Kim, 2011). Moreover, the benefits of multiple role involvement are likely to outweigh any stress and therefore yield net gratification (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Sieber, 1974).

Based on the enhancement hypothesis, there are two main ways that participation in multiple roles can lead to positive results. First, individuals can depend on satisfaction and success in one role to compensate for dissatisfaction in another role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Participation in multiple roles can buffer the stress employees experience in either role (Sieber, 1974). For example, the negative effect of job stress on well-being is reduced when employees have a satisfying, high-quality family life (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Second, positive experiences or outcomes of one role can be transferred to another (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Lee et al., 2011). Marks (1977) argued that involvement in a particular role creates energy that can be utilised to benefit experiences in another role. Similarly, Sieber (1974) proposed that resources

acquired in one role may be reinvested in another role. For example, a father that has learned to be patient with their child as they develop and grow may be more able to be patient with work subordinates as they develop in their own way. In a similar light, a working father who learns to manage time effectively at work may be increasingly able to manage the timing of various responsibilities at home. The skills, resources and energy gained in working fathers' personal life may be beneficial to their work life and vice-versa. As employees accumulate multiple roles, they may learn to be increasingly tolerant of diverse needs and opinions, thus becoming more flexible in adjusting to diverse role demands (Sieber, 1974). The enhancement hypothesis is important in facilitating an understanding of SWFB as it describes the positive outcomes of pursuing multiple roles. Moreover, the enhancement hypothesis is the underpinning theory for the conceptualisation of the SWFB construct.

Conceptualisation of SWFB

Valcour (2007) defined SWFB as "an overall level of contentment resulting from an assessment of one's degree of success at meeting work and family role demands" (p. 1512). SWFB is a unitary, holistic construct assessing peoples' reactions to an unspecified level of balance as opposed to the level of balance itself (Beham & Drobnic, 2010). Fundamentally, employees want to be able to fulfil work and family responsibilities, and to experience feelings of accomplishment and satisfaction in the process (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Rapoport et al., 2002). In line with other types of satisfaction, such as life satisfaction or job satisfaction, SWFB is made up of a cognitive and affective component (Valcour, 2007). The cognitive component involves the self-appraisal of success in fulfilling work and family responsibilities (Beham & Drobnic, 2010) and the decision on whether the experience is positive, stressful or irrelevant in relation to wellbeing (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The affective component is the resultant emotional state or positive feeling from that appraisal (Beham & Drobnic, 2010; Valcour, 2007). SWFB results from an individual's assessment of whether they have sufficient resources required to effectively respond to work and family demands (Valcour, 2007).

Valcour's (2007) conceptualisation of balance is valuable because it emphasises that balance is highly subjective. It is subjective because it recognises that every individual has diverse perceptions of what it means to be balanced. Balance is defined according to an individual's perception, it cannot be verified by

perceptions of supervisors, colleagues or organisations (Brough et al., 2014). In addition, balance is subjective because it changes in response to changing life experiences, circumstances or needs (Brough et al., 2014). For example, an individual may be at a stage of their life whereby they perceive balance as spending more time at work compared to home. Using Super's (1957) career stage development model for example, employees in the exploratory stage (ages less than 30) tend to be focused on deciding on a career path. Consequently, these employees tend to have little focus on managing the work-family interaction and thus tend to spend more time at work (Sturges & Guest, 2004). For individuals in the maintenance stage (ages 45-60) however, work-family balance is typically a primary concern and individuals are likely to be cautious not to make career decisions that may disrupt their perceived balance (Ng & Feldman, 2007). How fathers perceive work-family balance is thus diverse across individuals and thus measuring SWFB is important to investigate

Development of SWFB.

The development of the SWFB construct was grounded on the literature on work-family balance. Although SWFB is distinct from conceptualisations of work-family balance that have dominated the literature, it is important to understand these as they serve as the foundation for the development of the SWFB construct.

Although widely utilised in organisations and academic literature, the lack of an explicit conceptual definition or measurement tool for work-family balance has been widely scrutinised (Brough et al., 2014; Carlson, Grzywacz & Zivnuska, 2009; Greenhaus, Collins & Shaw, 2003). A large body of existing literature however, has focused predominantly on the scarcity hypothesis and work-family conflict to explain a lack of work-family balance (Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Based on literature by Kahn et al. (1964), Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) defined work-family conflict as a type of interrole conflict whereby work and family role demands are mutually incompatible. This suggested that engagement in one role was achieved at the expense of another (Grzywacz & Butler, 2005). According to Higgins, Duxbury and Lee (1994) the cumulative demands of work and family roles can lead to two types of conflict namely, role overload and role interference. Role overload occurs when demands on time and energy outweigh an individual's capacity to fulfil the role adequately or satisfactorily. Role interference exists when work and family roles are

expected to be fulfilled in the same time period but different locations (Higgins et al., 1994). High levels of work-family conflict due to role overload or interference was likely to result in negative outcomes such as stress, dissatisfaction, burnout, intention to quit, absenteeism and work-family imbalance (Barnett & Gareis, 2006; Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Higgins et al., 1994). Although this understanding of work-family balance was previously widely supported, an increasing number of scholars argue rather in favour of the positive side of the work-family interface. More recent scholars have argued that the conflict perspective relies on the untested assumption that low levels of conflict can be equated with work-family balance (Beham & Drobnic, 2010), and that the focus on role conflict is an excessively negative approach to work-family balance (Aryee, Srinivas & Tan, 2005).

Consistent with the development of positive psychology and based on the enhancement hypothesis (Sieber, 1974), there has been increasing support for the expansion of the positive side of the work-family interface (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Brough, Timms, O'Driscoll, Kalliath, Siu, Sit, & Lo, 2014; Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006; Valcour, 2007). Numerous constructs such as positive spillover (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Hanson, Hammer & Colton, 2006), work-family facilitation (Grzywacz, 2002) and work-family enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) have been used to examine the positive side of the work-family interface. Moreover, scholars have used these constructs in order to operationalise work-family balance. Although these positive constructs are often used interchangeably in the literature, it is important to note that they are distinct from each other and importantly, distinct from SWFB. Each of these constructs is described in turn to provide an understanding of their conceptual distinctions.

Positive spillover is defined as the transfer of positively valenced affect, values, skills and behaviour from one role to another, thus benefiting the second role (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Hanson et al., 2006). Positive spillover occurs at an individual level (Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson, & Kacmar, 2007). According to Haar (2007) behaviours, skills and values learned in one role can spillover to another role and therefore influence attitudes in the other role. This relationship is bidirectional, meaning that it can occur from family to work and work to family, however, studies have shown a stronger spillover effect from the work to the family role (Haar, 2007).

Wayne et al. (2007) defined work family facilitation as “the extent to which an individual's engagement in one life domain (i.e., work/family) provides gains (i.e., developmental, affective, capital, or efficiency) which contribute to enhanced functioning of another life domain (i.e., family/work)” (p.64). The defining feature of facilitation is that the transfer of positive gains occurs at a systems level (Wayne et al., 2007). According to Wayne et al. (2007), each domain is a social system consisting of interacting elements that establish distinct subsystems. For instance, the family system is made up of multiple subsystems such as parent-child relationships or marriage, and the work subsystems for example, comprise supervisor-subordinate relationships and work teams (Wayne et al., 2007). Facilitation indicates positive changes in the work or family system as a result of an individual's involvement in the other domain (Wayne et al., 2007). Facilitation differs from spillover as not only is facilitation concerned with the transfer of personal characteristics but also the transfer of capital gains such as money and employment benefits at a systemic level (Wayne et al., 2007).

Work-family enrichment occurs when resources gained from one role are applied to another role therefore improving quality of life in that role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Enrichment differs from spillover and facilitation because in order for enrichment to take place two components need to be fulfilled. Resources need to be transferred from one role to the other, and performance improvement should occur in the receiving domain (Carlson et al., 2006). According to Carson et al. (2006), resource gains can either directly result in improved performance, known as the instrumental path, or indirectly result in positive affect in the other role, the affective path. Although similar to facilitation, the key distinction is that facilitation focuses on improved functioning at a systems level whereas enrichment occurs at an individual level (Carlson et al., 2006; Grzywacz & Butler, 2005; Wayne et al., 2007).

As the positive side of the work-family interface gained support in the literature, refinements to the theoretical explanations of work-family balance included positive, in addition to negative, relationships between roles by recognising that multiple role demands may, spillover, facilitate and/or enrich role participation, thus promoting work-family balance (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Carlson et al., 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Wayne et al., 2007). Frone's (2003) fourfold taxonomy,

for example, was a popular approach that measured the bidirectional relationships between work-family conflict, family-work conflict and work-family facilitation and family-work facilitation. According to Frone (2003), a balance between work and family life resulted from low levels of conflict and high levels of facilitation. Critics of Frone's taxonomy however, have found that empirical testing has revealed inconsistent patterns of relationships between the components (Aryee et al., 2005). Similarly, Beham and Drobic (2010) argued that it is unclear how the components relate to employees satisfaction with work and family responsibilities, and it is questionable whether all four components are required to be at optimum levels in order to satisfy an individual.

In the present study, work-family balance is conceptualised as a unique construct, different from conflict and enrichment. Balance is not a linking mechanism between work and family as it is unclear how an individual's experiences in their work role are causally related to experiences in the family role and vice versa (Allen & Kiburz, 2012; Greenhaus et al., 2003). Instead, work-family balance reflects an individual's orientation across work and family roles, a holistic interrole phenomenon (Allen, & Kiburz, 2012; Marks & MacDermid, 1996). Numerous studies provide evidence that the psychometric properties of conflict, enrichment and balance are distinct, therefore clearly distinguishing the constructs (Allen, & Kiburz, 2012; Carlson et al., 2009).

Furthermore, Greenhaus et al. (2003) established a definition of balance that was instrumental in distinguishing balance from the constructs of conflict and facilitation. Drawing on Marks and MacDermid (1996), Greenhaus et al. (2003) defined work-family balance according to three components namely, time balance (i.e. equal time devoted to work and family), involvement balance (i.e. equal psychological involvement in work and family roles) and satisfaction balance (i.e. equal satisfaction with both roles). According to Greenhaus et al. (2003), employees are required to fulfil each of these components equally in order to achieve work-family balance. Individuals' values are independent of balance such that, irrespective of whether a person places a higher priority on one role because of personal values, it is regarded as work-family imbalance (Greenhaus et al., 2003).

Critics of Greenhaus et al. (2003) however, have questioned this conceptualisation of balance (e.g. Kalliath & Brough, 2008; Rapoport, Fletcher, Pruitt & Baily, 2002). Both Kalliath and Brough (2008) and Rapoport et al. (2002) proposed that people prioritise their roles according to a hierarchy and do not require an equal distribution of energy in each domain to achieve work-family balance. It is feasible, for example, that an individual may work long hours and have comparatively less time available for family without perceiving any negative consequences for devoting unequal time to each role. Such an individual may believe that they have achieved work-family balance because of their personal choice to spend more time at work compared to with family. Individuals experience feelings of balance when they are personally satisfied with the elements of life that are salient to them (Greenhaus, Ziegert & Allen, 2012). Based on this, Brough et al. (2014) proposed that it is important for an explanation of work-family balance to include perceptions of role salience to an individual. Brough et al. (2014) emphasised the importance of employees' subjective perceptions of work-family balance and the need to recognise that these perceptions differ in response to changing life priorities. Similarly, Kossek, Lautsch and Eaton (2006) noted that individuals have a preferred approach to work and family role synthesis that reflects personal values and realities.

Valcour's (2007) conceptualisation of SWFB used in the present study shares similarities with abovementioned descriptions of balance by Brough et al. (2014), Kalliath and Brough (2008) and Kossek et al. (2006). Valcour (2007) defines balance as individual perceptions of overall effectiveness and satisfaction with work and family roles. Similarly, her definition of balance overlaps with that of Clarke, Koch and Hill (2004), Milkie and Peltola (1999), and White (1999) who regard balance as a complete sense of harmony or global perception of success in responding to role responsibilities. Valcour's (2007) description of SWFB further shares similarities with Voydanoff (2005) who proposed that balance is an individual's global assessment that one has resources to facilitate effective participation in both domains, as well as Higgins et al. (2000) who defined WFB as a perceptual phenomenon characterised by the appraisal of personal ability to fulfil work and family demands. Although not identical, these features appear to serve as the foundation for Valcour's (2007) conceptualisation of SWFB.

SWFB as a distinct construct.

SWFB is distinct from previous definitions of work-family balance for numerous reasons. First, SWFB does not focus on the popular assumption that accumulation of both work and family roles will inevitably lead to conflict (Barnett & Gareis, 2006; Haar, 2007). Rather, based on the enhancement hypothesis (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974), multiple role accumulation may lead to increased satisfaction as an individual can compensate for dissatisfaction in one role, transfer learned skills between roles and transfer positive affect between roles. Secondly, SWFB is distinct from other positive constructs that emphasise cross-domain transfer processes for example work-family enrichment, facilitation and positive spillover (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Valcour, 2007). SWFB identifies individuals' overall satisfaction with work and family roles, in contrast to cross-domain constructs which refer to the assessment of how experiences in one role affect experiences in the another role (Valcour, 2007). Thirdly, SWFB does not imply directionality from work to family and vice versa, compared to constructs such as work-family enrichment and conflict (Valcour, 2007). Fourth, SWFB is distinct from work-family balance as it is a holistic construct compared to those that assess separate aspects of individuals' experience of multiple role involvement, such as Frone's (2003) taxonomy (Beham & Drobnic, 2010). Finally, SWFB is distinct from work-family balance as it measures an individual's perceptual reaction to an unspecified level of balance, as opposed to an actual level of balance (Beham & Drobnic, 2010).

FWAs

In order to respond to the needs of a workforce exhibiting heightened work and family demands, organisations facilitate flexibility in the workplace by implementing FWAs (Allen et al., 2013). Workplace flexibility fundamentally refers to "the ability of workers to make choices influencing when, where, and for how long they engage in work-related tasks" (Hill et al., 2008, p. 152). FWAs may be defined as the formal and informal flexibility initiatives that enable employees to adapt their work schedules, work arrangements and work responsibilities in order to accommodate for family responsibilities (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011). Moreover, FWAs are valuable resources that provide employees with the control and autonomy required to adapt to work and family demands (Allen et al., 2013). Employees therefore actively engage in gathering and maintaining such resources in order to

protect personal interests and achieve positive emotional states (Ferguson et al., 2012; Hobfoll, 1989).

Organisations implement FWAs to assist employees to fulfil work and family responsibilities, reduce work-family conflict and facilitate employee perceptions of work-family balance (Grzywacz et al., 2008). Furthermore, using such arrangements has been found to assist employees to maintain a healthy lifestyle (Abendroth & Den Dulk, 2011; Grzywacz et al., 2008), increase job satisfaction and motivation (Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004). Using FWAs is also beneficial for organisations as improved employee ability to manage work and family demands is likely to increase employee commitment and performance (Grzywacz et al., 2008; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004). It is important to note that the present study focuses on the use of FWAs, as opposed to the availability of FWAs. Although employees that use FWAs ostensibly have such arrangements available, it does not mean that employees actually make use of FWAs (Allen et al., 2013).

The FWAs examined in this study are flextime, flexplace and paternity leave. Paternity leave was included as a FWA in this study as it is a formal flexibility arrangement that provides working parents with time off from work to manage family responsibilities. Informal flexibility was examined using the job control construct. The framework of FWAs examined in this study is presented in Table 1. The following section describes each of the FWAs in detail.

Table 1

Framework of FWAs used in this study

Flextime	Job control
Flexplace	
Paternity leave	

Flextime and flexplace.

Two of the most widely utilised FWAs are flextime (Allard, Haas & Hwang, 2007; Allen et al., 2013; Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011) and flexplace (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011; Hill et al., 2001). These FWAs provide employees with control over the timing and location of work schedules (Bagraim & Sader, 2007). Flextime refers to a

FWA that provides employees with flexibility in the timing of required work hours. This formal arrangement has alternately been called schedule flexibility (Ezra & Deckman, 1996) and control over work time (Anderson, Coffey & Byerly, 2002) however the present study has used the term flextime. The formal flextime arrangements examined in the present study were flexible work hours, compressed work weeks and job sharing.

Flexible work hours is a flextime arrangement that allows employees to vary starting and ending work times, based around a core set of working hours (Kossek & Friede, 2006) and without reducing total number of work hours per week (Allard et al., 2007). Conventionally, core working hours in South Africa are either from eight am until five pm or nine am to six pm (Odendaal & Roodt, 2002). Employees that use flexible work hour arrangements may for example, start work at seven am and end at three pm as opposed to working from nine am until five pm. Compressed work weeks is a flextime arrangement that enables employees to work the required number of work hours in less than five days per week. An employee may for example work twelve hours four times a week and have one day off (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011). Job sharing is another flextime arrangement whereby two or more employees share the duties and responsibilities of one job (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011). Job sharing is not as commonly used as other flextime initiatives.

Flexplace arrangements refer to the FWAs that provide employees with control over the location of work. The flexplace arrangements examined in the present study were telecommuting and working from home (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011). Scholars have found that flexplace arrangements are less prevalent in organisations compared to flextime (Allard et al., 2007; Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011; Kossek & Friede, 2006), and that flextime is the most desirable FWA amongst employees (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011). The flexplace arrangements examined in this study were working from home and telecommuting. Working from home refers to employees' ability to work from home on a regular basis but not necessarily every day (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011). Telecommuting is a FWA whereby employees are able to work in a location other than the workplace or home, on a regular or occasional basis, using electronic media to communicate. Employees using telecommuting are required to be available via email or phone contact (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011).

In a recent South African study, Grobler and De Bruyn (2011) examined the use of a variety of FWAs amongst a sample of 85 Johannesburg Stock Exchange (JSE Limited) listed companies in the telecommunications, finance and technology sector. The companies in the sample were large, with more than half of them employing between 1001 and over 7500 employees. In addition, the companies were all between ten and 100 years old and were regarded as major players in the South African economy (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011). Results of the study indicated that 90% of the companies in the sample used flexible work hours. Flexible work hours was the most widely utilised FWA compared to all other flexibility options. Working from home was the second most widely used FWA, however only half of the sample used this arrangement compared to flexible work hours. Compressed work weeks and telecommuting were utilised only slightly less compared to working from home. Finally, job sharing was rarely used by the sample compared to the other FWAs in the study. Table 2 presents the frequency of use of the FWAs in Grobler and De Bruyn's (2011) study.

Table 2

Percentage of FWAs used amongst 85 JSE listed companies

FWA	Use (%)
Flexible work hours	90
Compressed work week	41
Job sharing	4
Telecommuting	41
Working from home	45

Note. Adapted from "Flexible work practices (FWP) - an effective instrument in the retention of talent: A survey of selected JSE-listed companies," by P.A. Grobler and A.J. De Bruyn, 2011, *South African Journal of Business Management*, 42(4), p. 73.

Paternity leave.

Paternity leave may be viewed as a flexibility initiative as it allows working fathers time off to manage family responsibilities. It is important to note that paternity leave is different from family responsibility leave and unlike the latter, paternity leave is not legislatively prescribed to working fathers in South Africa (Smit, 2011).

Paternity leave refers to time off around the time period that a child is born whereas family leave relates to time off work to fulfil childcare responsibilities at any particular time for example, to care for a sick child (Haataja, 2009). In several countries, organisations are legislatively required to offer paternity leave. In the United Kingdom, for example, fathers are entitled to two weeks partly-paid paternity leave to be taken within 56 days of childbirth (Greef Attorneys, 2012). In Sweden, parents may take up to 15 months leave between them, while the state compensates for 80% of lost wages up to a particular ceiling (Greef Attorneys, 2012). Paternity leave is also legislatively provided to working fathers in some African countries such as Mauritius, Tanzania, Democratic Republic of Congo and Mozambique (Smit, 2011). In South Africa however, this is not the case.

South African legislation does not provide the same support to working fathers as it does to working mothers. The Basic Conditions of Employment Act (No. 75 of 1997) (BCEA) entitles women to four months unpaid maternity leave however there is no legislation on paternity leave for fathers. In the event that working fathers want to take leave during the time of childbirth, they may be required to use the three days of paid family responsibility leave which they are entitled to per annum (Smit, 2011). Although the Department of Social Development has recently made a call for paternity leave to be included in the BCEA (Spowart, 2014), other issues such as broad-based economic empowerment and unemployment have been higher on government's agenda (Smit, 2011). In light of this, although not legislatively required, some South African organisations, such as Pick 'n Pay, the Clicks Group and Woolworths, do offer paternity leave as a flexibility initiative and thus it was included as a FWA in the present study.

Job control.

Although it is increasingly the norm for organisations to offer formal FWAs, some prefer to facilitate informal flexibility in the form of job control. Thomas and Ganster (1995) defined control as "the belief that one can exert some influence over the environment, either directly or indirectly, so that the environment becomes more rewarding or less threatening" (p. 7). Job control refers to employee perceptions that they have choice and control over decisions regarding when, where and how work is performed (Hill et al., 2008). This sense of control over work allows working parents to decide on their preferred approach to managing time, energy and attention in

order to manage multiple role responsibilities (Allen et al., 2013). Moreover, how employees perceive control is related to their ability to integrate work and family demands (Batt & Valcour, 2003). Employees may establish informal agreements with the organisation or supervisors to allow them to interrupt work to handle family matters, as well as to vary working times and location in order to satisfy their role responsibilities (Hill et al., 2008).

Thomson, Beauvais and Lyness (1999) argued that despite formal FWAs implemented to assist employees' to achieve WFB, if employees do not perceive they have job control due to unsupportive supervisors and cultures, the effectiveness of such FWAs may be undermined. Organisations that facilitate environments whereby employees have discretion and autonomy in the timing and location of work, managers that are supportive of work-family issues, and employees that are not penalised for paying attention to family responsibilities whilst at work, are likely to observe reduced employee stress, work-family conflict, turnover intentions and increased employee satisfaction (Behson, 2005). Moreover, job control is particularly important to working parents when unexpected family demands arise, for example to work from home for a day to care for an ill child (Allard et al., 2007; Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Having job control is considered to be extremely valuable to employees (Allard et al., 2007; Hill et al., 2008) and thus was measured in the present study.

Demographic Control Variables

Consistent with Valcour (2007), the present study examined the demographic control variables for typical resources and demands that were likely to influence employees' ability to manage role demands, and therefore SWFB. Work and family demands were expected to reduce SWFB whereas resources were expected to increase SWFB (Valcour, 2007). The variables that were controlled for in this study were work hours, number of children living at home, neuroticism and commute time. With these variables controlled, estimates of the effects of FWAs on SWFB were likely to be more accurate (Valcour, 2007).

Work hours was included as a control variable as it represents a significant demand on employees' time. The number of hours that individuals work, as well as their time commitment to family responsibilities has implications for working parents' ability to manage multiple role responsibilities. Longer working hours has been

associated with decreased ability to fulfil work and family responsibilities, and thus reduced SWFB (Valcour, 2007). The number of children living at home was included in this study as it symbolises an additional demand that enhances the challenge of fulfilling work and family responsibilities. Having more children living at home was thus expected to be negatively related to SWFB (Valcour, 2007). Neuroticism was also included as a control variable in this study. Neuroticism, one of the big five personality traits, is a stable dispositional personality trait referring to the tendency to be easily upset, emotional, tense and stress intolerant (Mount & Barrick, 1995). It represents the frame of mind in which individuals appraise a situation, for example how well they are managing work and family responsibilities. Neurotic individuals are likely to have fewer psychological resources to fulfil multiple role responsibilities, have more negative attitudes towards situations, and are likely to experience lower satisfaction and appraisals of success compared to individuals that are emotionally stable (Valcour, 2007). Neuroticism was thus expected to be negatively associated with SWFB in this study. In addition, commute time was included as a control variable in this study. The amount of time employees spend on commuting to work represented another significant demand on their time, in addition to work hours (Valcour, 2007). It was expected that the stress of commuting would be likely to bring about lower perceptions of success in fulfilling work and family demands and therefore likely to decrease SWFB (Hill et al., 2001). In addition, participant age, race, marital status, tenure, occupational category, domestic support, spouse/partners occupational status, as well as number and age of children were included as demographic variables in this study.

FWAs and SWFB

This section describes COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), the underlying theory used to design the propositions for this study. In the absence of empirical studies examining the relationship between FWAs and SWFB, other relevant work-family constructs in relation to FWAs are reviewed. It is important to note that the SWFB construct is distinct from the other work-family constructs that were reviewed, however the findings presented may suggest positive or negative implications for working fathers' SWFB.

Figure 1 provides a graphic depiction of the proposed relationships in this study.

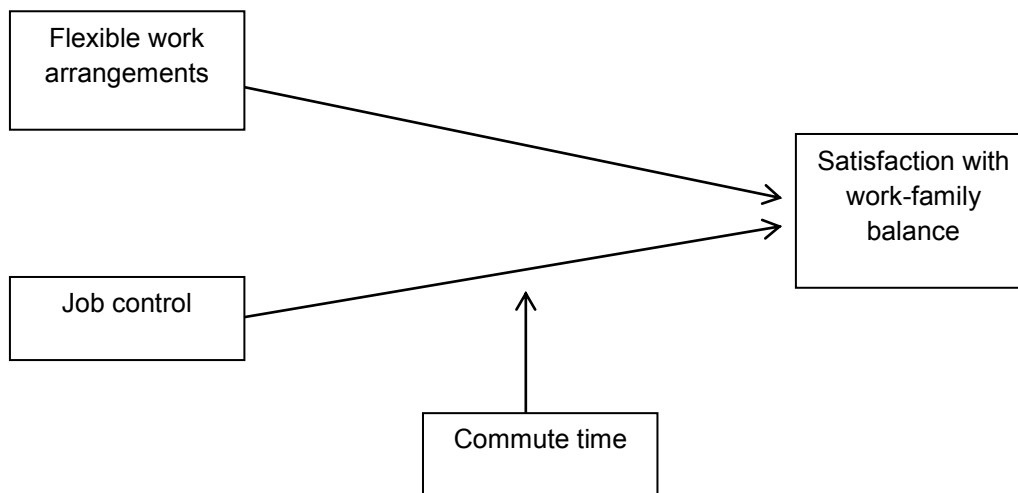


Figure 1. Conceptual framework of the proposed relationships in this study.

Conservation of resources theory.

The present research builds upon the positive understanding of combining work and family roles and is also informed by COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989). In the present study, COR theory was used as the underlying theory to explain the relationship between the use of FWAs and SWFB. The argument of COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) is that individuals actively strive to accumulate and preserve valuable resources in order to protect personal interests and to achieve positive emotional states. If resources are threatened or lost, employees are likely to experience stress and strain. Hobfoll (1989) defined resources as “those objects, personal characteristics, conditions or energies that are valued by the individual or that serve as a means for attainment of these objects” (p. 516).

FWAs are resources that facilitate workplace flexibility in the timing and location of work, thereby enhancing employee ability to manage demands emanating from the workplace, as well as the demands of parenting (Allen et al., 2013; Valcour, 2007). FWAs can broaden an employee’s resource pool and either replace or reinforce alternative resources that may not be available (Ferguson, Carlson, Zivnuska & Whitten, 2012). Demands that are threatening to resources for example, work-family conflict and role overload, are associated with employee perceptions that the workplace is less supportive. On the other hand, resources such as FWAs enhance employee perceptions of workplace supportiveness (Valcour, Ollier-

Malaterre, Matz-Costa, Pitt-Catsouphes, & Brown 2011). An environment that is rich in resources helps working parents to conserve resources that allow them to manage multiple role demands (Valcour et al., 2011). Moreover, when fathers are able to fulfil work and family responsibilities, they tend to experience increased satisfaction in both domains (Ferguson et al., 2012). Based on COR theory, it is proposed that when employees make use of FWAs, they acquire resources that increase their ability to meet work and family responsibilities, and in turn are likely to experience increased SWFB.

Formal FWAs and job control are important resources as they facilitate achievement of work and family goals, reduce pressure of role demands and stimulate personal development (Beham & Drobic, 2010). FWAs provide individuals with discretion and autonomy over where and when work is performed, therefore enabling them to choose their preferred way of allocating time, energy and attention in order to manage work and family roles (Allen et al., 2013). Working fathers may for example, be able to adjust the timing of their work schedule in order to better manage their childcare responsibilities (for example, to attend their child's school function during work hours), decrease the time spent on commuting to and from work, and to develop a schedule that is conducive to individual productivity (Allen et al., 2013).

The use of FWAs has numerous positive benefits for working fathers and their organisations. Employees that use FWAs tend to experience increased ability to manage work and family roles (Anderson et al., 2002; Saltzstein et al., 2001), decreased work-family conflict and turnover intentions (Allen et al., 2013), as well as increased wellbeing, employee satisfaction and work-family effectiveness (Clark, 2001; Kossek et al., 2006; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Valcour, 2007). In a large sample of 32 103 public sector employees in the US, Saltzstein et al. (2001) found that the use of a combination of FWAs had a significant effect on SWFB and job satisfaction. In addition to using FWAs to fulfil family responsibilities, using FWAs to allow quality time with children may be beneficial for working fathers' perceptions of balance. In a sample of 933 working parents in the United States, Milkie et al. (2010) found that working parents' ability to spend quality time with their children, such as helping with homework or playing with them, was positively related to perceptions of work-family balance. Working fathers that use FWAs to spend quality time with their children may

experience increased SWFB. Paternity leave was examined as a FWA in this study as it represents a resource that enhances fathers' ability to fulfil their family responsibilities, in addition to their work responsibilities. Moreover, paternity leave may allow fathers to spend more quality time with their child around the time of childbirth which may facilitate positive perceptions of their work-family balance (Milkie et al., 2010). Considering that working fathers are concerned with being more involved in their family role (Beham et al., 2012), it is expected that using paternity leave could increase their SWFB.

Flexitime is the most widely utilised flexibility arrangement that is used to assist working parents to meet work and family demands (Allard et al., 2007; Neal & Hammer, 2007; Saltzstein et al., 2001; Smit, 2011). Flexitime is particularly beneficial for employees' work-family balance in the event of unexpected family demands, for example to fetch a sick child from school (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Ezra and Deckman (1996) found that parents who utilised flexitime were more satisfied with their work-family balance than parents who did not. Interestingly, Ezra and Deckman (1996) reported that when comparing mothers and fathers, flexitime facilitated SWFB amongst mothers but not amongst fathers. This finding may be explained by considering that, during the time of the study, women were the likely users of FWAs whereas men tended to be reluctant to use FWAs (Veiga et al., 2004).

A meta-analysis of 31 studies (18 studies of flexible work hours and six studies of compressed work weeks) conducted by Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright and Neuman (1999) indicated that flexitime was significantly positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to absenteeism. Similarly, Halpern (2005) found that flexible work hours was associated with reduced absenteeism amongst a nationally representative sample ($N = 3552$) of working adults in the United States of America. It is thus reasonably assumed that when working fathers are absent less often and have higher job satisfaction due to using flexitime arrangements, this may have positive implications for their perceptions of work-family balance.

In addition to flexitime, flexplace has numerous positive implications for working fathers. Flexplace has been reported to be positively related to employee productivity, perceptions of improved morale, and improved work-family balance (Hill et al., 2001). Kossek et al. (2006) found that flexplace was related to decreased stress, role overload and increased time for family roles. A meta-analysis of 46

studies, and 12883 employees, by Gajendran and Harrison (2007) revealed that the use of telecommuting was related to increased employee perceptions of autonomy and job satisfaction, as well as decreased turnover intention, work-family conflict and role stress. Contrary to this, both Allen and Shockley (2009) and Kossek et al. (2006) argued that flexplace can be problematic as it may blur the physical and psychological boundaries between work and family roles. According to Allen and Shockley (2009) and Kossek et al. (2006), individuals require boundaries as they provide cues of when to fulfil the family versus work role. Without these cues, boundaries are increasingly permeable and thus there is a greater likelihood for work-family conflict (Allen & Shockley, 2009; Kossek et al., 2006). Similarly, Gajendran and Harrison (2007) reported that individuals that use technology to work from home may be encouraged to work longer working hours than expected, thus making it difficult to separate work and family. In light of these findings however, based on COR theory, flexplace is a valuable resource that when used is likely to increase employee ability to manage work and family demands, and thus increase their SWFB. Although the abovementioned findings do not focus specifically on the SWFB construct, the findings may have implications for working fathers' overall perceptions of work-family balance.

Job control provides employees with an increased sense of control and autonomy over their work and family life, which has positive implications for SWFB. Moreover, job control is considered to be particularly important for working parents when unexpected family demands arise (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). A working father that can attend to unforeseen family responsibilities when necessary is less likely to experience stress and anxiety of managing multiple role responsibilities as they know that flexibility arrangements are available (Allen et al., 2013). For example, a father who knows he can conduct his work from home for the day in order to care for a sick child is less likely to experience the stress of managing multiple role responsibilities. Job control allows the father to fulfil his work tasks while simultaneously fulfilling his role of caring for his child, as opposed to missing a day of work and having to catch up the work. In addition to enabling working fathers to manage unforeseen family responsibilities, job control may allow fathers to manage other demands on their time, such as commute time. Valcour (2007) argued that high commute time represents an additional demand on working parents' time. Higher commute time may be stressful to working fathers' as it may reduce the time

available for spending time with children. In the presence of job control however, working fathers may be able to adjust the timing and/or location of work in order to accommodate for family responsibilities. When working fathers have high commute time, the presence of job control may buffer the stress of commuting, therefore facilitating SWFB. Job control is expected to have a greater influence on working fathers' perceptions of work-family balance when they have high commute time.

The sense of control and autonomy that goes hand in hand with using both formal and informal FWAs is therefore highly beneficial for working parents (Allen et al., 2013). Job autonomy is said to be instrumental in helping parents to manage work and family demands (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Allard et al. (2007) found that in a sample of 77 managerial employees in Sweden, employees that used informal flexplace experienced decreased work-family conflict whereas employees that used formal arrangements did not. This finding was supported by Behson (2005) who argued that informal flexibility arrangements, such as job control, explain more variance in work-family conflict than formal arrangements. In addition, findings by Behson (2005) revealed that informal flexibility explained 95% of the variance in employees' job satisfaction, stress and turnover intention. The benefit of job control in allowing employees to attend to family responsibilities at short notice was attributed to this finding (Allard et al., 2007).

Considering the positive resultant state from meeting work and family responsibilities when using FWAs and job control (Ryan & Deci, 2001; Valcour, 2007), it is expected that working fathers SWFB would increase. Based on the above rationale, it was reasonably expected that the use of FWAs would promote SWFB amongst working fathers. The propositions for the present study therefore are:

Proposition 1: The use of FWAs will predict a significant proportion of the variance in SWFB amongst working fathers.

Proposition 2: Job control will predict a significant proportion of the variance in SWFB amongst working fathers

Proposition 3: The use of FWAs will predict a significant proportion of the variance in SWFB amongst working fathers after controlling for work hours, commute time, neuroticism and children living at home.

Proposition 4: Commute time will moderate the relationship between job control and SWFB.

Method

This section outlines the methods employed to conduct the present research. The methods section is divided into six sub sections that describe the research design, sampling, participants, measuring instruments, procedure and statistical analyses used.

Research Design

A descriptive research design that is deductive in its approach was used (Hair, Babin, Money & Samouel, 2003). This design was employed to test the propositions outlined in the literature review of this study (Hair et al., 2003). The descriptive design relied on the reliability and validity of interpretations of the data (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002). A cross-sectional time dimension was used and a self-report questionnaire was administered online using Qualtrics (2014). This research design was appropriate as it allowed data to be collected and to be statistically analysed (Hair et al., 2003). Finally, this design allowed the research to be conducted within the set time and financial constraints.

Sampling

A non-probability convenience sampling technique was used to maximise efficiency of cost and time (Burns & Burns, 2008). This technique was employed in order to achieve the desired sample of working fathers and thus to meet the needs of the study (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002). Snowball sampling was also employed as it was a practical, efficient means to locate working fathers to partake in the study. Snowball sampling, in addition to convenience sampling, was conducted to increase the sample size in an effort to ultimately increase likelihood of reliable results (Burns & Burns, 2008). In order to implement the convenience sampling technique, all male employees in the organisations were emailed to request participation in this research. To ensure the sample comprised working fathers, two qualifying questions were presented at the beginning of the questionnaire. These questions asked whether the employee worked full-time and whether they had at least one child. Employees were required to answer positively to both questions in order to proceed with the questionnaire.

Participants

In line with the research objective, the sampling frame of this study comprised working fathers in South African organisations who were employed on a full-time basis and were the father of at least one child. This was included because having children entails having increased parental responsibilities, making it more challenging to manage work and family roles (Valcour, 2007).

In total, 409 participants responded to the questionnaire. Of these however, 38 participants were non-qualifiers because they were either not a father of at least one child or were not working full-time. These 38 participants were therefore excluded from the sample. The final sample was therefore 371 participants. Participant ages ranged from 23 to 70 years old ($M = 41.70$; $SD = 9.15$). Tenure ranged from three months to 48 years ($M = 11.17$; $SD = 9.40$). In total, 227 (55.2%) of working fathers had a spouse with a full time job whereas 119 (29%) had a spouse whom was not employed full time. Both the average number of children as well as the average number of children living at home was 2 ($SD = 0.94$ and 0.92 respectively). In total, of those children living at home, 176 (38.8%) were in the preschool age group (0- 5 years), 197 (43.4%) were in secondary school (6 – 18 years) and 81 (17.8%) were young adults (under 18 years). The average working hours per week was 46 hours ($SD = 9.8$) and average commute time was 41 minutes ($SD = 26.22$). Further sample demographics are detailed in Table 3.

FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENTS AND SATISFACTION WITH WORK-FAMILY BALANCE

Table 3

Demographic characteristics of the sample

Demographic characteristic	Category	N	%
Sample	Total sample	371	100
Race	Black	35	9.5
	Coloured	100	27.2
	Indian	33	9
	White	188	51.1
	Other	2	0.5
	Prefer not to answer	10	2.7
Occupation	Management/supervisory	176	47.8
	Specialist/technical/professional	137	37.2
	Sales/admin/support	55	14.9
Marital status	Single/divorced	25	6.8
	Married/living with a partner	338	91.8
	It's complicated	5	1.4
Paid domestic support	Used	213	51.8
	Did not use	149	36.3
	Missing	49	11.9

Measures

SWFB. Valcour's (2007) five-item Likert-type semantic differentiation scale was used to identify working fathers' overall appraisal of satisfaction with work-family balance. Participants were asked to rate their level of satisfaction with each item from one (very dissatisfied) to five (very satisfied). Participant responses were then added to indicate overall satisfaction. Higher scores indicated higher SWFB.

Valcour's (2007) multi-item scale provides a more reliable measure of SWFB compared to single-item measures that have been used in previous studies (e.g. Clarke et al., 2004; Milkie & Peltola, 1999; Milkie et al., 2010, Saltzstein et al., 2001; White, 1999). In addition, this multi-item measure offers greater utility of SWFB as a testable construct (Valcour, 2007). In a sample of 570 telephone call representatives

in the United States of America, Valcour (2007) reported the Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability to be high ($\alpha = .93$), signifying high internal consistency. In a sample of 1879 employees in the United States of America, McNamara et al. (2013) found the SWFB scale to be reliable ($\alpha = .96$) and exploratory factor analysis revealed one factor that explained 82.8% of the variance in the set of items. Additionally, in Valcour's (2007) study, it was noted that in a sample of employees from a telecommunications company, another researcher had "independently assessed the degree to which each of the items fit the construct definition and judged that they were all appropriate" (p. 1517). According to Valcour (2007), interviews indicated that participants' understanding of SWFB were consistent with the intended meaning and confirmatory factor analysis of the scale indicated good fit for a single factor model.

FWAs. FWAs were measured by a three column checklist. Column one listed nine FWAs that may be offered by the organisation. A brief explanation of each FWA was provided to ensure participants clearly understood each of the FWAs. Column two asked participants to indicate whether their organisation offered the listed FWAs. Column three asked participants to indicate whether they currently use, have previously used or would use FWAs if they were offered by the organisation. Based on the scoring method adopted by Allen (2001), Bagraim and Sader (2007), and Haar and Spell (2004), participant scores were calculated by adding the responses in each column. FWAs selected were scored with a one and those not selected were scored with a zero. Higher scores indicated greater use of FWAs.

Job control. Valcour's (2007) five-point Likert-type scale for control over work time, adapted from Thomas and Ganster (1995), was used to measure job control. Valcour's scale only examined control over work time and therefore was extended to include control over work place in order to be aligned with the definition of job control in this study. Items two and four were constructed according to definitions of flexplace used in Hill et al.'s (2001) study. 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?"

Respondents were asked to rate on a five-point Likert scale ranging from one (very little) to five (very much) how much control they felt they had over particular aspects of work time and place. For a full list of all the measurement scales used in this study, see Appendix A.

Demographic and control variables.

Data on participant demographics were collected in order to describe the sample. The demographic variables that were included were participant age, race, marital status, tenure, occupational category, domestic support, spouse/partners occupational status, as well as number and age of children. Age of children was requested as having younger children represented significant demands on working parents, making it more challenging to manage role responsibilities (Valcour, 2007). The categorical variables, i.e. spouse/partner's occupational status and domestic support were scored using nominal ratings where 1= yes and 0 = no. Other categorical variables were coded as follows. Race: black African = 1, coloured = 2, Indian = 3, white = 4, other = 5 and prefer not to answer = 6. Marital status: single/divorced = 1, married/living with a partner = 2, it's complicated = 3. Occupational category: managerial/supervisory = 1, specialist/technical/professional = 2, and sales/admin/support = 3. Responses to the remaining demographic questions on age, tenure, number of children and number of children living at home were provided in continuous numbers.

Consistent with Valcour (2007), the variables that were controlled for were work hours, number of children living at home, neuroticism and commute time. These were used as they represented increased demands on employees' ability to manage work and family (Valcour, 2007). Separate single items were used to measure work hours, number of children living at home and commute time. Work hours was measured by asking respondents to indicate how many hours they spend at work in a typical week. Number of children living at home was measured by asking participants to indicate the number of children they currently had living at home. Commute time was measured as the mean number of minutes of a one-way commute between work and home (Valcour, 2007). Neuroticism was measured using the eight-item neuroticism subscale of the Big Five Inventory (BFI) (John, Naumann & Soto, 2008). John et al. (2008) reported the Cronbach alpha coefficient of internal reliability to be high ($\alpha = .87$), indicating high internal consistency.

Respondents were required to indicate on a five-point Likert scale ranging from one (*strongly disagree*) to five (*strongly agree*) the extent they perceived the items reflected characteristics of themselves. Items two, five and seven were reverse coded to reduce the potential effects of response pattern biases (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). Scale scores were established by totalling item scores, the higher score indicated higher neuroticism.

Procedure

This research formed part of a larger study on working fathers in South Africa. A total of six South African organisations in the retail, financial services, information technology, hospitality and legal industries were approached to participate in the study. The particular organisations were selected due to personal connections with a senior level person at the organisation. The contact person in each organisation was provided with a written outline of the objectives of the study as well as the procedure to be taken when administering the questionnaire. Anonymity and confidentiality according to the American Psychological Association's (2009) requirements was assured. Once companies had provided written approval to partake in the study, the research proposal was submitted to the Commerce Faculty of Ethics Committee at the University of Cape Town to request permission to conduct the research. Once ethical clearance was granted, an online questionnaire using Qualtrics (2014) was compiled.

The questionnaire was emailed by a senior manager to all male employees in the organisations to request participation in the study. It was expected that a request from senior management would generate higher employee participation. A direct link to the Qualtrics questionnaire was provided in the email. The email and questionnaire cover letter introduced the survey by providing a brief explanation of the objectives of the study. It was highlighted that research on working fathers is limited therefore participation in the study was important in order to make a contribution to research in this area. This point was highlighted in an attempt to make survey participation appealing and important, an approach to increase the response rate (De Leeuw & Dillman, 2008).

Participants were informed that the questionnaire would take approximately 15 minutes to complete and that fathers could respond at any time convenient to

them. For many employees, the time commitment involved in completing a survey is a drawback of participation (De Leeuw & Dillman, 2008). In this instance however, the short time commitment of 15 minutes was expected to reduce the likelihood of this occurring. Additionally, all responses were recorded on either a Likert-type response scale or a nominal rating scale making it simple and efficient for participants to respond (De Leeuw & Dillman, 2008). The cover letter further indicated that participation in the study was voluntary and that responses would remain anonymous and confidential. This statement was expanded to state that survey responses could in no way be traced back to the individual. This was ensured as participants were not required to provide any personal or company identification (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002).

The email and cover letter further indicated an incentive for employee participation in the study whereby for every completed questionnaire, R2.00 would be donated to a charity of the participants' choice. Participants' could select between five charities that they preferred to benefit from the donation. These were St Luke's Hospice, Red Cross Children's Hospital, SPCA, The Emma Animal Rescue Society (TEARS) and Heatherdale Children's Home. The use of an incentive was employed as a tool to increase the response rate for the study (De Leeuw & Dillman, 2008).

Clear instructions on how to complete the questionnaire items were provided in the survey to ensure questions were easily understandable. The researcher's details were provided in the event that participants had any queries or concerns, both of these attempts at increasing the response rate (De Leeuw & Dillman, 2008). Four days after questionnaire distribution, the senior manager sent an email reminder to thank employees who had already responded to the questionnaire and to appeal to the remaining employees to partake. Reminders were sent in an effort to increase the number of responses.

Statistical Analysis

Data analysis was conducted using the IBM Software Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), version 22. Cronbach's coefficient alpha was used to calculate the internal consistency reliabilities of the scales. Exploratory factor analysis with principal-axis extraction was used for the factorial validity analysis and when appropriate, items were rotated using varimax normalised rotation. Propositions were tested using regression analyses. Post-hoc power analysis was conducted using the

software package, G*Power (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner & Lang, 2009) in order to determine the probability that the test will find an effect assuming that one exists in the population (Field, 2009). Cohen's (1988) conventional values for effect sizes were used where $f^2 = .02$ indicated a small effect, $f^2 = .15$ indicated a medium effect and $f^2 = .35$ indicated a large effect. Cohen (1988) recommends a power level of minimum 80% at a .05 significance level therefore, statistical significance of results below this suggestion should be considered with caution. The following section presents the results of the statistical analyses.

Results

The results section is divided into five sections that present the results of the statistical analyses that were conducted to test the propositions in the study. The first section presents the results of the exploratory factor analysis used to investigate the dimensionality of each scale. Section two explores the reliability analyses and the descriptive statistics of the measures. Section three presents the Pearson-product moment correlation analyses. Section four explored the relationship between the independent and dependent variables by conducting simple linear and multiple regression analyses. Differences amongst groups were assessed using ANOVA. Section five presents an exploratory analysis of commute time as an interaction term in the relationship between job control and SWFB.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis was conducted to identify the underlying latent structures of the variables used in the present study (Blaikie, 2004). Principal-axis factoring was conducted as it is recommended for the use of data structuring (Osborne & Costello, 2009). This method was selected as opposed to principal component analysis as the latter extracts maximum variance from the variables and is therefore more suitable as a data reduction method (Osborne & Costello, 2009). Items were rotated using varimax normalised rotation to reveal the composite factors whilst accounting for maximum variance in the original set of variables (Osborne & Costello, 2009).

Prior to performing principal-axis factoring, the suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed (Pallant, 2010). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test for sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity supported the application of principal-axis factoring for all scales. Data was considered appropriate for inclusion if the KMO was greater than .60 and Bartlett's test was significant ($p < .05$) (Pallant, 2010). Kaiser's criterion was applied to determine the factor structure for each scale whereby only factors with eigenvalues greater than one were considered significant (Burns & Burns, 2008). Factor loadings above .30 were considered minimally acceptable, above .40 were considered important and factor loadings higher than .50 were considered practically significant (Peterson, 2000).

SWFB scale.

Principal-axis factoring of produced one factor with an eigenvalue exceeding one, explaining 78.71% of the variance. Using Catell's (1966) scree test method, inspection of the screeplot revealed one factor. These results confirmed that SWFB has one distinct dimension that measures individuals' overall SWFB, as indicated in the literature (Valcour, 2007). Table 4 shows the factor loadings on the extracted factor.

Table 4

Results of Principal-Axis Factoring for the SWFB scale

		Factor 1
SWFB1	The opportunity you have to perform your job well and yet be able to perform home- related duties adequately.	.68
SWFB2	The way you divide your attention between work and family life	.90
SWFB3	How well your work life and family life fit together	.89
SWFB4	Your ability to balance the needs of your job with those of your family life	.92
SWFB5	The way you divide your time between work and family life	.68
Eigenvalue		3.94
Individual total variance (percent)		78.71%
Cumulative total variance (percent)		78.71%

Note. $N = 368$ after listwise deletion of missing data. SWFB = satisfaction with work-family balance.

Job control scale.

Principal-axis factoring revealed one significant factor with an eigenvalue greater than one, and accounting for 58.97% of the variance. All five items loaded significantly on one factor and thus the scale was unidimensional. Table 5 indicates the factor loadings for the job control scale with the lowest factor loading being .59.

FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENTS AND SATISFACTION WITH WORK-FAMILY BALANCE

Table 5

Results of Principal-axis Factoring for the Job Control Scale

		Factor 1
JC_1	How much choice do you have over when you begin and end each workday or each workweek?	.72
JC_2	How much choice do you have to leave work early or arrive late to attend to other responsibilities?	.77
JC_3	To what extent can you choose to do some of your work at home instead of your usual place of employment?	.70
JC_4	To what extent can you choose to work from a location other than your workplace or home but be available via email or phone?	.60
JC_5	How much control do you have over when you can take a few hours off to attend to other responsibilities?	.71
Eigenvalue		2.95
Individual total variance (percent)		58.97%
Cumulative total variance (percent)		58.97%

Note. N = 371 after listwise deletion of missing data. JC = job control.

Neuroticism scale.

The neuroticism scale did not yield the expected one factor. Extraction using principal-axis factoring with varimax normalised rotation showed two significant factors for the neuroticism scale. Item one of the scale (i.e., *is depressed, blue*) cross loaded thereby making the item redundant. The item was removed. The scale yielded two eigenvalues greater than one accounting for 39.08% and 19.67% of the variance respectively. Item two (i.e., *is relaxed, handles stress well*), item five (i.e., *is emotionally stable*) and item seven (i.e., *remains calm in stressful situations*) which loaded on the second factor were the reverse coded scale items. Although two factors emerged, the two dimensions are most likely an artefact of item wording and may reflect response set or response bias (Spector, Van Katwyk, Brannick, & Chen, 1997). Thus, positive and negatively worded items may merely reflect the tendency for respondents to agree with positive statements about themselves and disagree with those that are negatively phrased (Spector et al., 1997). Items two, five and seven were therefore deleted from the scale. The final scale yielded one eigenvalue

greater than one and accounted for 56.84% of the variance. Table 6 represents the final factor loadings.

Table 6

Results of Principal-Axis Factoring for the Neuroticism Scale

		Factor 1
Neur_3	Can be tense	.76
Neur_4	Worries a lot	.71
Neur_6	Can be moody	.60
Neur_8	Gets nervous easily	.54
Eigenvalue		2.95
Individual total variance (percent)		58.97%
Cumulative total variance (percent)		58.97%

Note. $N = 369$ after listwise deletion of missing data. Neur = neuroticism

Reliability Analysis

Reliability analysis was conducted using Cronbach's coefficient alpha (α). Cronbach's alpha values greater than .70 were considered to be an acceptable level of reliability, with high alpha values representing high internal consistency between scale items (Hair et al., 2003). Item-total correlations greater than .30 were considered acceptable for inclusion in the scale. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the present study ranged from .74 to .93 therefore all values exceeding the conventional acceptance level of .70 (Hair et al., 2003). Cronbach's alphas for the variables are presented on the diagonal in Table 7. Item-total correlations for each scale are presented in Appendix B.

FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENTS AND SATISFACTION WITH WORK-FAMILY BALANCE

Table 7

Mean, Standard Deviation and Correlation Analysis for Indicators

<i>Variable</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. <i>SWFB</i>	3.27	0.90	(.93)					
2. <i>Job control</i>	2.72	0.91	.38**	(.83)				
3. <i>FWA use</i>	0.92	1.11	.06	.33**				
4. <i>Work hours</i>	45.93	10.04	-.25**	-.016	-.06			
5. <i>Commute time</i>	41.59	27.00	.03	-.12*	-.13*	.017	1	
6. <i>Neuroticism</i>	2.68	0.81	-.17**	-.17**	.05	.043	.00	(.74)
7. <i>Children at home</i>	1.73	0.91	-.04	.01	-.08	.032	.12*	-.06

Note. *N* = 299 after listwise deletion of missing data. Cronbach's Alpha reflected on the diagonal; *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; SWFB = satisfaction with work-family balance; FWA = flexible work arrangements.

* $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$;

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were conducted to explore the distribution of the scores on each summary variable (Terre Blanche and Durrheim, 2002). The mean (*M*) and standard deviation (*SD*) were computed for each summary scale, see Table 8. Analysis of the data indicated that compressed workweeks, job sharing and unpaid paternity leave had low frequencies and were therefore excluded from further analysis. The FWAs retained for further analysis were flexible work hours, telecommuting, working from home and paid paternity leave.

To determine if the data were normally distributed, skewness, kurtosis and their respective standard errors as well as Shapiro-Wilk values were assessed (Hair et al., 2003). The closer that skewness and kurtosis values were to zero, the closer the data were to being normally distributed (Burns & Burns, 2008). In addition, a non-significant Shapiro-Wilk test ($p > .05$) inferred that the distribution in the sample was similar to a normal distribution (Field, 2009). Observation of skewness and kurtosis values and the Shapiro-Wilk test therefore indicated that the distribution for all scales was non-normal. Despite this, it is argued that the parametric statistics used in this study are sufficiently robust to deal with the data in this study even though it is not perfectly normally distributed (Pallant, 2010).

The distribution of scores for *job control* and *neuroticism* slightly positively skewed, with values ranging of 0.31 to 0.09 respectively. *Job control* and *neuroticism* were slightly flatter than normal distribution. Descriptive statistics indicated that *FWA use* was moderately positively skewed, whilst slightly more peaked than normal distribution. *SWFB* was slightly negatively skewed and the distribution of data points was slightly flatter than normal (see Table 8).

Reported levels of *SWFB* were relatively high with a mean of 3.27 on a 5-point scale ($SD = 0.90$). *Job control* was slightly lower with a mean score of 2.72 ($SD = 0.91$). Reported levels of *FWA use* was low with a mean score of 0.932 ($SD = 1.11$). Participant scores on neuroticism were on average 2.7 ($SD = 0.81$).

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for Summary Scales

Variables	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>Kurtosis</i>	<i>SW</i>
SWFB	368	3.27	0.90	0.05	-0.12	-0.37	0.978
Job control	371	2.72	0.91	0.05	0.31	-0.17	0.979
FWAs use	306	0.92	1.11	0.06	1.12	0.37	0.782
Neuroticism	369	2.68	0.81	0.04	0.09	-0.33	0.984

Note. *N* = Number of respondents after listwise deletion of missing data. *M* = Mean; *SD* = standard deviation; *SE* = standard error of mean; *SW* = Shapiro- Wilk; SWFB = satisfaction with work-family balance; FWA = flexible work arrangements.

Correlation Analysis

Pearson-product moment analysis with listwise deletion of missing data was conducted to determine the extent to which SWFB was related to the independent variables. Correlation coefficients below .20 were regarded slight, between .20 and .40 weak, between .40 and .70 moderate, and between .70 and .90 high correlations (Burns & Burns, 2008). Table 7 indicates the correlation matrix highlighting values at the significance levels * $p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$.

SWFB was moderately positively correlated to *job control* ($r = .38, p < .01$) indicating that higher levels of *job control* increased working fathers *SWFB*. *SWFB* was weakly negatively correlated to *work hours* ($r = -.25, p < .01$) and slightly negatively correlated to *neuroticism* ($r = -.17, p < .01$). Interestingly, *SWFB* was not

significantly correlated to *FWA use* ($r = .06, p = .274$). *SWFB* was also not significantly correlated to *commute time* ($r = .03, p = .586$) or *children living at home* ($r = -.04, p = .471$).

Job control was moderately positively correlated to *FWAs use* ($r = .33, p < .01$). *Job control* was slightly negatively correlated to *commute time* ($r = -.12, p < .05$) as well as *neuroticism* ($r = -.17, p < .01$). *Commute time* was slightly positively correlated to *children living at home* ($r = .12, p < .05$).

Regression Analysis

Regression analysis was used to evaluate the proportion of the variance in *SWFB* that was explained by the independent variables. This is known as the coefficient of multiple determination (R^2). The total explanation of the variance was accounted for by the change in R^2 where higher values indicated greater explanatory power of the independent variables (Hair, et al., 2003). The regression analysis to test Proposition 1 was not conducted as the correlation between *FWA use* and *SWFB* was not significant ($r = .06, p = .274$).

Simple linear regression was conducted with *job control* as the independent variable and *SWFB* as the dependant variable. *Job control* explained 14.2% of the variance in *SWFB* ($r^2 = .38$) and the model was statistically significant, $F(1, 366) = 60.742, p < .001$. The regression equation to predict working fathers *SWFB* (y) from their perceptions of *job control* (x) is: $y = 2.21 + .379x$. Post-hoc power analysis indicated observed power of 1 ($N = 368, \alpha < .05$). The effect size ($f^2 = 0.17$), indicates a small to medium effect according to Cohen's (1988) convention thus suggesting moderate statistical power. These findings therefore support Proposition 2 that *job control* explains a significant proportion of variance in *SWFB*.

Although correlation analysis indicated that the relationship between *FWA use* and *SWFB* was not significant, hierarchical regression analysis was still conducted to test Proposition 3. This was done in order to determine whether *FWA use* predicted *SWFB* after controlling for the influence of *job control*, *work hours*, *commute time*, *neuroticism* and *children living at home*. A three-step model was used to test this Proposition. Step 1 introduced *work hours*, *commute time*, *neuroticism* and *children living at home* as the control variables. Step 2 introduced *job control* as an independent variable to the model. Step 3 introduced *FWA use*. Hierarchical multiple

regression analysis was then conducted with *SWFB* as the dependent variable (see Table 9).

In step 1, the control variables explained 9.1% of the variance in *SWFB* and the model was statistically significant $F(4, 294) = 7.36, p < .001$. After step 1 only *work hours* ($\beta = -.24, p < .001$) and *neuroticism* ($\beta = -.16, p < .05$) were significant predictors of *SWFB*. After entry of *job control* in Step 2, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 22%, $F(5, 293) = 16.57, p < .001$. *Job control* explained an additional 12.9% of the variance in *SWFB*, after controlling for *work hours*, *commute time*, *neuroticism* and *children living at home*, R squared change = .129, F change $(1, 293) = 48.63, p < .001$. *Job control* thus explained significant incremental variance in *SWFB*. After entry of *FWA use* in Step 3, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 22.4%, $F(5, 296) = 14.09, p < .001$. *FWA use* however, did not make a significant incremental contribution to the variance explained in *SWFB*, R squared change = .004, F change $(1, 292) = 1.52, p = .291$. In the final model, only *job control* ($\beta = .39, p < .001$) and *work hours* ($\beta = -.24, p < .001$) were statistically significant. Post-hoc power analysis revealed observed power of 0.39 ($N = 299, \alpha < .05$). The effect size ($f^2 = 0.010$) indicates a small effect according to Cohen's (1988) convention thus suggesting low statistical power. This finding does not support Proposition 3 that *FWA use* explains significant proportion of variance in *SWFB* over and above the control variables and *job control*.

Table 9

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Dependent Variable: SWFB

Variable	β			95.0% CI ^a	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	LL	UL
Work hours	-.24***	-.24***	-.24***	-0.03	-0.01
Commute time	.04	.09	.08	-0.01	-0.01
Neuroticism	-.16*	-.10	-.10	-0.22	0.01
Number of children living at home	-.05	-.05	-.06	-0.16	0.05
Job control		.37***	.40***	0.28	0.50
FWA use			-.07	-0.14	0.03
R^2	.09***	.22***	.22		
Change in R^2		0.13***	.004		

Note. $N=299$ after listwise deletion of missing data; β = standardised betas; CI = confidence intervals; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

^a 95% confidence intervals for unstandardised betas.

* $p < .05$ *** $p < .001$

Commute time as potential moderator.

Using Aiken and West's (1991) approach, moderated multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine whether commute time moderated the relationship between job control and SWFB. It is noteworthy that no previous studies on this relationship were observed in the literature. This analysis was an exploratory investigation that was based on logical reasoning that job control is likely to more strongly predict SWFB when working fathers have high commute time compared to those employees with low commute time. If a working father spends a high amount of time commuting to work, that father is more likely to be satisfied with their ability to manage work and family responsibilities if they know they have some control over the timing of work.

Centred variables, (the composite variable minus the mean of that variable), were created for the independent variable (*job control*), moderating variable (*commute time*) and the interaction term (*commute time centred x job control*)

centred) and then entered into the hierarchical regression in the steps indicated in Table 10. In step 1, *commute time* and *job control* were added as independent variables to the model and explained 15.2% of the variance in *SWFB*, $F(2, 365) = 32.68, p < .001$. After step 1, *job control centred* ($\beta = .39, p < .001$) and *commute time centred* ($\beta = .10, p < .05$) significantly predicted *SWFB*. After entry of the interaction term, *commute time centred x job control centred* in step 2, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 16.5%, $F(3, 364) = 23.98, p < .001$. *Commute time centred x job control centred* ($\beta = -.12, p < .05$) explained a small but significant incremental variance in *SWFB*, R squared change = 0.01, F change (1, 364) = 5.74, $p < .05$. Statistically, this finding implies that commute time is a significant moderator in the relationship between job control and *SWFB*. Proposition 3 was therefore supported.

Using Cohen's (1988) conventional values for effect size as a guideline, post-hoc power analysis revealed a small effect ($f^2 = 0.16$) at a 95% confidence level. Cohen (1988) recommends a power level of minimum 80% at a .05 significance level thus the observed power of 0.67 ($N = 368, \alpha = .05$) for this study suggests that caution be considered when interpreting the statistical significance of this result.

Table 10

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Dependent Variable: SWFB

Variable	β		95.0% CI ^a	
	Step 1	Step 2	LL	UL
Job control	.39***	.40***	0.301	0.492
Commute time	.10*	.09*	0.000	0.007
Job control x commute time		-.12*	-0.008	0.001
R^2	0.15***	0.17*		
Change in R^2		0.01*		

Note. $N = 368$ after listwise deletion of missing data. β = standardised betas; CI = confidence intervals; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.

^a 95% confidence intervals for unstandardised betas reported.

* $p < .05$ *** $p < .001$

In order to visually represent the results of the interaction effect, simple slopes were examined. The significant moderating effect of commute time on the relationship between job control and SWFB is shown in graphical form in Figure 2. Visual inspection of the graph indicated that the moderating effect of high versus low commute time on the job control-SWFB relationship was not consistent with predictions. Figure 2 indicates that SWFB of working fathers with both high and low commute time increased when job control rose. Although proposition 4, that commute time moderated the relationship between job control and SWFB was supported, contrary to expectations, in circumstances with low job control, parents with high commute time reported higher SWFB compared to parents with low commute time.

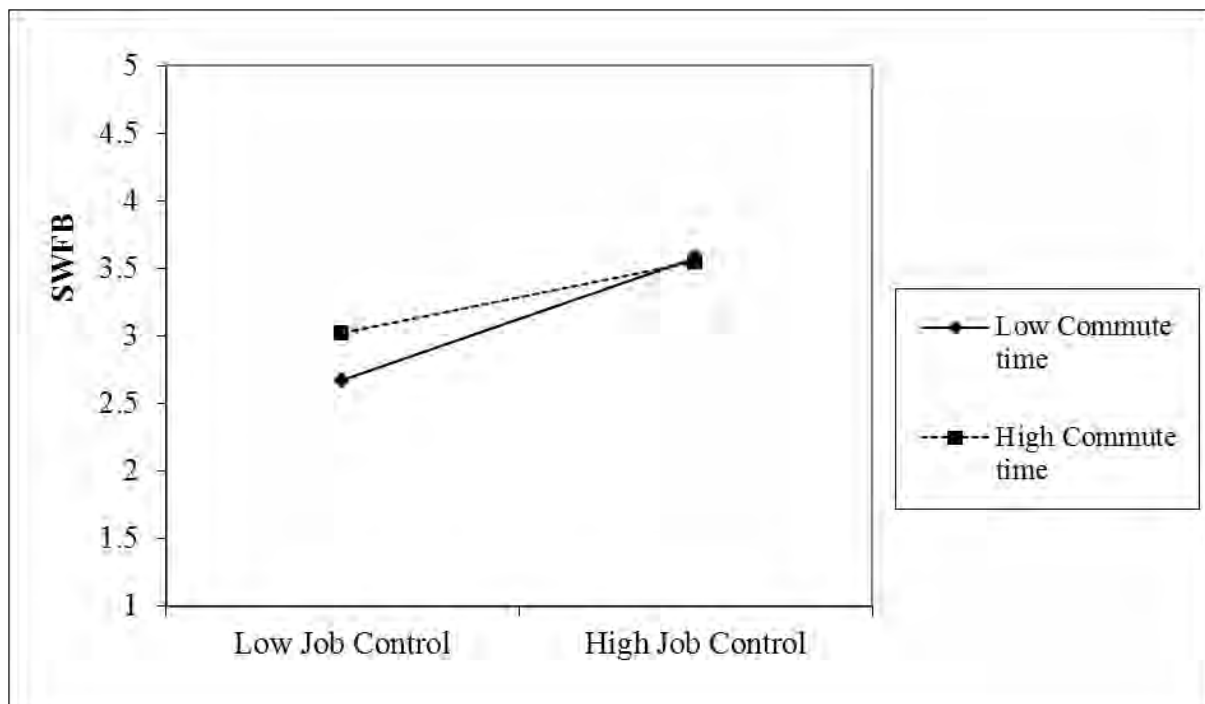


Figure 2. The Moderating Effect of Commute Time on the Relationship between Job control and Satisfaction with Work-Family Balance

Assumptions of multiple regression.

There were at least 15 times more cases in the sample than independent variables and Mahalanobis Distance indicated there were no outliers (Pallant, 2010). Normalised probability plots of the residuals indicated that the assumptions of regression such as multicollinearity and the normality of error distribution had been met (Hair et al., 2003). In order to test for multicollinearity tolerance levels, the

Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), and the residual plots of the models for SWFB were examined. Tolerance levels were less than .10 and the VIF values were lower than 10.0 in all analyses therefore indicating no problems with multicollinearity (Pallant, 2010). Finally, examination of residual plots indicated that the patterns of observed values minimally deviated from the normal P-P plot of regression standardised residuals and thus standard normal probability distributions were assumed.

ANOVA

ANOVA was conducted to examine differences in satisfaction with work-family balance across *race*, *marital status*, *domestic support*, *spouse's occupational status*, *children's age groups* and *occupational category*. None of the results were significant (i.e., all $p > .05$), indicating no differences in satisfaction with work-family balance between the subgroups.

Final Notes

The results of this study confirmed that measures of SWFB and job control were unidimensional. Exploratory factor analysis produced two factors for the neuroticism scale however this could be an artefact of item wording and thus reflected response set or response bias (Spector et al., 1997). Multiple regression analysis indicated that job control was the strongest predictor of SWFB in this study. FWA use did not significantly predict SWFB. Of the control variables under investigation, work hours and neuroticism explained a significant proportion of the variance in SWFB across all analyses. Finally, exploratory analysis of commute time as a moderator of the job control-SWFB relationship indicated it had a significant interaction effect. Analysis of power and effect size suggested this result should be interpreted with caution. Table 11 presents a summary of the main findings of this study based on the analyses of the results and with reference to the propositions identified in the literature review.

FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENTS AND SATISFACTION WITH WORK-FAMILY BALANCE

Table 11

Propositions and Summary of Results

Proposition	Data Analysis Technique	Level of Support
1a. FWA use explains a significant proportion of variance SWFB	Correlation Analysis	Not supported
2. Job control explains a significant proportion of variance SWFB	Correlation Analysis; Simple Linear Regression	Supported
3. FWA use explains a significant proportion of variance SWFB over and above work hours, commute time, neuroticism, children living at home and job control	Correlation Analysis; Hierarchical Multiple Regression	Supported
4. Commute time will moderate the relationship between job control and SWFB.	Moderated multiple regression	Supported

Note. FWA = flexible work arrangement; SWFB = satisfaction with work-family balance.

Discussion

The aim of the present study was to examine the relationship between the use of flexible work arrangements and SWFB amongst working fathers. This study intended to gain greater insight into the SWFB construct, which is distinct from the predominantly used work-family balance construct (Valcour, 2007). In addition, this study focused specifically on working father's experience of managing work and family roles and how using flexible work arrangements may contribute to this experience. This section presents a discussion of the results in relation to the propositions that were analysed and the current literature on the topic. Management implications and suggestions for future research are also presented.

Contributions of this Study

In contrast to most previous work-family literature, this study is unique in examining working fathers' perceptions of their satisfaction with balancing work and family. Understanding the SWFB construct presents potentially important contributions to the work-family literature as it is often highly valued by employees, their families and their organisations.

This study enhances understanding of the work-family interface by means of the following specific contributions:

1. Examining the psychometric properties of the SWFB and job control scales.
2. Examining the relationship between the use of FWAs and SWFB.
3. Assessing the relationship between job control and SWFB.
4. Examining commute time as a moderator of the job control-SWFB relationship.

Each of the above contributions will be examined in turn.

The psychometric properties of SWFB and job control scales.

Exploratory factor analysis indicated that SWFB has a single underlying dimension. This finding therefore confirmed that SWFB is a unitary, holistic construct (McNamara et al., 2013; Valcour, 2007). Moreover, an important contribution of this study is that the psychometric properties of the measure revealed that it is reliable and valid for portability to the South African context. The SWFB measure has indicated psychometric soundness in samples in various settings (e.g. McNamara et

al., 2013; Valcour, 2007) however, no studies that have used this measure in a South African sample were identified in the literature. The sound psychometric properties indicated by this finding thus suggest that SWFB can be reliably measured amongst employees in South Africa. Researchers are encouraged to use this measure in similar samples in order to contribute to the reliability and validity of the SWFB measure in the South African context.

The psychometric properties of the job control scale is a further contribution of this study. The original job control scale, adapted from Valcour (2007) and Thomas and Ganster (1995), only included items examining control over work time. In this study, the scale was therefore extended to include control over work location in order to ensure alignment of the construct definition that was used. Principal-axis factoring revealed one significant factor thus indicating the unidimensionality of the scale. Additionally, the high internal consistency and validity of the measure support its portability to the South African context. Further studies using this scale should be conducted in a South African context in order to generate support for the measure.

Use of FWAs and SWFB.

Results of the correlation analysis indicated that the relationship between the use of FWAs and SWFB was not significant. Unlike Ezra and Deckman (1996) and contrary to expectations, correlation analysis indicated that the use of FWAs does not significantly correlate to SWFB amongst working fathers. These results were in contrast to Allard et al. (2007), Allen et al. (2013) and Anderson et al. (2002) who found that use of FWAs reduced work-family conflict and improved employees' ability to manage work and family demands. In addition, Eaton (2002) and Kossek et al. (2006) indicated that FWA use was positively related to employee satisfaction and work-family effectiveness. Although the aforementioned studies did not address SWFB specifically, they indicated that the use of FWAs improved employee ability to manage work and family roles, which could in turn increase working fathers' SWFB.

In addition, the finding that the relationship between FWA use and SWFB was not significant was inconsistent with COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989). Drawing from COR theory, it was expected that use of FWAs would provide working fathers with valuable resources to more readily and proactively plan and manage work-family life, and in turn could contribute to their SWFB. A possible explanation for these findings

is that the reported number of fathers that actually used FWAs in this study was low ($M = 0.93$, $SD = 1.12$). Perhaps, the low number of FWA users and the finding that the FWA use-SWFB relationship was not significant could be explained by the gender role norms that continue to pervade the South African society (Booyesen & Nkomo, 2010). Although working fathers are increasingly involved in their family responsibilities, the patriarchal history of South Africa that informed gender role norms is still engrained in many men (Booyesen & Nkomo, 2010). The stigma within South African society that men are supposed to be career-orientated, putting work responsibilities ahead of family responsibilities may influence their decision to use flexible work arrangements in the first place (Ranson, 2012). Even though fathers are aware of the benefits of using FWAs, the gender norms and values dissuade them from doing so (Veiga et al., 2004). According to Veiga et al. (2004), men tend to be reluctant to use FWAs because they are concerned of losing career opportunities if they deviate from the career primary track. In addition, favourable perceptions of the ideal worker are still apparent in many contemporary workforces (Beham et al., 2012). Fathers that believe they need to fulfil the role of the ideal worker are likely to perceive that complete devotion to work responsibilities with minimal devotion to family responsibilities is important for career progression (Beham et al., 2012). In addition, possibly contributing to fathers perceptions of the need to be career orientated or the ideal worker is the competition for jobs in South Africa. In a globally competitive labour market, where organisational downsizing and restructuring is rife, it is challenging for men to find and retain jobs in South Africa. Fathers may therefore be even more reluctant to use FWAs because of the fear of losing their jobs. Working fathers in South Africa that perceive the need to be career orientated, or the ideal worker or are concerned about the competitive labour market, may be unlikely to view achieving a satisfactory balance between work and family as a priority.

An additional possible explanation of the findings of this study may be attributed to the combined measurement of various FWAs. Contrary to the findings of this study, Allard et al. (2012), Grzywacz et al. (2008) and Saltzstein et al. (2001), found significant results when examining the work-family outcomes of using a combination of FWAs. Moreover, in a large sample of 32,103 public sector employees, Saltzstein et al. (2001) found that employees that used a combination of

FWAs experienced greater SWFB. On the other hand however, Allen et al. (2013) argued that aggregating flextime and flexplace into a single construct may mask differential effects. When examining flextime and flexplace separately, Allen et al. (2013) reported a stronger effect of the use of flextime than use of flexplace. Similarly, in a sample of 10 482 full-time white-collar parents in the United States of America, Ezra and Deckman (1996) found a significant positive relationship between the use of flextime and SWFB amongst working mothers. Interestingly however, and congruent with the present study, Ezra and Deckman (1996) found no significant relationship amongst working fathers when examining this relationship. A possible explanation of the significant findings amongst mothers but not fathers may, as discussed above, be explained by the gender role norms that exist in many societies (Ranson, 2012).

Job control and SWFB.

Consistent with Valcour (2007), results of the regression analysis indicated that job control predicted SWFB amongst working fathers. Job control represents a resource that increases employee ability to fulfil work and family responsibilities, thereby increasing their SWFB (Valcour, 2007). Moreover, as Thomas and Ganster (1995) argued, job control enables these multiple role responsibilities to be fulfilled without incurring any penalties in either role. In addition, job control decreases the strain employees experience in situations where work constraints make it challenging to fulfil family roles and vice-versa. Fathers in South Africa may for example, use job control to start work later so that they have time to accompany their child on the train to school before starting work. Fathers can fulfil their parental role of ensuring their child gets to school safely, without being concerned about being late for work. By using job control, fathers may be able to adjust their work schedules to fulfil work and family roles without having any negative consequences in either role. In addition, as Ryan and Deci (2001) argued, the psychological experience of job control is associated with employee perceptions of well-being which improves satisfaction and performance in work and family domains. Fathers that have increased satisfaction and performance in work and family roles when using job control are more likely to have higher SWFB.

The findings of the correlation analysis indicated that job control was most strongly correlated to SWFB compared to all other variables examined in this study.

This may suggest that in this sample of working fathers, job control was the most important resource used to facilitate SWFB. Perhaps for working fathers in South Africa, merely knowing that they have control and choice to attend to family responsibilities when required is likely to enhance their perceptions of satisfactorily managing work and family roles. Consistent with Behson (2005), as well as Thomas and Ganster (1995), this finding suggests the greater importance of informal flexibility, such as job control in facilitating positive work-family outcomes compared to formal flexibility, such as using FWAs. Moreover, as Allard et al. (2007) argued, compared to formal flexibility arrangements, job control enables parents to manage family responsibilities that arise at short notice. Fathers that are able to fulfil unexpected family responsibilities are more likely to have positive appraisals of their ability to effectively manage work and family, and in turn are likely to be more satisfied with their work-family balance. If a father needs to go home to take a sick child to the doctor for example, merely knowing that they have job control to do so would positively affect their perceptions of managing work and family responsibilities (Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

A possible explanation of why job control is significant but FWA use is not may be because the gender role norms that contribute to men's' reluctance of using formal FWAs (Veiga et al., 2004) may not have the same influence on their decision to use job control. Perhaps this could be because job control may be perceived as a more temporary form of flexibility whereby, fathers can use it when they decide it is necessary, and the decision to do so can be made on short-term notice (Allard et al., 2007). On the other hand, the nature of formal FWAs, such as flextime, flexplace and paternity leave, are fairly structured in that these arrangements need to be formally agreed upon with the organisation and supervisors prior to using them. Perhaps, because of South Africa's patriarchal history (Ranson, 2012), fathers perceive that using formal FWAs could indicate that they are more family-orientated than career-orientated because these arrangements are a more permanent, and thus choose not to use them. Job control on the other hand may be perceived as a temporary arrangement that career-orientated fathers only use if they feel they have to and thus using job control on the rare occasion may not make them appear family orientated.

A further explanation of why the correlation between FWA use and SWFB was not significant may be because whilst FWAs may be formally offered by the

organisation, this does not guarantee that the organisational culture and supervisors support the use of them. For example, if the culture of the workplace expects fathers to be career-orientated whereby using FWAs would suggest poor career commitment, fathers are unlikely to use FWAs (Veiga et al., 2005). As Thompson et al. (1999) argued, flexibility at work involves more than simply providing formal FWAs, it involves employee perceptions of a mutual sense of trust and respect between the employee and organisation, as well as a supportive organisational culture. Job control incorporates this as if fathers perceive a sense of job control, it suggests that the organisation is supportive of fathers' personal needs to fulfil family responsibilities. On the other hand, merely having FWAs available does not infer that supervisors support the use of them (Veiga et al., 2004). The presence of FWAs may merely be a policy implemented by top management to promote a positive image of the organisation. FWAs may merely be in place to attract and retain talent, whether they are actually used is another area for investigation (Halpern, 2005).

A further possible explanation for the significant finding of job control but not FWA use may be explained by analysing the nature of the constructs themselves. Job control refers to employee perceptions that they have control over their work-family life (Valcour, 2007). Whatever working fathers' work-family circumstances may be, merely knowing that they have choices and control over their work life could facilitate their SWFB. In comparison to FWA use, use refers to actual action, as opposed to perceptions, of utilising FWAs. When actually using FWAs, expectations of the benefits of using FWAs to manage work and family responsibilities may not play out as expected in reality. Working fathers' experience of successfully managing multiple roles would differ as a function of individual preferences and social contexts in which they operate. Some parents may find that using flexibility initiatives, such as working from home, to be a mixed blessing if it entails simultaneously attempting to work effectively and care for children (Saltzstein et al., 2001). This provides support for Kossek and Lautsch's (2012) argument that as employees make use of FWAs, boundaries between work and family are increasingly blurring. For some working fathers, using FWAs increases their ability to manage work and family roles whilst for others, it inhibits active engagement in one role or the other, turning homes into electronic environments and expanding work into family time and vice-versa (Kossek & Lautsch, 2012). Perceptions of job control on the other hand, remain as perceived.

In this study, working fathers' diverse experiences of using FWAs thus may have contributed to the finding that use was not significantly related to SWFB, whilst job control was.

Control variables consistent with Valcour (2007) were included in the hierarchical regression model of SWFB. Consistent with Valcour (2007), Milkie and Peltola (1999) and Milkie et al. (2010), hierarchical regression analyses of this study indicated that work hours was negatively related to SWFB. This finding supports the Valcour's (2007) argument that additional work hours depletes employee resources, such as time, energy and attention, required to effectively manage multiple role responsibilities, thereby decreasing SWFB. Not only do longer working hours reduce the amount of time that is spent in the family role, but it reduces the quality of engagement when doing so because employee resources are diminished (Valcour, 2007).

Consistent with Valcour (2007), findings of this study further indicated that neuroticism was negatively related to SWFB. In step 1 of the hierarchical regression, neuroticism was a significant predictor of SWFB. This result supports the argument that neurotic individuals tend to have fewer psychological resources to fulfil multiple role demands and appraise situations more negatively compared to emotionally stable individuals (Mount & Barrick, 1995; Valcour, 2007). In addition, neurotic individuals are less likely to experience satisfaction and feelings of success. Working fathers that are higher on neuroticism therefore experience reduced SWFB. Interestingly, when job control was added to the model in step 2, neuroticism was no longer a significant predictor of SWFB. This finding is inconsistent with Valcour (2007). A possible explanation for this result is that job control may buffer the effect of neuroticism on SWFB. It is expected that due to the tendency of neurotic individuals to be more tense, anxious and appraise situations more negatively (Mount & Barrick, 1995), these individuals will have more negative perceptions of their ability to successfully manage work and family. However, when neurotic individuals perceive to have control over work time and place, neurotic tendencies may be buffered and thus may not influence SWFB.

Findings of the correlation analyses in this study however, indicated a significant negative relationship between neuroticism and job control. This finding

suggests that as neuroticism increases, working fathers' perceptions of job control decrease. Perhaps this may be explained by the neurotic tendency to be more tense, anxious and negative (Mount & Barrick, 1995) whereby the presence of job control only further contributes to the neurotic tendencies. Perhaps, because neurotic individuals tend to appraise situations more negatively, they are less likely to perceive that they have choice and control over work. In addition, neurotic individuals may be less likely to perceive that the organisational culture and supervisors are supportive of their needs to manage work and family. These mixed findings therefore call for more research on the effect of job control on the relationship between neuroticism and SWFB.

Contrary to Valcour's (2007) results, the number of children living at home was not significantly related to SWFB. This finding does not support the argument that having more children living at home effects working fathers' ability to satisfactorily manage work and family roles. It could be that the prevalent use of domestic workers in this sample may have acted as a buffer in this relationship. Domestic support is easily accessible and affordable in South Africa and provides a means of support for working parents (Smit, 2011). Moreover, although fathers are increasingly responsible for caring for children, the occurrence of stay-at-home mothers remains prevalent in middle-class families in South Africa (Tracey & Rivera, 2010). In cases where fathers use domestic support and/or have stay-at-home partners, the demands of having children living at home could be alleviated. Fathers in such arrangements may thus perceive that children are under adequate care therefore the number of children living at home may not affect perceptions of their ability to manage work and family. Such arrangements may therefore explain why no significant relationship was found between children living at home and working fathers SWFB in this study.

The finding that commute time was not significantly related to SWFB is inconsistent with Valcour (2007). This result does not support the argument that commute time places significant demands on parents' physical and psychological resources thus effecting satisfaction with balancing multiple roles. The prevalence of stay-at-home mothers in South Africa (Tracey & Rivera, 2010) may explain this finding. The demands of commute time may be alleviated if working fathers have a partner at home caring for children and thus it may not significantly affect

perceptions of managing work and family. Interestingly, on its own, commute time did not explain significant variance in SWFB however when interacting with job control, commute time explained a significant proportion of the variance in SWFB. This finding is discussed in the following section.

Commute time as a moderator of job control and SWFB.

Moderated multiple regression analysis provided a more nuanced understanding of the effect of commute time on the relationship between job control and satisfaction with work-family balance. Interestingly, in situations of low job control SWFB was higher for working fathers with high commute time, compared to fathers with low commute time. This finding is the opposite of what was expected.

This finding may be explained by Kossek and Lautsch's (2012) argument on boundary spanning. Many employees that use flexibility as a resource for managing work and family roles are finding that instead of reducing work-family conflict, it is contributing to it. The boundaries between work and family life are increasingly blurring whereby working parents find it challenging to separate the two roles (Kossek & Lautsch, 2012). In addition, whilst working parents attempt to manage these multiple roles, they experience a range of emotions (Glavin, Schieman & Reid, 2011). Particularly, Glavin et al. (2011) emphasised guilt as an emotional response to role blurring. Based on this, fathers that have job control and low commute time may find it more challenging to manage work and family roles because the boundaries between the two roles are intersecting. Commute time probably acts as an additional demand that increases fathers' stress and may contribute to perceptions of guilt. For example, fathers may feel guilty that they should utilise job control to do a school lift if it is available and if they have low commute time. Doing so however, may increase the stress of attempting to successfully fit in an additional task into a busy schedule. Having lower commute time and high job control may therefore reduce working fathers' perceptions of successfully managing work-family balance as boundaries are blurred. On the contrary, employees with high commute time may be accepting that they cannot fit in family responsibilities during work hours and thus are more able to separate boundaries between work and family life, thus experiencing greater SWFB.

Management Implications

Achieving a satisfactory balance between work and family life is primary concern for working fathers and organisations in the 21st century (Beham et al., 2012). Diverse perceptions of what it means to achieve a balance between work and family have manifested from shifting gender role ideologies and family structures in a contemporary society (Abendroth & Den Dulk, 2011). How organisations attempt to accommodate these employee needs presents important implications for management. It has become increasingly challenging for organisations to motivate, retain and attract valuable employees without supporting employee needs for managing work and family (Beham & Drobic, 2010). The results of this study and previous research suggest that job control is important in influencing employee ability to satisfactorily manage work and family roles (Valcour, 2007). Organisations should therefore focus their efforts on facilitating job control in the workplace so that employees are more able to manage work and family roles, and potentially experience greater SWFB. This in turn could promote positive outcomes for the organisation. Organisations that offer flexibility arrangements and promote a family-friendly culture demonstrate their commitment to satisfying employees' needs. In such circumstances, fathers are likely to be increasingly satisfied and committed to the organisation which ultimately contributes to organisational performance (Grzywacz et al., 2008; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004). It is vital that organisations recognise the importance of facilitating working fathers' ability to manage multiple roles. Flexibility arrangements are an affordable and accessible method of achieving this. Moreover, the investment in these will produce overwhelming benefits for individuals and the organisation (Allen et al., 2013).

Findings of this study suggest that informal flexibility in the form of job control may be more significant in predicting positive work-family outcomes than using formal flexibility arrangements. In light of this however, previous research has emphasised the value of formal flexibility arrangements (e.g. Abendroth & Den Dulk, 2011; Bagraim & Sader, 2007; Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011) thus it is suggested that management focus on integrating both formal and informal flexibility arrangements into human resource management systems. This could enable employees in diverse family structures to fulfil work and family responsibilities via their preferred mode of flexibility.

Furthermore, literature on high-performance work practices indicates feasible models for organisations to replicate (Berg, Kalleberg, & Appelbaum, 2003). These practices facilitate control and autonomy within groups of employees, replacing traditional forms of hierarchical control (Berg et al., 2003). Research has indicated that high-performance work practices, such as self-directed work teams, substantive employee participation in decision making, training and mentoring and pay for performance, are positively related to organisational commitment, job satisfaction, job performance and the ability to balance work and family (Berg et al., 2003; Workman & Bommer, 2004). These findings indicate the benefits of implementing high-performance work practices to assist working fathers to manage work and family roles and perhaps in turn, increase their SWFB.

In addition to the above methods that organisations can implement to facilitate SWFB, it is important that management and supervisors are supportive of employee needs to balance work and family life (Allard et al., 2007; Thompson et al., 1999). Flexibility arrangements alone may not be sufficient in promoting satisfaction with work-family balance in organisational cultures whereby paying attention to family life is perceived as being poorly committed to one's career. This is of particular importance in South Africa where patriarchy and gender stereotypes remain prominent in organisations (Booyesen & Nkomo, 2010; Ranson 2012). It is therefore necessary for management to facilitate a culture that is supportive of employee needs to manage work and family life.

Suggestions for Future Research

The present study contributed to the literature on SWFB, as well as working fathers experiences if this in South Africa. The present section outlines suggestions for future research and takes into account possible limitations of this study. It is recommended that future research investigates the effects of use versus availability of FWAs on SWFB. Some studies have shown that merely having FWAs available results in positive work-family outcomes (Allard et al 2012; Grover & Cooker, 1995), Employees do not necessarily need to use FWAs as merely having them available influences positive employee attitudes that the workplace is supportive of work-family concerns (Batt & Valcour, 2003).

Another avenue that future research could follow would be to examine flextime and flexplace separately (Allen et al., 2013). Research is needed to understand how different flexibility arrangements relate to work-family outcomes, and specifically to SWFB. Flexibility arrangements can help create a more satisfied and committed workforce therefore future research should explore how various FWAs operate in combination with the diversity of family structures in shaping individual, family and work-related outcomes (Beham et al., 2012). By examining SWFB in organisational research, researchers are able to gain a more nuanced understanding of the work-family interface (Valcour, 2007).

Future research could also explore the job characteristics that may moderate the influence of job control on SWFB (Valcour, 2007). The effect of job complexity on SWFB presents an interesting avenue for further investigation (Valcour, 2007). Job complexity is a work characteristic that enhances the development of resources such as cognitive flexibility, ability, self-efficacy, and self-direction. Moreover, higher job complexity is associated with a greater sense of control and autonomy over work tasks (Deery, Iverson & Walsh, 2002; Valcour, 2007). On the other hand, low job complexity jobs are likely to be more repetitive, have less autonomy and lack challenging tasks thus reducing employees' psychological resources and thus SWFB (Deery et al., 2002). Job complexity therefore serves as an enabling resource that facilitates working parents' ability to effectively manage the family role (Valcour, 2007). Higher job complexity promotes more positive self-appraisals, increased motivation and satisfaction thus serving as a valuable resource for promoting SWFB (Valcour, 2007).

In addition, future studies could examine how quality time and perceived wellbeing of children may influence working parents' perceptions of work-family balance (Milkie et al., 2010). Previous research examining the family characteristics that effect balance have focused largely on the number and ages of children in the home (Davis, Goodman, Pirretti & Almeida, 2008; Milkie & Peltola, 1999; Valcour, 2007), as well as the quality of marital relationships, spousal support and spouse's occupational status (Byron, 2005; Milkie & Peltola, 1999). In a sample of 933 working parents in the United States of America, Milkie et al. (2010) revealed that quality time spent with children, in activities such as playing and helping with homework, was positively related to working mothers' perceptions of balance. Interestingly however,

this positive relationship was not examined amongst working fathers. Rather, spending more time in routine care of children was strongly related to working fathers' satisfaction with balance. Exploring the gender differences relating to the type of time spent with children (e.g. routine care or quality time) and how this relates SWFB thus presents an important area for future research. In addition, Lareau (2003) revealed an interesting finding on the differences in social class in relation to quality time and perceptions of work-family balance. Lareau (2003) indicated that spending quality time with children was more strongly related to upper and middle class parents' perceptions of balance, compared to working-class and poor parents. Perhaps a possible explanation for this may be that for working class and poor parents, the presence of traditional gender role norms may be more prevalent compared to upper-class families. Achieving a satisfactory balance between work and family may therefore not be a priority to these fathers. Moreover, for working class and poor families, the need to be satisfied with work-family balance is unlikely to be a priority compared to fulfilling fundamental responsibilities, such as earning an income to support the family. Considering the extensive disparities in social class in South Africa, this topic would be interesting and important to investigate.

Whilst some of the findings in this study were consistent with previous literature on SWFB (Valcour, 2007), the generalisability of the results may be limited due to a single sample. Respondents in this sample were predominantly white males working in white collar positions in corporate South Africa. It is therefore suggested that future research replicates this study in diverse demographic samples in South Africa to expand on the research findings. It could for example, be useful to explore how gender differences may play a role in the relationship between flexibility arrangements and SWFB (Valcour, 2007).

This study was cross-sectional in nature whereby the relationship between FWA use and SWFB was examined within a single time frame (Hair et al., 2003). The results of this study therefore cannot be used to explain causal direction as can be done with longitudinal research design. It is recommended that future research be conducted using longitudinal design to determine the presence of causal relationships between FWAs and SWFB. It is however noteworthy to consider Aryee et al.'s (2005) recommendation. Aryee et al. (2005) cautioned that longitudinal design is only beneficial when the optimal time lag for the relationship under

investigation is known. It may be challenging to establish the optimal time lag between FWA use and SWFB, and if not determined correctly longitudinal data can result in more bias than in cross-sectional (Aryee et al., 2005). Future researchers are thus encouraged to take this into consideration.

The present research made use of self-report instruments to collect data therefore common method variance may exist (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002). In addition, considering perceptions that men are supposed to be more career orientated than family orientated continue to exist (Ranson, 2012), social-desirability bias may have occurred. In an effort to avoid this however, participants were ensured anonymity and confidentiality of responses (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002). Although self-report methods are regarded a methodological limitation, it has been argued that the criticism of such methods are often overstated (Behson, 2002).

Conclusion

This study contributes to the literature on SWFB in a South African context. Achieving a satisfactory balance between work and family is important to working fathers and organisations in the 21st century. The diversity of family and work structures in contemporary society presents an important motivation to research SWFB (Valcour, 2007). As traditional gender role norms prescribing males as the breadwinner continue to decline, working fathers become increasingly engaged in family responsibilities. In South Africa the male breadwinner role however, is still evident whereby working fathers are socially expected to first fulfil work responsibilities, and then family responsibilities (Ranson, 2012). How working fathers perceive balance in the presence of these simultaneous yet sometimes paradoxical challenges is thus important to research. In this context, working fathers' perceptions of what it means to be satisfied with their work-family balance are diverse and expansive. What one father may view as achieving a satisfactory balance between work and family, another father may view completely differently. Predominant conceptualisations of work- family balance that measure a specified level of balance, and that have dominated the work-family literature, are thus not suitable in today's contemporary society. Rather, the distinct and relatively new SWFB construct, that measures individuals overall satisfaction with their balance between work and family and that considers fathers subjective perceptions, is contextually appropriate.

Discussion of the research findings has provided a more nuanced understanding of the tools that may influence working fathers' ability to manage work and family responsibilities, and which may facilitate SWFB. It is recommended that organisations facilitate job control as it is a valuable resource in assisting working fathers to manage their work-family life. Having control over aspects of work time and place, especially when unexpected family responsibilities arise, is significant in predicting SWFB. Whilst the use of FWAs was not significant in this study, future research should investigate the use versus availability of these arrangements as they may be valuable resources in different demographic samples. Facilitating SWFB is important to working fathers in the diverse South African workforce. As fathers become more involved in the family role, in addition to their work role, the importance of investigating the tools to satisfy their needs for SWFB are increasingly essential. Moreover, organisations that implement such tools could improve employee commitment and job satisfaction, thus enhancing the organisations' strategic advantage in a globally competitive workforce.

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FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENTS AND SATISFACTION WITH WORK-FAMILY BALANCE

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FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENTS AND SATISFACTION WITH WORK-FAMILY BALANCE

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FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENTS AND SATISFACTION WITH WORK-FAMILY BALANCE

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Appendix A

A list of measurement scales used in this study

Satisfaction with Work-Family Balance

Please indicate on the scale from (1) very dissatisfied to (5) very satisfied, your level of satisfaction with the following items:

1. The opportunity you have to perform your job well and yet be able to perform home- related duties adequately.

Very dissatisfied : __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ Very satisfied

2. The way you divide your attention between work and family life

Very dissatisfied : __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ Very satisfied

3. How well your work life and family life fit together

Very dissatisfied : __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ Very satisfied

4. Your ability to balance the needs of your job with those of your family life

Very dissatisfied : __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ Very satisfied

5. The way you divide your time between work and family life

Very dissatisfied : __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ Very satisfied

Flexible Work Arrangements

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	FWA available at your organisation.	Have used or currently using	Would use in future
Job Sharing E.g. Having a colleague share your work so that you may work reduced hours.			
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 E.g. paid leave given to you to allow you to take time off when your baby is born			
Unpaid paternity leave E.g. unpaid leave given to you to allow you to take time off when your baby is born			

Job Control

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

Appendix B

Item-total statistics for summary scales.

Table B-1

Item-Total Statistics for the satisfaction with work-family balance scale

Scale Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
SWFB_1	12.78	14.33	0.66	0.94
SWFB_2	12.95	13.03	0.86	0.91
SWFB_3	12.93	13.29	0.85	0.91
SWFB_4	12.93	13.30	0.87	0.90
SWFB_5	12.94	13.27	0.85	0.91

Note: N = 368 (after listwise deletion of missing data); SWFB = satisfaction with work-family balance.

Table B-2

Item-Total Statistics for the job control scale

Scale Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
JC_1	10.41	13.01	0.63	0.79
JC_2	10.36	13.31	0.67	0.78
JC_3	11.09	13.36	0.64	0.78
JC_4	11.13	14.07	0.54	0.81
JC_5	10.36	13.75	0.62	0.80

Note: N = 371 (after listwise deletion of missing data); JC = job control.

FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENTS AND SATISFACTION WITH WORK-FAMILY BALANCE

Table B-3*Item-Total Statistics for neuroticism scale*

Scale Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Neur_3	7.77	6.55	0.57	0.67
Neur_4	7.96	6.03	0.60	0.65
Neur_6	8.17	6.37	0.52	0.70
Neur_8	8.46	6.43	0.47	0.72

Note: N = 369 (after listwise deletion of missing data); Neur = neuroticism.