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WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT AMONG HINDU FATHERS IN SOUTH AFRICA

By

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COMPULSORY DECLARATION:

This work has not been previously submitted in whole, or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation in, this dissertation from the work, or works of other people has been attributed, cited and referenced.

Signature: signature removed **…….** **Date: 10 March 2017**

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Abstract

This research examined work-family conflict among Hindu fathers in South Africa. Various authors have indicated that work-family conflict should be investigated in specific cultural contexts because the demands of work and family differ across various cultures. This research examined the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support, co-worker support and work-family conflict. Additionally, this research also examined the moderating role of traditional Hindu cultural values (gender role ideology and family hierarchy orientation) in the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support, and work-family conflict. Secondary data from an earlier study that explored work-family conflict among Hindu parents in South Africa was used. The final sample consisted of 183 Hindu fathers involved in full-time work in South Africa. Exploratory factor analysis confirmed the bi-directionality of the work-family conflict construct. Hierarchical regression analyses showed that work role overload and co-worker support were significant predictors of work-to-family conflict (W2FC), whilst work role overload was a significant predictor of family-to-work conflict (F2WC). Results of the moderated regression analyses showed that gender role ideology did not moderate the relationships between work role overload, W2FC and F2WC. Family hierarchy orientation did not moderate the relationships between supervisor support, W2FC and F2WC. The findings of this research have practical implications for management and offer suggestions for future research.

Key words: Work role overload, work support, cultural values, Hindu fathers, South Africa

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Work-Family Conflict among Hindu Fathers in South Africa

The ideals of fatherhood are changing. Historically, fathers were the primary breadwinner and disciplinarian in the family (Huffman, Olson, O'Gara, King, 2014).With the emergence of dual-earner couples, there is a movement away from the traditional father who was the primary breadwinner in the family, towards the 'new' father who is a role model, an involved parent and a caregiver (Harrington, Humberd, & van Deusen, 2016).The shift towards the 'new father'(Harrington, Van Deusen, & Mazar, 2012) assumes that fathers hold more responsibility for basic childcare such as providing their children with emotional and cognitive support (Roopnarine & Göl-Güven, 2015).

Fathers and work-family conflict

There has been a proliferation in literature surrounding father's work and family experiences (Ladge, Humberd, Watkins, & Harrington, 2015). Actual behaviour changes for fathers take place within the context of the broader societal expectations regarding a 'good father' and a 'good worker' (Daly, Ashbourne, & Hawkins, 2008). However, the traditional image of men as being solely devoted to their careers remains entrenched in broader societal expectations (Harrington et al., 2016). The changing nature of work, increased global competition and emphasis on organisational performance has resulted in organisations placing more expectations on their employees to work longer hours and improve productivity (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014). As a result, most organisations continue to demand intensive time commitments from their employees and promote the ideal worker as one that demonstrates commitment to the organisation by working long hours (Humberd, Ladge, & Harrington, 2015).

In the workplace, formal family policies and family-friendly initiatives are predominantly aimed at mothers (Cooklin et al., 2016). Paternity leave and other family support for men remains a 'ghost in the organisational machine' (Cooklin et al., 2016).This is evident in South Africa (SA) where there is no parental leave for fathers (Makusha & Richter, 2015). According to The Basic Conditions of Employment Act of 1997, all employees are granted paid leave of three days for family responsibility (Hosegood & Madhavan, 2012). Globally, the lack of formal family support policies limits the amount of involvement that fathers have in childrearing and providing care for their children. Despite the lack of formal family support policies in organisations, various researchers have suggested that informal workplace support from supervisors and co-workers could help fathers in managing their work and family demands (e.g., Cooklin et al., 2016; Ladge et al., 2015). Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark and Baltes (2011) proposed that family supportive supervisors and co-

workers would be more understanding and tolerant towards the employee's family life. However, fathers continue to face increased challenges in managing their work and family roles because of the time demands required by organisations, the intensity of work demands, and the demands of fatherhood (Ladge et al., 2015).

Fathers need to successfully manage the various expectations of each role in order to fulfil the role of 'good father' and 'good worker' simultaneously. The more roles that fathers assume, the more demands they will encounter in each role (Kaufman, 2013). As fathers encounter various demands in each role, they become more susceptible to role overload and will not have sufficient time to execute all of their roles successfully. In the work domain, role overload has been suggested as a prominent antecedent to work-family conflict (Cooklin et al., 2016). Despite this, role overload has not received as much attention in the work-family literature compared to role conflict and role ambiguity (Creary & Gordon, 2016). As a result of the changing nature of work and its subsequent impact on employees, Creary and Gordon (2016) argued that it is imperative to investigate the influence of role overload in the work-family interface.

Work-family conflict (WFC) is used to describe the incompatibility that an individual experiences when confronted with simultaneous demands from both work and family domains (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Examining WFC is particularly important because of its associated detrimental personal and organisational consequences such as reduced job satisfaction (Kalliath & Kalliath, 2013), increased absenteeism (Nohe & Sonntag, 2014) and psychological strain (Sanguanklin et al., 2014).

The majority of research concerning father's experience of work-family conflict has been conducted in countries in the Global North among white collar fathers (Harrington et al., 2016). More research of fathers' experiences of WFC in countries in the Global South is needed because work and family demands differ across various cultures (Annor, 2016). Work-family researchers (e.g., Annor, 2016; Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2016) have emphasised the need to study work-family conflict in unique cultural contexts. However, majority of work-family research has been conducted in Asian countries where Confucian values are dominated (e.g., Lu, 2012; Lu & Kao, 2013). Given that the perception of work and family differs across cultures, it is imperative to understand how an ethnic minority group (such as Hindu fathers) experience the demands of work and family life whilst living in a pluralistic society in South Africa which consists of various different cultural groups.

Fathers in South Africa

Previously, South Africa was considered a highly patriarchal society that was influenced by the ideologies of apartheid (Booysen & Nkomo, 2010). This promoted an androcentric framework whereby men were perceived to be the primary breadwinners in the family (Uchendu, 2008).With the implementation of apartheid, majority of black fathers (which included Indian and coloured fathers) and women were given limited opportunities to participate in the workforce (Morrell, 2006). In 1994, the abolishment of apartheid has resulted in changes in South Africa's labour legislations and laws. Men and women from previously disadvantaged groups (i.e., African black, coloured and Indian groups) were given opportunities to actively participate in the workforce (Maja & Nakanyane, 2006). With the emergence of dual-earner couples in the workforce, the conceptualisation of the 'new father' is slowly emerging in SA (Morrell, 2006). However, the new values and beliefs concerning fatherhood have been particularly prevalent among white fathers in SA (Smit, 2002).There appears to be limited research on Hindu fathers in SA.

Hindu fathers in South Africa

In 1860, the first Indian labourers from several parts of India arrived in South Africa by means of the indentured labour system (Kumar, 2012). By 1911, it was estimated that approximately 150,000 Indians, majority of who were Hindus settled in SA (Lal &Vahed, 2013). A survey conducted in 2014 by the South African Institute of Race Relations (2016) showed that the Hindu population comprised of only 0.9% (397 922) of the total population in South Africa. Despite being the minority, the Hindu population continues to contribute to the country's economic growth and development (Kumar, 2012). Whilst there are no labour statistics available for Hindu men in SA, the Indian population compared to other previously disadvantaged groups (e.g., African black or coloured population) have made significant progress since the introduction of democracy in SA, having reported higher levels of education, urbanisation, wealth and lower levels of unemployment (Leibbrandt, Woolard, McEwen, & Koep, 2010).

Within the Hindu culture, the family is considered to be of utmost importance (Kumar, 2012). The joint family system is seen as the foundation of Hindu society as it develops the basic values of Hindu culture such as respect for elders, tolerance and compassion (Singh, 2011). In the traditional Hindu joint family system, the defining characteristics of a father includes being the primary breadwinner, emotional distancing from children and unquestioned authority over family members (Roopnarine, Krishnakumar, & Vadgama, 2013). The traditional notions of fatherhood in the Hindu family have been

entrenched in ancient Hindu scriptures (i.e., *Manusmriti*) that influence men and women's roles (Roopnarine & Göl-Güven, 2015). These scriptures dictate that from a young age, Hindu males should be raised with the primary duty of being the principal earning member in the family rather than a nurturing caregiver (Chandra, 2010). Traditional Hindu cultural values such as traditional gender roles and family hierarchy orientation influence the behaviour of Hindu males, the type of career they choose, and their parenting roles and obligations (Sriram & Navalkar, 2012).

In South Africa, various societal changes have challenged the traditional ideologies of fatherhood in the Hindu culture (Kumar, 2012). In contemporary SA, the Hindu population continues to practice many of the traditional beliefs, customs and rituals of Hinduism (Lal & Vahed, 2013). For instance, the vows taken during the Hindu marriage ceremony are guided by ancient religious scriptures which dictate that the groom takes the role of providing the economic welfare for his wife and children, whilst the bride takes the role of the homemaker (Kumar, 2000). However, Hindu fathers in SA live in a society that promotes values and beliefs that are markedly different to the ideological beliefs and practices of Hinduism. For example, the South African business environment is guided by Western based value systems, ideologies and practices (Festus, Kasongo, Moses, & Yu, 2016). Post democratic legislation frameworks such as the South African Bill of Rights (1996) and Employment Equity Act (No. 55 of 1998) have increased opportunities for women to attend educational institutions and be actively involved in the labour force (Smit, 2002). This challenges the traditional ideologies of the Hindu culture which dictates that women should be solely responsible for household duties.

The knowledge-intensive, dynamic and competitive work environment places additional expectations on Hindu fathers (Festus et al., 2016). To be actively involved and successful in the South African labour market, Hindu fathers are expected to follow the values and ideologies of the broader society. Hindu fathers face a constant challenge to negotiate between the demands of work and family life, whilst simultaneously accomplishing the ideals of a 'good father' in the view of Hindu society (Roopnarine et al., 2013). The Hindu society maintains the status quo of traditional gender roles through the endorsement and internalisation of Hindu cultural beliefs of masculinity (Rajadhyaksha, Korabik, & Aycan, 2015). This creates additional pressures for Hindu fathers who want to actively contribute to the care of their children but also needs to maintain an identity of a 'good father' in the view of the Hindu society.

For a Hindu father to be successful in the multiple roles he occupies, he needs to balance the various demands from work and family. When the various demands from either the work or family domain become incompatible with each other, Hindu fathers are likely to encounter role pressures and subsequently experience role overload. Hindu fathers may want to invest more time in caregiving but at the same time are also expected to cope with work demands (Rajadhyaksha et al., 2015). In addition, Hindu fathers are also expected to maintain their masculine identity in society by performing their primary role as the breadwinner (Roopnarine et al., 2013). Therefore, understanding the cultural context in which Hindu fathers are situated in is vital because it guides their perceptions of their life roles and their interactions with others (Powell, Francesco, & Ling, 2009).

Research Aims

The aim of this research is to examine work-family conflict among Hindu fathers in South Africa. Specifically, this research aims to use secondary cross-sectional survey data to examine the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support, co-worker support and WFC. This research also aims to extend on previous work-family literature by determining the extent to which traditional Hindu cultural values (gender role ideology and family hierarchy orientation) moderate the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support, and WFC for Hindu fathers in South Africa.

Research Questions

To what extent does work role overload, supervisor support, co-worker support and traditional Hindu cultural values predict work-family conflict among Hindu fathers in South Africa? In addition, the following sub-question is presented: To what extent do traditional Hindu cultural values moderate the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support, and work-family conflict among Hindu fathers in South Africa?

Structure of the Dissertation

This dissertation is structured into five sections. This section serves as an introduction. Section two presents the literature review which includes a synthesis of the literature relating to work-family conflict. The relationships between the study's variables and the research propositions will also be presented. Section three outlines the method followed to meet the research aims. The next section, section four, presents the obtained results which provide statistical explanations of the findings in this research. Lastly, section five will provide a discussion in relation to the findings of this research and relevant literature. Section five will also outline the limitations of this research as well as implications for practice and future research.

Literature Review

The literature review is organised into three parts. Firstly, a detailed review of the literature and theoretical frameworks relating to work-family conflict is presented. Following this, the proposed relationships between work role overload, work support and work-family conflict are discussed. The last part of the literature review presents a review of research on the moderating role of traditional cultural values in the work-family relationships. The literature review concludes with a presentation of the study's conceptual framework.

Literature search procedure

A database search on EBSCOHOST was conducted for empirical studies conducted in countries in the Global South that examined the antecedents of WFC. The databases that were searched included Academic Search Premier, Humanities International Complete, Business Source Premier, PsycINFO and Emerald. This search was limited to academic peer-reviewed articles published in English between 2000 and 2016. The primary literature search took place from February 2016 to August 2016. Follow up searches were conducted from October 2016 to January 2017. Prior to conducting the literature search, a list of all the countries in the Global South was acquired in order to find literature that examined the antecedents of WFC in a specific country. Countries in the Global South included all Asian countries except Hong Kong, Japan, Singapore, South Korea, and Taiwan. Thereafter, a refined Boolean search using the individual country's name and the term 'work-family' was conducted on the various databases. For example, 'work-family' and 'India'.

Theoretical framework

The concept of work-family conflict was derived from Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosanthal (1964)'s seminal work on inter-role conflict. Expanding on their work, Kanter (1977), Katz and Kahn (1978), Piotrowski (1979) and Pleck (1977) suggested that activities in the work domain can affect the activities in the non-work domain. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) applied the idea of inter-role conflict to the work-family domain. Table 1 summarises common terms used to describe inter-role conflict. The term 'work-family conflict' has been the most widely used term in empirical research to describe the inter-role conflict between the work and family domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).Work-family conflict refers to "[a] form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p.77).Work-family conflict is underpinned by role conflict theory (Kahn et al., 1964), the scarcity hypothesis (Goode, 1960; Marks, 1977) and resource drain theory (Rothbard, 2001).

Table 1.
Alternative Names for Work-Family Conflict

Name	*Authors*
Family-work role incompatibility	Jones and Butler (1980)
Job-family role strain	Swanberg (2005)
Job-home interface	O'Driscoll et al. (2003)
Negative work-home interaction	Geurts et al. (2005)
Negative spillover	Edwards and Rothbard (2000)
Work – non-work interference	Koekemoer and Mostert (2010)
Work-family tension	Duxbury and Higgins (1991)
Work-home interface	Steinmetz, Frese, and Schmidt (2008)

Role conflict theory. Merton (1957) proposed that various social structures such as families, communities and work are formed within social settings. These structures require various roles that individuals need to fulfil. A role is described as "patterns of expectations which apply to a particular social position and which normally persist independently of personalities occupying that position" (Sieber, 1974, p. 569). Individuals may adopt multiple roles according to their cultural beliefs, norms, preferences and expectations of the society in which they are situated in. In organisational contexts, expectations may either rise from actual demands of the job or from family members (Biddle, 1986).The combinations of the two expectations create role pressures. When these pressures are incompatible, role conflict arises.

Kahn et al. (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). Findings from Kahn et al.'s (1964) study explained why individuals may face difficulties in combining different roles. Kahn et al. (1964) argued that multiple role demands and responsibilities are incapable of occurring simultaneously. As a result of having multiple social roles (e.g., work and non-work), conflict might be experienced when an individual is unable to fulfil multiple role obligations.

The scarcity hypothesis. Goode (1960) argued that the enactment of an individual's work role (a) reduces the energy available for performing one's family role, (b) interferes with the individual's capability to perform their family role, and (c) encourages behaviours that are incompatible with the performance of one's family role. Specifically, individuals possess finite amounts of psychological and physiological resources (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003).Therefore, the more roles the individual occupies, the more depleted and exhausted

their resources will become (Randall, 1988). Given the limited availability of resources required to fulfil multiple roles, individuals who participate in multiple roles will inevitably experience role conflict (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003). When individuals attempt to manage the demands associated with multiple roles (i.e., being a father and an employee), they will face conflict as they draw on the same scarce resources (Geurts et al., 2005).

Resource drain theory. Rothbard (2001) and Staines (1980) suggested that individuals transfer resources from one role to another role. Given that resources are finite, there is a drain on the resources in the transferring role. Individuals who experience a drain in resources are likely to experience energy depletion, inter-role conflict and burnout (Randall, 1988). Additionally, individuals who constantly negotiate resources between different domains (such as work and family domain) are more vulnerable to psychological distress and energy depletion (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003; Rothbard, 2001; Voydanoff, 2004).When people transfer resources from their work to the family domain or from the family to the work domain, they are likely to experience WFC because the resources transferred from the work or family domain is limited (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003).

The nature of work-family conflict: Directionality and dimensionality

This section serves to discuss the nature of work-family conflict with regard to its directionality and dimensionality.

Bi-directionality of WFC. Early research in the work-family field did not distinguish between the directions of conflict (Bohen & Viveros-Long, 1981; Holahan & Gilbert, 1979). Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) proposed that WFC is a bi-directional reciprocal relationship that represents two conceptually and empirically distinct directions. These directions are work-to-family conflict (W2FC) and family-to-work conflict (F2WC).When resources from the family domain are used to fulfil work activities, work-to-family conflict (W2FC) is experienced. Conversely, when resources from the work domain are used to satisfy the family domain, the individual's work resources are depleted and family-to-work conflict (F2WC) is experienced (Voydanoff, 2004).

The cross domain relationship of WFC. A cross-domain relationship refers to the extent to which factors in the work domain are related to conflict in the family domain and the extent to which factors in the family domain are related to conflict in the work domain (Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007). Initially, Frone, Russell, and Cooper (1992) articulated and tested a model which proposed work-related stressors travel through W2FC and have negative effects on family outcomes. Conversely, family-related stressors travel through F2WC and have negative effects on family outcomes. Ford et al.'s (2007) findings support

the idea of the cross domain effect of WFC. On the other hand, there has also been evidence of within-domain effects. Within-domain relationships refer to the extent to which factors in the work domain relate to W2FC and the extent to which factors in the family domain relate to F2WC (Ford et al., 2007).

Empirical evidence for bi-directionality of WFC. Work-family literature has provided empirical evidence in support of the bi-directional nature of WFC (c.f., Byron, 2005; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005; Michel et al., 2011). Mesmer-Magnus and Viswesvaran (2005) meta-analysed the differences between W2FC and F2WC using 25 independent samples (N=9079). Findings from their study demonstrated adequate discriminant validity between W2FC and F2WC. Bi-directional claims of WFC were also found by Michel et al. (2011) who confirmed that there were distinct antecedents for W2FC and F2WC.

Dimensionality. Work-family conflict was initially conceptualised as a uni-dimensional construct (Bohen & Viveros-Long, 1981; Kopelman, Greenhaus, & Connolly, 1983). Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams (2000) validated a multidimensional model of WFC which included time-based conflict, strained-based conflict, and behaviour-based conflict. However, the empirical evidence for behaviour-based conflict is scarce and its role in comparison to time-based conflict and strain-based conflict is vague (Geurts & Demerouti, 2003; Rantanen, 2008). Given this limitation, this research used the bi-directional model of work-family conflict.

Antecedents and Moderators of Work-Family Conflict

Antecedents of work-family conflict. Byron (2005) and Michel et al. (2011) conducted meta-analyses that examined the antecedents of WFC. Byron's (2005) findings demonstrated that work-related characteristics such as job involvement, hours spent at work, work support, schedule flexibility and job stress are related to W2FC. In contrast, family-related characteristics such as family involvement, family support, family conflict and number of children were more related to F2WC (Byron, 2005).

Extending on these findings, Michel et al. (2011) conducted a meta-analysis on the antecedents of WFC based on 1080 correlations from 178 samples. Findings from their meta-analysis indicated that work-related stressors (e.g., role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload, and job stressors), work characteristics (e.g., job autonomy, task variety), personality, and work social support (e.g., co-worker and supervisor support) were significantly related to W2FC. Conversely, family role stressors (e.g., family stressors, number of children, parental demands), family social support (e.g., family support, spousal

support), family characteristics and family personality were significantly related to F2WC. Michel et al. (2011) confirmed the cross-domain relationship of WFC. The findings from Michel et al.'s (2011) meta-analysis indicated that antecedents from the work domain were also predictors of F2WC, whilst antecedents from the family domain also predicted W2FC.The findings from Bryon (2005) and Michel et al.'s (2011) meta-analyses not only highlighted the cross-domain relationship of WFC but also validated the bi-directional nature of WFC.

Whilst the findings from Bryon (2005) and Michel et al. (2011) may be useful in understanding the antecedents of WFC, the majority of their studies were based on samples in countries in the Global North. However, the manner in which work and family demands are perceived differs across cultures and this influences the manifestation of WFC (Annor, 2016). Below, Table 2 summarises various studies that examined the antecedents of WFC in countries in the Global South. Regarding work-related stressors, the majority of studies in Table 2 support the findings of Bryon (2005) and Michel et al. (2011). As seen in Table 2, various work-related stressors such as workload, heavy work demands, work pressures and work role overload were common antecedents of WFC among countries in the Global South. Work characteristics such as schedule flexibility, type of job and level of income were also related to W2FC and to F2WC (c.f., Anderson et al., 2008; de Klerk & Mostert, 2010).

Similar to Bryon (2005) and Michel et al. (2011) meta-analyses, the studies in Table 2 indicated that workplace support (from a supervisor or a co-worker) and supportive work climates reduced the experiences of WFC (c.f., Annor, 2016; Lu et al., 2009).Contrary to the findings of the two meta-analyses, few studies (c.f., Farhadi et al., 2013; Luk & Shaffer, 2005) found no support for the relationships between supervisor support, co-worker support and WFC. For instance, Luk and Shaffer (2005) indicated that supervisor support may act as a moderator in the WFC relationships. The findings from their study demonstrated that supervisor support weakened the relationship between F2WC and family role expectation.

Furthermore, contextually salient antecedents of work-family conflict such as job insecurity, anxiety over reward, absence of household electrical appliances and poor infrastructural facilities were reported in Sub-Saharan Africa (Adisa et al., 2016; Aryee, 2005). Compared to studies conducted in countries in the Global North (e.g., Bryon, 2005; Michel et al., 2011), these contextually salient antecedents of WFC could be attributed to the differences in sociocultural contexts and levels of economic development between countries in Sub-Saharan Africa and countries in the Global North (Aryee, 2005).

In the family domain, Table 2 indicates that family role stressors such as family demands, family duties, family responsibilities and parental demands were significant predictors of F2WC. These findings are similar to that of Bryon (2005) and Michel et al. (2011). Several authors (e.g., Ho et al., 2013; Kailasapathy et al., 2014) have examined the antecedents of WFC using samples in collectivistic cultures and found that extended family obligations and extended family support were also considered to be important antecedents of WFC. These findings highlight the importance of the role of the family in collectivist cultures. Other family antecedents such as child-care facilities, time spent on household work and spouse's values were also considered significant predictors of WFC (c.f., Afrianty et al., 2015; Ahmad & Omar, 2008; Foster & Ren, 2015).

In sum, the findings from the studies conducted in countries in the Global South indicate that certain antecedents of WFC (e.g., role ambiguity, role overload) are common to that of studies conducted in countries in the Global North. However, as seen in Table 2 there are salient antecedents of WFC such as job insecurity, poor infrastructural facilities and extended family obligations that have been reported in countries in the Global South. These observations reiterate the notions that national contexts of a country can contribute to the manifestation of work and family demands (Annor, 2016; Ollier-Malaterre, Valcour, Den Dulk & Kossek, 2013).

Moderators of work-family conflict. In addition to research that has examined the direct associations between WFC and other variables, some studies have reported that gender (Jones, Burke & Westman, 2006), work hours (Amstad et al., 2011), social support (Nohe & Sonntag, 2014), dual earner couples (Ford et al., 2007) and cultural values (Lu, 2012) have a moderating effect on the WFC relationships.

For instance, Byron (2005) found that gender had a near zero relationship to W2FC and is weakly correlated to F2WC. Amstad et al. (2011) findings showed a significant effect of work hours on the relationship between W2FC and family satisfaction and on the relationship between F2WC and health-related outcomes. Regarding social support, Nohe and Sonntag (2014) findings indicated that leader support significantly moderated the relationship between W2FC and turnover intentions. Goh, Ilies, and Wilson (2015) also reported that supervisor support moderated the relationship between daily workload and daily W2FC. Ford et al. (2007) found that individuals who were in a dual-earning couple relationship experienced a weaker relationship between family satisfaction and W2FC compared to individuals not in a dual-earner relationship.

Cultural values and norms are argued to play a role in shaping the work-family experiences of an individual (Allen, French, Dumani, & Shockley, 2015; Korabik, Lero, & Whitehead, 2008). Aryee, Fields, and Luk (1999) found that Chinese employees experienced a stronger relationship between life satisfaction and W2FC, than American employees did. The differences were attributed to the importance of family in Confucian societies (Aryee et al., 1999). Similarly, Yang, Chen, Choi, and Zou (2000) findings showed that family demands was significantly related to WFC in USA than in China, whereas work demands was significantly related to WFC in China than in the USA. They concluded that cultural differences may potentially moderate the relationships between work, family demands and WFC. Moreover, the findings from Spector et al.'s (2004) study indicated that participants from collectivistic cultures experienced a stronger relationship between work hours and WFC, compared to participants from individualistic cultures.

Relationships between work role overload and work-family conflict

Role overload is considered a time-based conflict that arises when time assigned to fulfil one role responsibility (either work or family), makes it harder to fulfil another role responsibility (Thiagarajan, Chakrabarty, & Taylor, 2006). More specifically, role overload leads to a psychological preoccupation with uncompleted tasks irrespective of whether an individual is responding to demands in other roles (Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005).

From the studies conducted in countries in the Global North, the findings have demonstrated that there is a positive association between work role overload and both directions of work-family conflict (cf., Bakker, Demerouti, & Dollard, 2008; Matthews, Bulger, & Barnes-Farrell, 2010; Yildirim & Aycan, 2008). As seen in Table 2, the same pattern regarding work role overload as a positive predictor of W2FC and F2WC has emerged among studies conducted in countries in the Global South (cf., Achour et al., 2014; Annor,2014; Kailasapathy et al., 2014; Kaur, 2008; Hsiao & Barak, 2014; Noor, 2002; Uzoigwe et al.,2016).

Work role overload is considered to be a highly salient and pervasive phenomenon that could possibly exacerbate both W2FC and F2WC (Michel et al., 2011). In the family domain, family demands produces strain and reduces an individual's personal resources such as energy and physical or mental capacity (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). This makes it more challenging for the individual to meet responsibilities in their work role. Similarly, in the work domain, work demands can produce strain and reduce an individual's resources needed in their family role. Therefore, the individual may struggle to meet responsibilities in the family domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Table 2.
Antecedents of Work-Family Conflict in Global South Countries

Author/s	Year	Country	Sample	*N*	Antecedents	Direction measured (W2FC and F2WC)	Findings
Achour, M., Grine, F., & Roslan Mohd Nor, M.	2014	Malaysia	Female lecturers	5	Commuting from work to home, long working hours, inflexible work schedule, work overload, workplace support, family demands ,husband attitudes, household work, family support	Yes	Significant
Adisa, T. A., Osabutey, E., & Gbadamosi, G.	2016	Nigeria	White-collar professionals	88	Work pressure, heavy familial duties, poor infrastructural facilities, lack of proper and practicable work-family policies	Not specified	Significant
Afrianty, T. W., Burgess, J., & Issa, T.	2015	Indonesia	University faculty staff	159	Gender, age , paid help, children number, job category, use of flexible work options, use of specialized leave options, dependent use	W2FC	Non-significant
Ahmad, A., & Omar, Z.	2008	Malaysia	Female employees	918	Work hours, flexible work schedule, job-sharing, family-care benefits, child-care facilities	Yes	Significant
Ahmed, S. F., & Carrim, N. M.	2016	South Africa	Female employees	9	Spousal support	Not specified	Significant
Aizzat Mohd., N., & Khor Lee, H.	2008	Malaysia	Married accountants	185	Spousal support, manager support	Yes	Significant

Anderson, S. E., Coffey, B. S., Liu, Y., & Zhao, S.	2008	China	Working adults	254	Work-schedule flexibility, autonomy, dependent care benefits, managerial support, turnover intention,	Yes	Significant
Annor,F.	2016	Ghana	University employees	154	Work pressure, family pressure, work support, family support	Yes	Significant
Annor,F.	2014	Ghana	University lecturers	18	Working hours, role overload, insufficient pay, work schedules, workplace support, commuting time, heavy workloads, family-related demands, family responsibilities, family support	Yes	Significant
Aryee, S	2005	Sub-Saharan Africa	Not applicable (N/A)	N/A	Work pressures, work hours, job insecurity, inadequate pay, anxiety over reward, family conflict, extended family obligations, absence of household electrical appliances	Yes	Significant
Beigi, M., Shirmohammadi, M., & Sehoon, K.	2016	Iran	University faculty staff	N/A	Work hours, time spent with family	Yes	Significant
Bhowon, U., Ngtseung, C., & Kaajal, B.	2008	Mauritius	Married women	200	Spousal career-related emotional support	Not specified	Significant
De Klerk, M., & Mostert.	2010	South Africa	Professionals working in various industries	2040	Occupation, age, marital status, parental status, language	Yes	Significant

Epie, C., & Ituma, A.	2014	Nigeria	Professionals working in various industries	156	Work hours, commuting time, supervisor support	W2FC	Significant
Farahat, F. M.	2009	Egypt	Female physicians	300	Work role overload, maternity leave benefits, spouse support, childcare, domestic work	Not specified	Significant
Farhadi, P., Sharifian, R., Feili, A., & Shokrpour, N.	2013	Iran	Nurses in hospital	2102	Supervisor support	Yes	W2FC: Significant F2WC: Non-significant
Forster, N., Al Ali Ebrahim, A., & Ibrahim, N. A.	2013	United Arab Emirates	Women in the private and public sector	173	Immediate family support, extended family support, time spent at work, time spent with children, work responsibilities	W2FC	Significant
Foster, D., & Ren, X.	2015	China	Women working in the airline industry	105	Job type, work schedule inflexibility, job demands, length of leave, eldercare, domestic work, age of children, number of children	Yes	Significant
Halbesleben, J. B., Wheeler, A. R., & Rossi, A. M.	2012	Brazil	Professionals working in a various industries	608	Co-worker instrumental support, spouse instrumental support	W2FC	Significant
Ho, M. Y., Chen, X., Cheung, F. M., Liu, H., & Worthington, E. L.	2013	China	Married couples	306	Family, support, work support, family orientation	Yes	Significant

Hsiao, H., & Barak, M. M	2014	Mexico	Factory workers	168	Role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload, work-related social support	Yes	Work stressors= significant Work social support= non-significant
Kailasapathy, P., & Metz, I.	2012	Sri Lanka	Dual-earner couples	25	Negotiation at work, negotiation at home	Yes	Significant
Kailasapathy, P., Kraimer, M. L., & Metz, I.	2014	Sri Lanka	Dual-earner parents	185	Leader–member exchange, work role overload, paid hours per week, extended family support	W2FC	Significant
Kappagoda, U.S	2014	Sri Lanka	School teachers	325	Emotional intelligence	Yes	Significant
Karimi,L & Nouri,A.	2009	Iran	Professionals working in a various industries	387	Work hours	Yes	W2FC: Significant F2WC: Non-significant
Kaur, S.	2008	Malaysia	Married women	180	Workload, conflict at work, workplace support, number of children, martial experience	Not specified	Significant
Kodagoda, T.	2010	Sri Lanka	Mothers	5	Work hours, family responsibilities, age of child, childcare facilities, spousal support, family support	W2FC	Significant
Koekemoer,E., & Mostert,K.	2010	South Africa	Professionals working in a various industries	92	High workload, time constraints, heavy work demands, work overload, work hours, shift work, work schedules, co-worker/supervisor support, flexible work hours	Not specified	Significant

Liu, H., & Cheung, F. M.	2015	China	Secondary school teachers	259	Workload, emotional demands, interpersonal conflict ,Work family role integration (WFRI)	W2FC	Significant
Lu, C., Wang, B., Siu, O., Lu, L., & Du, D.	2015	China	Professionals working in a various industries	1032	Work demands, job type	Not specified	Significant
Lu, J.F, Siu, O.L, Spector, P.E, & Shi, K	2009	China	Employed parents	189	Work hours, monthly income, supervisor support, co-worker support, age of child, availability of elderly domestic helper(s)	Yes	Significant
Nel, J, Koekemoer, E & Nel, J.A.	2012	South Africa	Dual-earner parents	207	Autonomy, social support, cognitive home demands, emotional home demands	F2WC	Significant
Noor,N.M.	2002	Malaysia	Employed married women	310	Spouse support, work hours, role overload, autonomy	Not specified	Significant
Okonkwo,E.	2014	Nigeria	Female nurses	118	Spousal support, number of children	F2WC	Non-significant
Pal, S.	2014	India	Doctors	4	Job control ,flexibility in working hours, hours of work per week, workplace social support, family social support	Not specified	Significant
Qureshi, H., Lambert, E. G., Keena, L. D., & Frank, J.	2016	India	Police officers	1000	Gender, age, tenure, organisational support, formalisation, distributive justice	Not specified	Significant

Sidani, Y. M., & Al Hakim, Z. T.	2012	Lebanon	White-collar professionals	541	Number of children, workplace support	Yes	Significant
Stey, B., & Koekemoer,E.	2011	South Africa	Mine workers	245	Work environment, workload, language spoken	Yes	Significant
Uzoigwe, A. G., Low, W. Y., & Noor, S. N. M.	2016	Nigeria	Professional women in a various industries	173	Work role overload, job demands, family responsibilities, hours of work, gender role ideology	W2FC	Significant
Yu, M. C., Lee, Y. D., & Tsai, B. C.	2010	China	Employees in electronics industry	466	Job stress, role stress, emotional exhaustion	Yes	Significant

This phenomenon can be explained by psychological spillover or negative emotional spillover from non-work to work and from work to non-work (Evans & Bartolome, 1984; Voydanoff, 2004). Individuals that experience strain in the family domain will have a triggered psychological response (e.g., depression, anxiety, fatigue), which are subsequently translated into attitudes and behaviours at work (Evans & Bartolome, 1984). Similarly, individuals that experience strain (e.g., role overload) in the work domain will have negative emotional spill-over into the family domain (Voydanoff, 2004). For example, experiencing role overload at work may result in feelings of frustration and irritability and this may subsequently spillover into the family domain. As a result of the negative spillover, individuals will find it difficult to maintain a happy home or work life (Voydanoff, 2004).

Based on the empirical evidence above, work role overload is anticipated to positively predict W2FC and F2WC for Hindu fathers in SA. In the Hindu culture, men's place in the workplace is seen as their primary role (Larson, Dworkin, & Verma, 2001). Despite their family obligations, it is likely that Hindu fathers in SA would spend more time and energy towards work-related activities. The link between work role overload and work-family conflict can be explained through role conflict theory (Kahn et al., 1964) and resource drain theory (Rothbard, 2001).When Hindu fathers' experience work role overload, their energy and finite resources to meet and overcome their role expectations in the work domain are depleted (Kahn et al., 1964). Consequently, a Hindu father would need to devote more energy and time to completing work-related tasks. This may result in a decrease in the available resources for family demands, thereby escalating feelings of W2FC (Rothbard, 2001).When Hindu fathers experience demands in the family domain such as family obligations (e.g., providing financial support), this depletes the necessary resources needed to meet high work expectations. This increases feelings that family is interfering with work (F2WC).

Based on the above discussions, the following propositions were hypothesised: Work role overload positively predicts (1) W2FC and (2) F2WC.

Relationships between work support and work-family conflict

In the work domain, social support is used as a coping mechanism to deal with problems arising from work-related stressors (Karatepe & Bekteshi, 2008). Sources of informal social support are received from either supervisors or colleagues. Supervisors and co-workers have powerful influences on the way employees integrate work and family roles (Lee, Kim, Park, & Yun, 2013). Generally, social support is defined as an interpersonal transaction that may contain an appraisal, emotional, informational and instrumental component (House, 1981). In this research, the definition of supervisor support and co-

worker support is derived from Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, and Pinneau (1975) and refers to the relationships (with either a supervisor or co-worker) that provide an individual with psychological and tangible help in dealing with stressful situations at work.

The majority of empirical research conducted in countries in the Global North has shown that there is a negative relationship between supervisor support and W2FC and F2WC (cf., Burke, Koyuncu, & Fiksenb, 2013; Cinamon, 2009). As indicated in Table 2, the same pattern regarding the link between supervisor support and W2FC and F2WC has emerged among studies conducted in countries in the Global South (cf., Aizzat- Mohd & Khor-Lee, 2008; Anderson et al., 2008; Annor, 2014; Koekemoer & Mostert, 2010). Having a family supportive supervisor might enhance an employee's sense of control over work demands (Annor, 2016). Employees who have a family supportive supervisor would be able to seek support from their supervisors in accommodating work-related demands, thereby reducing their experiences of W2FC. Additionally, supervisors who show an understanding for the employee's family life may help boost an employee's energy level, reinforce the employee's positive self-image and reduce stress (Bakker, Lieke, Prins, & van der Heijden, 2011). This could result in a decrease in an employee's feelings of F2WC.

With regard to co-worker support, studies conducted in countries in the Global North have demonstrated that co-worker support is negatively associated with W2FC and F2WC (cf. Allard, Haas & Hwang, 2011; Cinamon & Rich, 2005; Cinamon & Rich, 2010). As indicated in Table 2, a similar pattern regarding the link between co-worker support and WFC has emerged in studies conducted in countries in the Global South (c.f., de Klerk & Mostert, 2010; Forster et al., 2013; Halbesleben et al.,2012; Ho et al.,2013; Kailasapathy et al., 2014). Lu et al. (2009) suggested that employees turn to their co-workers to seek advice and emotional support with regard to family-related problems. This reduces employee's feelings of F2WC. Similarly, employees might seek support from their co-workers regarding work-related demands because co-workers would share an understanding of the nature and type of demands that are encountered in the work role (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2009). This could help employees reduce feelings of W2FC.

However, several researchers (e.g., Annor, 2016; Farhadi et al., 2013; Epie & Ituma, 2014) found that work support had a significant negative relationship with W2FC but not with F2WC. These researchers attribute this to supervisors and co-workers who might not show an understanding for the employee's family-related problems. Additionally, Hsiao and Barak (2014) found that work support and both directions of WFC were not related. Hsiao

and Barak (2014) attributed the non-significant findings of their study to the strict family leave policies and family-unfriendly work climate that existed within the Mexican factories.

Based on the empirical evidence above, supervisor support and co-worker support is anticipated to negatively predict W2FC and F2WC for Hindu fathers in SA. The link between workplace support and WFC can be explained by the conservation of resources theory (COR) (Hobfoll, 1989). The availability of supervisor or co-worker support allows Hindu fathers to generate new resources and create energy which alleviates the stress and conflict produced by the work-related or family-related stressors (Hobfoll, 2002). For example, if supervisor support is experienced in the work domain, work-related stressors will be managed more effectively.

Based on the above discussions, the following propositions were hypothesised:

Work support: (3a) supervisor support and (3b) co-worker support negatively predicts W2FC.

Work support: (4a) supervisor support and (4b) co-worker support negatively predicts F2WC.

Definition of culture

Culture has been defined in different ways. According to Hofstede (1980), culture refers to "the collective programming of the human mind that distinguishes the members of one human group from those of another" (p.9). Similarly, House and colleagues (2004) define culture as the "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations" (p.15). Both these definitions indicate the measurement of culture at a national level. Inherent to these definitions of culture is the emphasis on shared attitudes, values, behaviours and ways in which behaviour think (Chinchilla, Las Heras, & Masuda, 2010).Whilst these definitions of culture might be useful in cross-national studies, some researchers (e.g., Maznevski et al., 2002; Triandis, 1989) argued that culture could influence the behaviours and attitudes of individuals at an individual level. Accordingly, Maznevski et al. (2002) defined culture at the societal level as "the pattern of variations within a society, or, more specifically, as the pattern of deep level values and assumptions with societal effectiveness, shared by an interacting group of people" (p.276).

In this research, culture will be used at an individual level when examining the potential moderating role of traditional Hindu cultural values in the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support and WFC for Hindu fathers in SA.

Work-family conflict in a cultural context

Few researchers have examined cultural variables in their conceptual WFC models. Korabik, Lero, and Ayman (2003) were the first authors to propose an integrative model of WFC by adapting Frone et al.'s (1992) model to include cultural variables. Findings from Korabik et al.'s (2003) study indicated that specific cultural variables may play an important role in determining the type and prevalence of work and family demands that individuals experience. Similarly, Powell et al. (2009) developed a culture-sensitive theory of WFC and proposed a work-family model that incorporated various cultural dimensions. Powell et al. (2009) argued that cultural dimensions at an individual level could be categorised into two primary groups. These groups are culture-as-referent studies and culture-as-dimensions studies. In culture-as-referent studies, researchers examine WFC experiences in Global South contexts and attribute different findings to the notion that Global North cultural contexts are dissimilar to the Global South cultural contexts (Powell et al., 2009). In contrast, in culture-as-dimensions studies researchers study the influence of specific cultural dimensions like gender egalitarianism, individualism and collectivism and level of economic development (Grzywacz & Demerouti, 2013).

Whilst these frameworks might be useful, Lu (2012) argued that examining the role of culture in the work-family interface could pose a theoretical challenge given the complexity and varied definitions of culture. Where research is available, few empirical studies have examined the role that cultural dimensions play in explaining the occurrence of WFC (cf., Billing et al., 2014; Kulik, Shilo-Levin, & Liberman, 2015; Lu, 2012).

Cultural values as a moderator in work-family conflict research

Cultural values may act as moderator, which either strengthens or weakens the relationship between antecedents and WFC, or the effect of the consequences associated with WFC (Lu, Chang, Kao, & Cooper, 2015). Mortazavi, Pedhiwala, Shafiro and Hammer (2009) claim that work and family related issues are linked to cultural norms, values and beliefs. There have been several empirical studies that have examined the role of cultural values as a moderator in the WFC relationships. Yang and colleagues (2000) found that the relationship between work demands and WFC was stronger for Chinese participants than American participants. In contrast, American participants were found to have family-related demands that led to conflict (Yang et al., 2000). The observed differences between the two countries were mainly based on cultural differences concerning the value placed on family and work time. Similarly, Hill, Yang, Hawkins and Ferris (2004) surveyed over 25 000 IBM employees

from 48 countries and found that the relationship between responsibility for children and F2WC was weaker in Eastern cultures (e.g., India, Malaysia) compared to the USA.

Consistent with the above findings, Lu, Gilmour, Kao and Huang's(2006) study demonstrated that household work was a significant predictor of W2FC for British participants compared to Taiwanese participants. Lu et al. (2006) attributed this finding to the notion that in individualistic societies (e.g., British society), people perceive the needs of the self and family as distinct. Therefore, British participants were likely to perceive the time and energy spent at work competing with their duties in the family domain (Lu et al., 2006). In contrast, Taiwanese participants reported working longer hours, having greater feelings of W2FC and F2WC, and lower job satisfaction (Lu et al., 2006). These authors attributed this finding to the notion that in Taiwanese culture, employees are expected to prioritize work before family. Therefore, working longer hours is perceived to be a sign of diligence. These claims have also been found in a sample of Iranian men whereby the relationships between work demands, resources and WFC were investigated (Karimi & Nouri, 2009). Findings from Karimi and Nouri (2009)'s study indicated that work support and job autonomy reduced W2FC, whilst high work demands and W2FC were positively related. Consistent with the above findings, Jin, Ford and Chen's(2013) study demonstrated that work-to-family spillover effects tended to be stronger in the North American sample, whereas family-to- work spillover effects tended to be stronger in the Chinese sample.

Cultural values and WFC: The moderating role of gender role ideology and family hierarchy orientation in the WFC relationships

Gender role ideology and family hierarchy orientation (respect for authority and elders) are anticipated to have an effect on the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support and WFC for Hindu fathers in SA. These cultural values are developed by Hindu fathers through primary socialisation (Sooryamoorthy, 2012). From a young age, Hindu males are raised to think that their primary duty is to be the principal earning member in the family rather than a nurturing caregiver (Chandra, 2010). Hindu males are raised with the notion that they are solely responsible for providing resources to help maintain the whole family (Singh, 2011). They are taught to respect and not question their father or grandfather (Sooryamoorthy, 2012). Hindu fathers in SA are likely to perceive the power relations between themselves and their co-workers as equal. Therefore, family hierarchy orientation as a moderator in the relationships between co-worker support and WFC was not examined.

Moderating effect of gender role ideology on the relationships between work role overload and WFC.

Gender role ideology (GRI) refers to an individual's attitude and beliefs about appropriate behavioural norms associated with males and females in a given society (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Eagly, 1987). Attitudes towards gender roles are developed through the process of continued socialisation in the family unit and in the individual's environment (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2016). The norms that individuals attach to gender articulate and influence their choices regarding behaviour, choice of career, dress code, parenting roles, parenting obligations, and parenting relationships (Kramer & Kramer, 2016). Furthermore, gender roles tend to vary across and within different cultural groups (An & Kim, 2007). Gender role ideology is conceptualised as a unidimensional construct on a continuum ranging from traditional to egalitarian views (Gibbons, Hamby, & Dennis, 1997). Traditional gender role beliefs promote the notion that men should give priority to work whilst women should give priority to family responsibilities. In contrast, individuals who adopt an egalitarian view perceive the role distribution for men and women to be equal (Kramer & Kramer, 2016).

GRI among Hindu fathers in SA. In the Hindu culture there are deep-rooted traditional gender beliefs regarding men and women roles in society (Lal & Vahed, 2013). Regardless of their employment status, Hindu women continue to bear the burden of family and household responsibilities whilst Hindu men are perceived to the principal financial earners in the family (Bharat, 2003; Sooryamoorthy, 2012). Lal and Vahed (2013) argued that Hinduism in South Africa "displays its own characteristic features and should be examined on its own terms, in the very specific social, cultural, political, and economic conditions in which it is forged" (p.1). Despite this, Hinduism in SA continues to use traditional ideologies that focus on temple rituals and scriptural practices (Kumar, 2012).

In this research, it is expected that the levels of GRI among the sample of Hindu fathers would differ according to the manner in which the Hindu fathers were socialised. Second generation Hindu fathers born during the Apartheid era are likely to hold more traditional views regarding gender roles. This can be attributed to the historical beliefs surrounding work during the Apartheid era whereby men were perceived to be the breadwinners in the family and women the homemakers (Uchendu, 2008). With the introduction of post-democratic legislative frameworks (i.e., Employment Equity Act No.55 of 1988), ideals surrounding gender roles have begun to gradually shift towards a more egalitarian culture whereby men and women are treated equally (Morrell, 2006).

Accordingly, third and fourth generation Hindu fathers who were born towards the end of the Apartheid era would have more liberal views regarding gender roles in society. Their liberal attitudes towards gender roles would be influenced by various contextual factors such as the type of education received, the type of school attended, interactions with friends from different cultural groups and the neighbourhood in which the Hindu father resides in (Kulik, 2003). For example, Hindu fathers who received tertiary education would have been exposed to various egalitarian ideas concerning male and female roles in society.

GRI as a moderator in WFC relationships. Few empirical studies have investigated the moderating effect of gender role ideology on WFC relationships (c.f., Davis, 2011; Kailasapathy et al., 2014; Rajadhyaksha & Velgach, 2009). Most of these studies focus on the moderating effects of GRI on females rather than males in the sample (e.g., Davis, 2011). To date, relativity few empirical studies have investigated the moderating effect of GRI on men's experiences of WFC. For example, Kailasapathy et al. (2014) study investigated the relationship between leader- member exchange (LMX) and W2FC. In their sample of Sri Lankan dual-earner couples, Kailasapathy et al.'s (2014) found that men who had a spouse with an egalitarian gender role orientation experienced a stronger relationship between LMX and W2FC, than men who had a spouse with a traditional gender role orientation. Similarly, Livingston and Judge (2008) study demonstrated that GRI had a significant moderating effect on the relationship between guilt prediction and WFC. Findings from their study indicated that egalitarian men reported a stronger relationship between guilt prediction and W2FC, than traditional men did (Livingston & Judge, 2008). Additionally, findings from Somach and Drach-Zahavy (2007)'s study indicated that GRI moderated the relationships between coping strategies and WFC. Egalitarian men reported a stronger relationship between coping strategies and WFC, than traditional men did (Somach & Drach-Zahavy, 2007).

GRI as a moderator in WFC relationships for Hindu fathers in SA. Social role theory (Eagly, 1987) suggests that gender roles are produced because of the sexual division of labour and societal expectations associated with gender stereotypes. Eagly (1987) argues that major work-related and family-related behaviours manifest when cultures endorse stereotypes and formulate expectations based on these stereotypes. The perceptions that work is central to one's identity are likely to exacerbate the effect of work-related demands on WFC.

According to Pleck's (1977) gender role hypothesis, Hindu fathers who hold a traditional GRI will identify more with their role as an employee and breadwinner than to their role as a father. Accordingly, he is more likely to invest his time, energy, resources into

work-related activities to achieve a high level of job performance (Huffman et al., 2014). For Hindu fathers with an egalitarian orientation, the demarcation between the work and family domain is flexible and blurred (Eagly, 1987). As a result, these fathers are likely to have multiple role commitments and this might create difficulty in meeting the simultaneous demands of work and family domains (Greenhaus & Powell, 2003). The pressures from having to manage the simultaneous occurrences of work and family expectations will cause stress (Kahn et al., 1964). Hindu fathers who subscribe to an egalitarian gender ideology are likely to be more involved in their family role and in doing so these fathers may find that excessive work expectations would prevent them from spending time in their family role. Therefore, Hindu fathers in SA with an egalitarian gender orientation are more likely to perceive that work-related demands interfere with family-related responsibilities (W2FC). Hence, these fathers are more likely to experience a stronger relationship between work role overload and W2FC than Hindu fathers in SA who have a traditional gender role orientation.

Hindu fathers who subscribe to the traditional gender role will consider their primary role in the work domain and, therefore would likely spend more time and energy in their work role and keep multiple role commitments to a minimum (Kahn et al., 1964). However, Hindu fathers with an egalitarian gender role orientation would spend more time and energy in their family role, thereby depleting their energy and resources needed to fulfill responsibilities in their work role (Kahn et al., 1964). These fathers are likely to experience greater demands in their family role than traditionalist Hindu fathers. Hindu fathers in SA with an egalitarian gender role orientation may find that excessive family responsibilities and demands would prevent them from meeting the high expectations in their work role. They are likely to perceive the family domain as interfering with the work domain (F2WC). Accordingly, Hindu fathers in SA with an egalitarian gender orientation are likely to experience a stronger relationship between work role overload and F2WC than Hindu fathers who have a traditional gender role orientation.

Based on the above discussion, the following is proposed:

Proposition 5a: GRI will moderate the relationship between work role overload and W2FC such that egalitarian Hindu fathers in SA will experience stronger relationship between work role overload and W2FC than traditional Hindu fathers in SA.

Proposition 5b: GRI will moderate the relationship between work role overload and F2WC such that egalitarian Hindu fathers in SA will experience stronger relationship between work role overload and F2WC than traditional Hindu fathers in SA.

Moderating effect of family hierarchy orientation on the relationships between supervisor support and WFC.

Hierarchy orientation refers to the notion that "power and responsibility are naturally unequally distributed throughout society [and] those higher in the hierarchy have power over and responsibility for those lower in the hierarchy" (Maznevski et al., 2002, p.277). Hierarchy orientation is closely related to Hofstede's (2001) power distance and equality-hierarchy cultural dimension (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997). At the individual level, hierarchy orientation can be used to explain how individual's form and perceive relationships with authority figures (Maznevski et al., 2002). In the family domain, hierarchy orientation refers to having respect for and obedience towards elders. Individuals with a high family hierarchy orientation are likely to obey and conform to the decisions made by elders. In contrast, individuals with a low family hierarchy orientation are likely to contest the views and opinions of elders (Dorfman & Howell, 1988).

Family hierarchy orientation among Hindu fathers in SA. Family hierarchy orientation manifests and is transmitted in the traditional Hindu joint family system (Banerjee, 2008). In the Hindu culture, social order is maintained through early socialisation within the family system (Chadda & Deb, 2013). Hindu children are socialised to conform to the values and decisions that are made by elder members of the family (Sooryamoorthy, 2012). From early socialisation, Hindu children are taught to be obedient and respectful towards their parents, elders, and guests (Singh, 2011). Hindu children are taught not to oppose the views of elders, touching their elder's feet as a sign of respect and seeking elders' advice prior to making important decisions (Roopnarine et al., 2013).

In this research, it is expected that the levels of family hierarchy orientation among the sample of Hindu fathers would differ according to the manner in which the Hindu fathers were socialised. Hindu fathers in SA that were raised in a family structure where power relations among family members were clearly delineated are likely to have a high degree of hierarchy orientation whereby voicing their disagreements or concerns towards elders is considered disrespectful. In contrast, Hindu fathers in SA that were raised a liberal home environment whereby the decisions made by the elders could be challenged are likely to have a lower degree of hierarchy orientation. Their degree of hierarchy orientation could possibly be influenced by living in a society that promotes freedom of speech and democratic values.

Family hierarchy orientation as a moderator in WFC relationships. There appears to be no published empirical studies that have explicitly investigated the moderating effect of family hierarchy orientation in the WFC relationships. A study conducted by Joplin,

Francesco, Shaffer, and Lau (2003) suggested that cultures with higher power distance indices are more likely to experience higher levels of WFC than countries with lower power distance indices. From their findings, Joplin et al. (2003) speculated that cultures with high power distance are likely to experience a stronger relationship between work demands and WFC because these cultures may find it difficult to adapt to the rapid changes that occurs in the world of work.

Family hierarchy orientation as a moderator in WFC relationships for Hindu fathers in SA. Within organised groups, individuals are likely to internalise and accept feelings of obligations to obey and follow rules and decisions (Tyler, 1997). Hindu fathers with a high family hierarchy orientation are likely to behave more submissively around supervisors and elders in the work domain because disobedience is considered insubordination (Kirkman et al., 2009). These fathers would likely respect the instructions and decisions made by their supervisors. Even though the South African workplace promotes democratic values which emphasizes the freedom of speech, Hindu fathers in SA with a high family hierarchical orientation would perceive their supervisors to have greater authority and power over themselves (Kirkman et al., 2009). These fathers are less likely to seek support from their supervisors regarding adjusting their work expectations or work demands. In contrast, Hindu fathers in SA with a low family hierarchy orientation would be more comfortable to seek support from their supervisors for accommodation in adjusting work expectations or work demands. Accordingly, Hindu fathers in SA with a high family hierarchy orientation are likely to experience a weaker relationship between supervisor support and W2FC than Hindu fathers who have a low family hierarchy orientation.

Additionally, Hindu fathers with a low family hierarchical orientation are likely to feel more comfortable voicing their opinions and disagreements at work (Kirkman et al. 2009).These fathers are likely to perceive their supervisors as having equal authority and power in relation to themselves (Tyler, 1997). Hindu fathers with a low family hierarchical orientation are likely to experience less difficulty in developing open relationships with their supervisors. Therefore, they would be more comfortable in asking their supervisors for accommodation in meeting family demands and responsibilities (Farh, Hackett & Liang, 2007). In contrast, Hindi fathers with a high family hierarchy orientation would find it more difficult to develop open relationships with their supervisors and to seek support to manage family demands and expectations. Resultantly, these fathers are likely to perceive that family demands are interfering with work (F2WC). Hence, Hindu fathers in SA with a high family

hierarchy orientation are likely to experience a weaker relationship between supervisor support and F2WC than Hindu fathers who have a low family hierarchy orientation.

Based on the above discussion, the following is proposed:

Proposition 6a: Family hierarchy orientation will moderate the relationships between supervisor support and W2FC such that Hindu fathers in SA with a high family hierarchy orientation will experience a weaker relationship between supervisor support and W2FC than Hindu fathers with a low family hierarchy orientation.

Proposition 6b: Family hierarchy orientation will moderate the relationship between supervisor support and F2WC, such that Hindu fathers in SA with a high family hierarchy orientation will experience a weaker relationship between supervisor support and F2WC than Hindu fathers with a low family hierarchy orientation.

Final notes

This section provided an overview of the pertinent literature concerning work-family conflict. Various antecedents and moderators of work-family conflict have been reported in previous work-family literature. Moreover, this section also outlined the role of cultural values in the work-family interface. Theoretical frameworks and past empirical was used to establish the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support, co-worker support, traditional Hindu cultural values and WFC for Hindu fathers in SA.

Conceptual framework

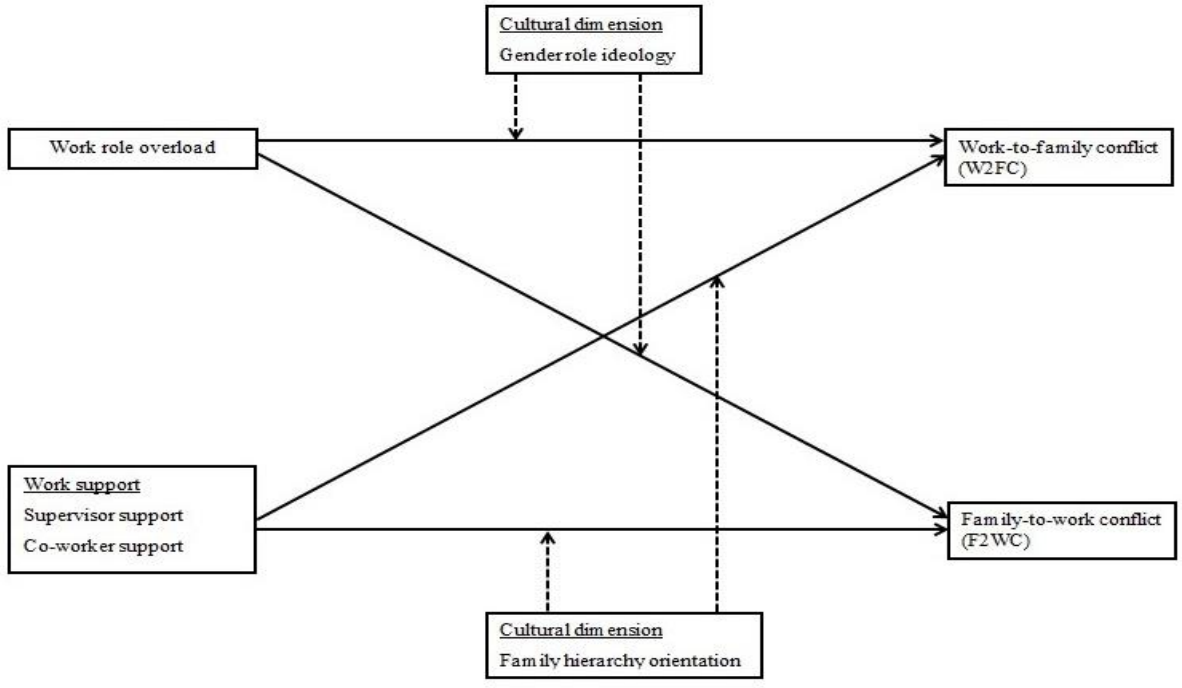

Figure 1. Conceptual model representing the proposed relationships between work role overload, work support, traditional cultural values and WFC. Solid lines indicate within and cross domain relationships. Dotted lines indicated moderated relationships.

Method

The purpose of this research was to examine the relationships between work role overload, work support, W2FC and F2WC for Hindu fathers in South Africa. This research also aimed to determine the extent to which traditional cultural values moderate the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support and WFC for Hindu fathers in South Africa. This section is divided into six sub-sections that outline the method used to conduct the present research. The sub-sections are as follows: research design, sampling procedure, participants, measures, procedure and methods of statistical analysis.

Research Design

Secondary cross-sectional data from a quantitative descriptive research design was used to analyse the data in order to fulfil the objectives of this research. A descriptive research design allowed the researcher to use the obtained data to describe the relationships between the study's variables (Hair, Celsi, Money, Samouel, & Page, 2011). -BENEFIT

Sampling Procedure

When conducting secondary research, Donnellan and Lucas (2013) suggested that datasets have different usage requirements. It is imperative to acquire data that is most relevant for the research being conducted. For this reason, a non-probability judgement-sampling technique was used in this research to select the participants from the obtained dataset (Burns & Burns, 2008). This type of sampling technique allowed for participants to be selected based on the objectives of the research. Specifically, fathers were selected.

Participants

The original dataset consisted of 584 participants, of which 213 were men and 259 were women (missing n = 112). Of the 213 men, 30 men were removed from this research because they were not a father. Hence, the final sample was 183 participants.

The age of the participants ranged from 29 to 69 (M = 50.31, SD = 8.98). On average, participants spent approximately 17 years at their current organisation (SD = 11.64, range = 0 – 43). Of the sample, 170 (92.90%) of fathers were married or living with a partner, whilst 12 (6.56%) of fathers were single, separated, divorced or widowed. Approximately three-fifths (60.11%) of the fathers had two children, whilst less than 1% had five children. Moreover, 84 (45.90%) of fathers classified themselves as South African Hindu as opposed to South African (46) or Hindu (26). Further sample demographics are detailed in Table 3.

Table 3.
Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Demographic	Category	Frequency	%
Sample	Total number	183	100
Number of children	1 child	26	14.21
	2 children	110	60.11
	3 children	39	21.31
	4 children	4	2.19
	5 children	1	.55
	Missing	3	1.64
Children six years or younger	0 children	125	68.31
	1 child	28	15.30
	2 children	22	12.02
	3 children	2	1.09
	Missing	6	3.28
Children living at home	0 children	33	18.03
	1 child	40	21.86
	2 children	85	46.45
	3 children	18	9.84
	4 children	1	.55
	Missing	6	3.28
Self-identification	Hindu South African	23	12.57
	South African Hindu	84	45.90
	Hindu	26	14.21
	South African	46	25.14
	Other	3	1.64
	Missing	1	.55
Marital status	Single/Separated/Divorced/Widowed	12	6.56
	Married/Living with a partner	170	92.90
	Missing	1	.55

Generation of Indian immigrant	1st generation Indian	6	3.28
	2nd generation Indian	35	19.13
	3rd generation Indian	85	46.45
	4th generation Indian	41	22.40
	Other	4	2.19
	Do not know	9	4.92
	Prefer not to answer	2	1.09
	Missing	1	.55
Identification with Indian language group	Gujarati	105	57.38
	Hindi	46	25.14
	Tamil	25	13.66
	Telugu	3	1.64
	Other	1	.55
	Prefer not to answer	2	1.09
	Missing	1	.55
Highest level of education	Matric	33	18.03
	Undergraduate diploma or degree	72	39.34
	Postgraduate degree	72	39.34
	Other	5	2.73
	Missing	1	.55
Work type	Non-managerial	16	8.74
	Managerial	73	39.89
	Professional	63	34.43
	Business owner	30	16.39
	Missing	1	.55

Annual household income per annum	R55 001 - R150 000	15	8.20
	R150 001 - R365 000	32	17.49
	R365 001 - R630 000	46	25.14
	R630 001 - R865 000	24	13.11
	R865 001 - R1 300 000	22	12.02
	R1 3000 001 plus	16	8.74
	Prefer not to answer	27	14.75
	Missing	1	.55

Measures

The following subscales are relevant to this research. Except where otherwise noted, items on the various subscales were measured on a five-point Likert type scale ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (5) *strongly agree*.

Work role overload. Work role overload was assessed using an adapted version of the 6-item role overload scale developed by Thiagarajan et al. (2006). The item "I do not ever seem to have any time for myself" was excluded from the scale because it did not fit role overload in the work domain. The adapted version consisted of five items. An example item on the scale includes "I cannot ever seem to catch up at work". High scores on this scale indicated high work role overload (Thiagarajan et al., 2006). Booth and Matthews (2012) validated the use of the adapted 5-item scale for the work-family interface and found that the scale demonstrated high internal consistency (Cronbach $\alpha = .89$).

Supervisor and co-worker support. Supervisor and co-worker support was measured using a parallel measure developed by Caplan et al. (1975). Five items were used to measure each source of support. Responses on both support scales were rated on a 6-point Likert type scale ranging from (1) *not at all* to (5) *very much* with 6 indicating *not applicable*. Items on each scale were reworded according to the source of support that was measured. For example, an item on the supervisor support scale read, "To what extent is it easy to talk to your supervisor?". On the co-worker scale, this item was reworded to "to what extent is it easy to talk to your co-workers?". Higher scores indicated higher levels of perceived support from either a supervisor or co-worker. Halbesleben et al. (2012) found that high adequate internally consistency for the co-worker subscale among a Brazilian sample (Cronbach $\alpha = .70$) and an American sample (Cronbach $\alpha = .75$). Similarly, Luk and Shaffer (2005) demonstrated that both the supervisor support scale (Cronbach $\alpha = .84$) and co-worker support scale (Cronbach $\alpha = .75$) had high levels of internal consistency.

Gender role ideology. Gender role ideology was measured using an adapted version of the 15-item scaled developed by Spence and Helmreich (1978). The adapted version consisted of six items (Stevens, Minnotte, Mannon, & Kiger, 2006). This scale measured the attitudes of the participants towards their perceptions of appropriate roles for men and women in society. Two items were reverse coded. Lower scores indicated an egalitarian orientation while higher scores suggested a traditional gender role orientation. A sample item included "A husband should earn more money than his wife".

Family hierarchy orientation. Family hierarchy orientation was measured using a parallel version of the 6-item power distance scale developed by Dorfman and Howell (1988). The adapted 6-item measure was used to capture the participants' perception whether individuals who are higher in the family hierarchy have more power. An example of an item included "Elderly family members should not ask for the opinions of younger family members". Farh et al. (2007) reported that the work hierarchy orientation scale demonstrated adequate internal consistency (Cronbach $\alpha = .74$).

Work-family conflict. Work-family conflict was measured using the 10-item scale developed by Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian (1996). Five items measured W2FC and five items measured F2WC. A sample item for W2FC includes "My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties" and a sample item for F2WC includes "The demands of my family or spouse interfere with work-related activities". Netemeyer et al. (1996) reported an average coefficient α of .88 for the W2FC subscale and .86 for F2WC subscale across three samples. Lu et al. (2015) reported that both W2FC (Cronbach $\alpha = .94$) and F2WC (Cronbach $\alpha = .91$) scales had high internal consistency.

Control variables. Consistent with prior empirical research (e.g., Cohen & Liani, 2009; Karatepe, 2011) age, number of children, organisational tenure, work-type, income and education were treated as control variables to avoid statistical confound. Age and organisational tenure was measured in years. Single items were used to measure the number of children, children six years old or younger and children living at home. Both education (Matric, undergraduate diploma or degree, postgraduate degree, other) and work-type (non-managerial, managerial, professional, business owner) variables were measured using four categories. Total household income was measured using eight categories (R0 - R55 000, R55 001 - R150 000, R150 001 - R365 000, R365 001 - R630 000, R630 001 - R865 000, R865 001 - R1 300 000, R1 3000 001 plus, and Prefer not to answer).

Demographic variables. Several other demographic variables were used to describe the characteristics of the sample. These were identification with Indian language group

(measured using six categories: Gujarati, Hindi, Tamil, Telugu, Other, and Prefer not to answer), Indian generational status (measured using seven categories: 1st generation Indian, 2nd generation Indian, 3rd generation Indian, 4th generation Indian, Other, Do not know, Prefer not to answer), and self-identification (measured using five categories: Hindu South African, South African Hindu, Hindu, South African, Other).

Procedure

Prior to conducting secondary data analysis, this research was granted ethical clearance by the Commerce Faculty's Ethics in Research Committee at the University of Cape Town (UCT). Refer to Appendix A for the letter confirming the ethics approval. This research followed Donnellan and Lucas (2013) steps for conducting secondary data analysis. After the research question was developed, the next step involved finding an existing dataset (Donnellan & Lucas, 2013). The data collected by Jaga (2014)'s study was found to be relevant because it measured the key constructs included in the current research. Before the dataset was acquired, Jaga (2014) study and other accompanying material related to the dataset were read (Pienta, O'Rourke, & Franks, 2011). This allowed the researcher to develop a clear understanding of the methods and procedures that were used to acquire the data (Shrout & Napier, 2011). To ensure that the secondary data was ethically obtained, various considerations were taken in Jaga's (2014) study. For instance, participants were presented with a cover letter which ensured that their responses would remain anonymous and confidential. Additionally, participants were informed that their participation in the study was voluntary.

Next, the dataset was acquired through informal dissemination (Donnellan & Lucas, 2013). The dataset was made available in an Excel file format and was imported into the IBM Software Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). An initial inspection revealed that the dataset does not contain identifying information on participants or information that could be linked to identifying participants. Thereafter, a 'working' file was assembled (Pienta et al., 2011). Questions in the SPSS interface were labelled according to the construct that it measured. For example, questions 3.1 to 3.5 related to work role overload and were labelled accordingly. Thereafter, the data was cleaned and coded according to various conventional statistical techniques (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Lastly, statistical analyses were conducted using the variables relevant to the current research (Donnellan & Lucas, 2013).

Method of statistical analysis

SPSS version 23 was used to analyse the data. Prior to conducting statistical analyses, the dataset was cleaned and coded according to contemporary statistical conventions

(Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The data screening process recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) was followed. The screening process is discussed below.

Accuracy of the data file. Initial data cleaning involved proofreading and checking the data file for errors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Incomplete and ineligible cases were removed from the data file. Firstly, cases were removed if participants did not meet the criteria for inclusion. Cases were also removed if the participant was female or if the participant was male but not a parent. Participants that worked less than 20 hours per week were removed from the data file because these participants were not employed in full-time work. Additionally, participants that had more than 50 percent of their survey responses incomplete were removed (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2010). Lastly, univariate descriptive statistics were computed to check the variables for any data errors.

Missing data. The independent, dependant and moderating variables were checked for missing data. Supervisor support (n = 6) had the highest number of missing values compared to the other variables. Participants that did not have a supervisor would have responded with 'not applicable' when completing the section on supervisor support. The dependant variables were also checked for missing values to avoid any artificial relationships with the independent variables (Hair et al., 2010). There was one case that had missing values for W2FC and seven cases that had missing values for F2WC. These cases were removed from the dataset. Further missing values were classified as missing completely at random (MCAR, Little & Rubin, 2002).

The appropriate data handling techniques to deal with values classified as MCAR involves deletion methods (Little & Rubin, 2002). In this research, all statistical analyses were conducted using listwise deletion. Listwise deletion was appropriate because the extent of the missing values was small (Baraldi & Enders, 2013). Pairwise deletion was only used when conducting correlation analyses because it involved maximising all available data by an analysis by analysis basis. Therefore, it is considered appropriate for correlation analyses (Baraldi & Enders, 2013). Pairwise deletion was not used when conducting other statistical analyses (e.g., regression analyses) because this technique produced unbalanced correlation and covariance matrices, which cannot be used in factor analysis (McKnight & McKnight, 2011).

Univariate profiling. Univariate profiling involved assessing univariate outliers and univariate normality (Hair et al., 2010). Univariate outliers were assessed by examining the difference between the original mean and the trimmed mean values (Pallant, 2010). For all the variables, the original mean and the trimmed mean values were similar. However, an

examination of the boxplot (see Appendix B: Figure B1) indicated that there were few outliers on the family hierarchy orientation and F2WC variables. Aguinis, Gottfredson and Joo (2013) argued that outliers may represent interesting data points that may contain valuable or unexpected knowledge. For this reason, univariate outliers were retained.

Normality was assessed by examining the univariate distribution of the histograms and the skewness and kurtosis values for each variable. When the scores for a variable are normally distributed, it is expected that the values for skewness and kurtosis is 0 (Hair et al., 2010). F2WC was negatively skewed with a value that exceeded 0, which indicated that the variable's distribution was peaked. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) argued that in relatively large samples, the impact of skewness has a trivial influence on further analysis. In this research, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality was not used because these tests are sensitive to sample size and might not give an accurate representation of whether scores for each variable are normally distributed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Multivariate profiling. Multivariate profiling involved examining the assumptions of multiple regression. To examine the assumptions of multiple regression, a number of data examination techniques were used (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Multivariate outliers were detected by examining the standardised residuals values. Values that exceed the threshold of -3.29 or 3.29 were considered outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Cooks *D* value and Mahalanobis distance were assessed to determine if any influential cases were present. A case was considered influential if the Cooks *D* value was greater than 1 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Normality was assessed by examining the error terms associated with residuals (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Homoscedasticity was checked to determine if the variance of errors were the same across all levels of the independent variable (Hair et al., 2010). Linearity was examined by visually inspecting the residual scatterplots. Green's (1991) formula was used to determine if there was adequate number of cases to conduct multiple regression. This formula ($N > 50 + 8m$, where "m" represents the number of independent variables) indicates the minimum required sample size required to conduct multiple regression. The assumption of independent errors was assessed using the Durbin-Watson statistic (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The value for the Durbin-Watson statistic can range from 0 to 4, with a value of 2 implying that the residuals are uncorrelated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance statistic were examined to determine if multicollinearity had occurred (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). A VIF value of greater than 10 and a tolerance statistic below 0.1 indicates a problem (Hair et al., 2010).

Psychometric properties of the constructs. Scale validity and reliability was assessed to determine which scale items needed to be removed when computing composite variables in SPSS. Scale validity was assessed using exploratory factor analysis (Hair et al., 2010). Internal consistency of the various scales was assessed using Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Exploratory factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) compared to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to determine the underlying structure of latent variables (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Principal axis factoring (PAF) was used for the factor extraction method because this method extracts the maximum variance from each component (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).The scales used in this research were developed in countries in the Global North. Therefore, an EFA was also conducted to assess whether the scales held validity in the sample of Hindu fathers in SA (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test for sampling adequacy was used to determine the suitability of the data for factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Bartlett's test of sphericity was not used because it is highly sensitive and dependent on sample size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Kaiser's (1970) criterion was used to determine the number of factors to retain. All factors which had eigenvalues equal to or exceeding the value of 1.0 was considered significant and were retained (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). However, Kaiser's criterion may result in the overestimation or underestimation of factors (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). For this reason, Catell's (1966) scree test in conjunction with Kaiser's (1970) criterion was used to determine the number of factors to retain.

Rotation was used to clarify and simplify the data structure (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Principal axis factoring with varimax rotation and listwise deletion of missing data was used. An oblique rotation method (i.e., direct oblimin) was also conducted on the data (Hair et al., 2010). The results of the direct oblimin solution were similar to the varimax solution. Hence, a varimax rotation method was used because it distinguished between high and low factor loadings (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Factor loadings between .30 and .40 were considered minimally acceptable, whilst factor loadings above .50 were considered to be practically significant (Hair et al., 2010). A cut-off point of .40 was used to determine if cross-loading had occurred (Stevens, 2012). Items that had communality values of less than .30 were removed because these items explained little variance with the other items on the scale (Hair et al., 2010).

Reliability analysis. Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α) was used to assess the internal consistency of each scale. The value of Cronbach's α ranges from 0 to 1, whilst Cronbach's

α values greater than .7 are generally considered as acceptable internal consistency reliability (Nunnelly ,1970). However, Agbo (2010) argued that use of .7 as a standard cut-off point is questionable given that the guidelines proposed by Nunnelly (1970) are not empirically grounded. Similarly, Sijtsma (2009) argued that that acceptable value of .7 may not be plausible when dealing with psychological constructs because of the diversity of the constructs being measured. Tavakol and Dennick (2011) argued that value of Cronbach's α is dependent on the number of items on the scale. A large number of items on a scale will produce a high Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Cronbach's α might be relatively high due to a number of reasons such as high correlations among the error terms or the nature of the interitem correlations (Agbo, 2010). Additionally, the corrected item-total correlation coefficients were also checked.

Inferential statistical analysis. Inferential statistical analyses were used to test the propositions presented in this research. Specifically, correlation analysis, analysis of variance, hierarchical and moderated regression analyses were conducted. A description of each is presented below.

Correlation analysis. Pearson-product moment correlation analyses (Pearson's *r*) was used to examine the relationships between work role overload, work support, traditional Hindu cultural values and WFC. Correlation coefficients ranging from .0 to .30 were classified as small effect, .30 to .50 were classified as medium effect, .50 to .70 as large effect and greater than .70 as strong effect (Cohen, 1988). Bivariate correlation coefficients are highly sensitive to univariate outliers (Hair et al., 2010). Thus, bivariate correlation analysis were computed with and without univariate outliers to determine if there were any differences between the two sets of correlation analyses(see Appendix C:Table C1). A Spearman rank correlation (see Appendix D: Table D1) was also conducted because two variables (children six years old or younger and children living at home) were measured categorically and F2WC had a non-normal distribution. The results of the Pearson *r* and Spearman rank correlation matrices were similar.

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). One-way ANOVA's was conducted to assess the relationships between all categorical variables, W2FC and F2WC. ANOVA's were used to establish whether the means between groups are significant (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). If a significant relationship is present, the categorical was included as a control variable in the hierarchical multiple regression analyses.

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis. The *F* statistic and its corresponding *p*-value were examined to determine whether the overall model was significant in each step

(Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).The *t*-test statistic and its corresponding *p*-value was checked to establish which of the predictor variables significantly predicted the dependant variable.

Moderated multiple regression analysis. The procedure by Aiken and West (1991) was used to perform moderated multiple regression analyses. This procedure involves mean centering variables in order to avoid scale invariance and minimize the likelihood of multicollinearity (Aiken & West, 1991). However, Iacobucci, Schneider, Popovich, and Bakamitsos (2015) argued that mean centering helps alleviate micro multicollinearity but not macro multicollinearity. Similarly, Edwards (2008) postulated that mean centering reduces the association between first order terms and their products. Dalal and Zickar's (2012) study claimed that mean centering does not alter the fit of regression models neither does it impact on the power to detect moderating effects. Despite these criticisms, Aiken and West (1991) procedure was selected because meaning centering helps to enhance the interpretation of regression results when scales have arbitrary zeros.

Post hoc power analysis. Post-hoc power for multiple hierarchical regression analysis was calculated using G*Power version 3.1 (Erdfelder, Faul, & Buchner, 1996). In this research, the recommended effect size follows: small (f^2 = .02), medium (f^2 = .15), and large (f^2 = .35) (Cohen, 1977).

Results

The results section is divided into five sub-sections that outline the statistical analyses that were conducted on the data. The first sub-section presents the psychometric properties of each sub-scale. The second section provides the descriptive statistics used to describe the distribution of the data. Section three presents the bivariate correlation and ANOVA results. The fourth section presents the regression analyses used to test the study's propositions. Specifically, this section also explores the role of traditional cultural values as potential moderators in the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support and WFC. Finally, section five presents the final notes concerning the results section and a tabulated summary of the findings.

Psychometric Properties of Variables

The psychometric properties of each variable were examined. The results of the exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis are presented below. In order to enhance clarity for interpretation purposes, the items in Table 4, Table 5, and Table 6 have been ordered and grouped by size of loading.

Exploratory factor analysis.

Work role overload. Principal axis factoring was performed on the five items for sample of 181 participants after listwise deletion of missing data. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure verified that it was adequate to conduct an EFA on the sample as the obtained value of .834 exceeded the criterion value of .50 (Hair et al., 2010). Using Kaiser's criterion (1970), one factor was extracted with an Eigenvalue greater than one. This factor accounted for 52.19% of the variance in work role overload. This solution was also supported by Catell's (1966) scree test method as a visual inspection of the scree plot revealed one factor.

No evidence of significant cross loadings between factors was detected. Below, Table 4 indicates the factor loadings for the factor. All factor loadings were above .30 and were considered to be significant (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). All items had communality values greater than .30 and were retained. Hence, factor one was labelled work role overload.

Table 4.
Work Role Overload Scale

		Factor	Communalities
		1	
WOVER3	I cannot ever seem to catch up at work.	**.848**	.719
WOVER2	I need more hours in the day to do all the things that are expected of me at work	**.748**	.559
WOVER4	There are times when I cannot meet everyone's expectations at work.	**.718**	.516
WOVER5	I seem to have more commitments to overcome than other people I know at work.	**.644**	.414
WOVER1	I have to do things at work that I do not really have the time and energy for.	**.633**	.401
Eigenvalue		2.610	
Individual total variance (%)		52.19	
Cumulative total variance (%)		52.19	

Notes. N = 181 after listwise deletion of missing data; Principal factor analysis; each items' significance loadings are presented in bold face; WOver = Work role overload

Work Support. Principal axis factoring with varimax rotation was performed on the 10 items for sample of 180 participants after listwise deletion of missing data. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure value was .874 which verified sampling adequacy for the analysis. Using Kaiser's criterion (1970), two factors were extracted with Eigenvalues greater than one. These factors accounted for 54.58%, and 18.96% of the variance in work support respectively. An inspection of the screeplot showed a clear break after the second component.

Two factors were retained based on the results from Catell's (1966) scree test method and Kaiser's criterion (1970). No high cross loadings (i.e., factor loadings > .40) were detected in the solution. Table 5 indicates the factor loadings for each factor after rotation. The values for the factor loadings ranged between .616 and .927, which indicated that all factor loadings were considered practically significant (Hair et al., 2010).

An inspection of the communalities values indicated that all items had communality values greater than .30, which justified each item inclusion in the factor analysis. Items S_SUP1 to S_SUP5 clustered onto factor one and items CO_SUP1 to CO_SUP5 clustered onto factor two. Hence, factor one was labelled supervisor support and factor two was labelled co-worker support.

Table 5.
Work Support: Supervisor Support Scale and Co-worker Support Scale

		Factor		Communalities
		1	2	
S_SUP5	To what extent are you satisfied with the support that you receive from your supervisor?	**.927**	.226	.910
S_SUP4	To what extent can your supervisor be relied on when things get tough?	**.919**	.235	.900
S_SUP3	To what extent does your supervisor go out of his/her way to make life easier for you?	**.883**	.265	.850
S_SUP2	To what extent is your supervisor willing to listen to your problems?	**.879**	.177	.804
S_SUP1	To what extent is it easy to talk to your supervisor?	**.818**	.165	.697
CO_SUP3	To what extent do your co-workers go out of their way to make life easier for you?	.221	**.860**	.788
CO_SUP5	To what extent are you satisfied with the support that you receive from your co-workers?	.230	**.830**	.743
CO_SUP4	To what extent can your co-workers be relied on when things get tough?	.296	**.819**	.758
CO_SUP2	To what extent are your co-workers willing to listen to your problems?	.067	**.704**	.500
CO_SUP1	To what extent is it easy to talk to your co-workers?	.160	**.616**	.405
Eigenvalues		5.457	1.896	
Individual total variance (%)		54.58	18.96	
Cumulative total variance (%)		54.58	73.53	

Notes. N = 180 after listwise deletion of missing data; Principal factor analysis with Varimax normalised data; each items' significance loadings are presented in bold face; S_Sup = supervisor support; Co_Sup = co-worker support

Cultural values. Principal axis factoring with varimax rotation was performed on the 11 items for sample of 181 participants after listwise deletion of missing data. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure value was .818 which verified sampling adequacy for the analysis. Using Kaiser's criterion (1970), three factors as opposed to the expected two factors was extracted with Eigenvalues greater than one (see Table E1 in Appendix E). An inspection of the factor loadings indicated that items GRI3 and GRI5 loaded onto a third factor (see Table F1 in Appendix F). A separate factor analysis was conducted on the gender role ideology scale to investigate why items GRI3 and GRI5 loaded onto a third factor.

For the GRI scale, principal axis factoring with varimax rotation was performed on the 6 items for sample of 182 participants after listwise deletion of missing data. Using Kaiser's criterion (1970), two factors as opposed to the expected one factor was extracted with Eigenvalues greater than one (see Table F1 in Appendix F). An inspection of the factor loadings revealed that GRI3 loaded onto factor two. Despite having a factor loading of .719, item GRI3 was removed because it loaded onto a second factor. Item GRI5 did not have a factor loading of .40 on any of the factors (highest factor loading was .352). An inspection of the communality values (see Table F1 in Appendix F) showed that GRI5 had a low communality value of .196. Hence, these two items were removed from further analyses and principal axis factor analysis was rerun.

Principal axis factoring with varimax rotation was performed on the 9 items for sample of 181 participants after listwise deletion of missing data. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure value was .844 which verified sampling adequacy for the analysis. Using Kaiser's criterion (1970), two factors were extracted with Eigenvalues greater than one. These factors accounted for 35.31% and 12.80% of the variance in cultural values respectively. An inspection of the screeplot revealed a clear break after the second component. Based on, Catell's (1966) scree test method and Kaiser's criterion (1970), two factors were retained.

No evidence of significant cross loadings between factors was detected. Below, Table 6 indicates the factor loadings for each factor after rotation. All factor loading values exceeded .50 and were considered practically significant (Hair et al., 2010). An inspection of the communality values revealed that all community values were greater .30, thereby justifying each item inclusion in the factor analysis (Hair et al., 2010). Items FM_HIER1 to FM_HIER5 clustered onto factor one and items GRI1, GRI2, GRI4 and GRI6 clustered onto factor two. Factor one was labelled family hierarchy orientation and factor two was labelled gender role ideology.

Table 6.
Cultural Scales: Family Hierarchy Orientation and Gender Role Ideology

		Factor		Communalities
		1	2	
FM_HIER3	Elderly family members should not ask for the opinions of younger family members.	**.783**	.074	.618
FM_HIER1	Elders in the family should make most decisions without consulting younger members of the family.	**.760**	.175	.608
FM_HIER5	Younger family members should not disagree with the decisions made by elderly family members.	**.659**	.246	.495
FM_HIER2	At family social gatherings, younger family members should mix with their own age group.	**.565**	.141	.339
FM_HIER4	It is frequently necessary for an elder in the family to use authority and power when dealing with younger family members.	**.550**	.157	.328
GRI2	A husband should earn more money than his wife.	.285	**.724**	.605
GRI4	A woman whose husband can support her should not work.	.056	**.662**	.441
GRI6	Even if the wife works, the husband should be the main breadwinner and the wife should carry the main responsibility for the home and children.	.208	**.653**	.469
GRI1	A woman's most important task in life should be taking care of her children.	.138	**.637**	.425
Eigenvalues		3.177	1.152	
Individual total variance (%)		35.31	12.80	
Cumulative total variance (%)		35.31	48.10	

Notes. N = 181 after listwise deletion of missing data; Principal factor analysis with Varimax normalised data; each items' significance loadings are presented in bold face; Fm_Hier = Family hierarchy orientation; supervisor support; GRI = Gender role ideology

Work-family conflict. Principal axis factoring with varimax rotation was performed on the 15 items for sample of 180 participants after listwise deletion of missing data. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure value was .886 which verified sampling adequacy for the analysis. Using Kaiser's criterion (1970), two factors were extracted with Eigenvalues greater than one. These factors accounted for 60.66% and 19.33% of the variance in WFC respectively. Catell's (1966) scree test method further supported the inclusion of two factors. No significant cross-loadings were detected. Below, Table 7 indicates the factor loadings for

each factor after rotation. The values for all factor loadings exceeded .50 and were considered practically significant (Hair et al., 2010). All communality values (see Table 7 below) exceeded .30. Items F2WC1 to F2WC5 clustered onto factor one, therefore factor one was labelled family-to-work conflict. Items W2FC1 to W2FC5 clustered onto factor two, therefore factor two was labelled work-to-family conflict.

Table 7.
Work Family Conflict: W2FC Scale and F2WC Scale

		Factor		Communalities
		1	2	
F2WC3	Things I want to do at work don't get done because of the demands of my family or spouse.	**.922**	.175	.881
F2WC2	I have to put off things at work because of demands on my time at home.	**.884**	.238	.838
F2WC4	My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime.	**.859**	.226	.790
F2WC1	The demands of my family or spouse interfere with work-related activities.	**.843**	.272	.785
F2WC5	Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties.	**.824**	.295	.766
W2FC3	Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me.	.199	**.891**	.834
W2FC4	My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties.	.169	**.867**	.781
W2FC2	The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil my family responsibilities.	.258	**.864**	.813
W2FC5	Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.	.239	**.858**	.793
W2FC1	The demands of my work interfere with my home and my family life.	.355	**.769**	.718
Eigenvalues		6.066	1.933	
Individual total variance (%)		60.66	19.33	
Cumulative total variance (%)		60.66	79.99	

Notes. N = 180 after listwise deletion of missing data; Principal factor analysis with Varimax normalised data; each items' significance loadings are presented in bold face; F2WC = family-to-work conflict; W2WC= work-to-family conflict

Reliability analysis.

In this research, the reliability coefficients for each scale ranged from .75 to .95. Therefore, all scales in this research demonstrated good internal consistency as each scale exceeded the conventional level of acceptance of .70 (Hair et al., 2010). Corrected item-total correlation coefficients greater than .3 were retained (Hair et al., 2010). The corrected item-

total correlations for all scales ranged between .40 < *r* < .93 (see Table G1 in Appendix G for more information relating to the corrected item-total correlations for each scale).

Descriptive Statistics

This section presents a summary of the descriptive statistics and distribution scores for each variable. Table 8 below presents the composite variables that were created by computing the means of each item on the scale.

Table 8.

Descriptive Statistics and Distribution Values

Variable	N	*M*	*SD*	Skewness	*SE* of skewness	Kurtosis	*SE* of kurtosis
Work role overload	182	2.785	.825	.326	.180	-.236	.358
Supervisor support	182	4.219	1.249	-.455	.180	-.269	.358
Co-worker support	183	3.994	.870	-.258	.180	-.219	.357
Family hierarchy orientation	183	2.284	.666	.241	.180	.297	.357
GRI	183	2.535	.834	.229	.180	.055	.357
W2FC	183	2.675	.910	.377	.180	-.236	.357
F2WC	182	2.185	.779	1.019	.180	1.930	.358
WFC	183	2.436	.740	.349	.180	.396	.357

Notes. Variables in the table are composite variables; *N* = Sample size; *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation; *SE* = standard error; GRI= Gender role ideology; W2FC = work-to-family conflict; F2WC = family-to-work conflict; WFC = work family conflict

Table 8 indicates that majority of the scores on the composite variables are approximately around the midpoint of three on a five-point Likert type scale. Out of all the variables, participants reported high levels of supervisor support (*M* = 4.22, *SD* = 1.25) and co-worker support (*M* = 3.99, *SD* = .87). However, participants reported slightly lower levels of work role overload (*M* = 2.79, *SD* = .83). Regarding WFC, participants experienced slightly higher levels of W2FC (*M* = 2.68, *SD* = .91) compared to F2WC (*M* = 2.14, *SD* = .70). In terms of hierarchy orientation, participants experienced low levels of family hierarchy (*M* = 2.28, *SD* = .67). Overall, the standard deviations for the composite variables in Table 8 indicate that a narrow distribution of the scores around the mean.

Univariate normality was assessed by examining the skewness and kurtosis values for each composite variable. In Table 8 above, the skewness and kurtosis values indicated that the majority of score distributions were normal except for the variable F2WC (*skewness* = 1.02, *SE* = .18) which had a non-normal distribution. Non-normality of univariate variables

have undesirable effects on parametric statistics. However, in social science research many of the attributes that are measured are in fact not normally distributed. Therefore, it is uncommon to find scales that have a perfect normal distribution (Pallant, 2010).

Correlation Analysis

A Pearson Product-Moment correlation analysis with pairwise deletion of missing data was used to examine the relationships between work role overload, work support and WFC. Age, organisational tenure and number of children were included as control variables as these variables were measured on a continuous scale. Below, Table 9 presents the correlation matrix of the study variables.

Intercorrelations with W2FC. Table 9 indicates that there was a significantly strong positive association between W2FC and work role overload, showing a large effect size (r = .54, p < .01). W2FC was moderately negatively correlated to co-worker support, showing a small effect size (r = -.28, p < .01). There was a statistically significant weak negative association between W2FC and supervisor support, showing a small effect size (r = -.24, p < .01). Moreover, weak positive significant correlations were found between W2FC and family hierarchy orientation, showing a small effect size (r = .23, p < .01) and between W2FC and gender role ideology, showing a small effect size (r = .19, p < .01).

Intercorrelations with F2WC.F2WC was moderately positively correlated to work role overload, showing a small effect size (r = .36, p < .01). There was a statistically non-significant association between F2WC and supervisor support (r = -.08, p = .28). F2WC was not correlated with co-worker support, showing a trivial effect size (r = -.06, p = .46). Table 9 indicates that there was a statistically weak association between F2WC and family hierarchy orientation (r = .18, p < .05). Also, F2WC was slightly positively correlated to gender role ideology, showing a trivial effect size (r = .15, p < .05).

Control variables and W2FC. There was a statistically significant positive association between W2FC and children six years or younger, showing a trivial effect size (r = .16, p < .01). W2FC was not significantly related to number of children (r = .07, p = .33) and to children living at home (r = .06, p = .17). There was a statistically non-significant negative correlation between W2FC and age, showing a trivial effect size (r = -.13, p = .07) and between W2FC and organisational tenure (r = -.12, p = .12). Hence, children six years or younger was included as a control variable in the subsequent analyses for W2FC regression models.

Control variables and F2WC. F2WC was moderately negatively correlated to age (r = -.20, p < .01). There was a statistically significant positive association between F2WC and

children six years or younger (r = .27, p < .01). However, there was a statistically non-significant association between F2WC and organisational tenure (r = -.12, p = .12) and between F2WC and number of children (r = -.08, p = .27). F2WC was also not significantly correlated with children living at home (r = .05, p = .55). Hence, age and children six years or younger were included as control variables in the analyses for F2WC regression models.

ANOVA Analyses

ANOVA analyses were conducted to establish whether the demographic variables should be included as control variables in the regression analyses. All of the results were insignificant (i.e., p > .05) and demographic variables were not included in the analyses.

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed to establish work role overload, supervisor and co-worker support as predictors of W2FC and F2WC. A two-step model was used when the multiple regression analyses were conducted.

Work role overload, work support and W2FC. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to determine if *work role overload* and work support (*supervisor support* and *co-worker support*) explained levels of *W2FC* beyond that explained by the control variable. The first step introduced the control variable, *children six years or younger*. The second step added the *work role overload*, *supervisor support,* and *co-worker support* variables.

Table 10 presents the regression model and indicates the unstandardised regression coefficients, the standardised regression coefficients, standard error of the unstandardised beta coefficient, and the 95% confidence intervals after Step 2, R^2, adjusted R^2, and change in R^2. After the second step, with all the predictors in the equation, R^2 = .35, F (4, 170) = 22.81 (p < .001), indicating that the overall model was significant.

In step one of the regression model, R^2 = .026, F_{inc} (1,173) = 4.66, p < .05. The adjusted R^2 value of .021 indicated that *children six years or younger* explained 2.1% in the variance of W2FC. After step 2, with the addition of the work overload and work support variables R^2 = .35 (adjusted R^2= .33), F_{inc} (4,170) = 22.81, p < .001. The addition of work role overload and work support variables into the model resulted in a significant increment in R^2 (ΔR^2 = .323, p < .001). These results indicate that the work role overload and work support variables explain approximately one third of the variance in W2FC above and beyond the control variable.

Table 9.
Inter-Correlations and Reliabilities of Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.Age	-											
2.Org tenure	**.536****	-										
3.Num of children	**.387****	.139	-									
4.ChildU6	**-.541****	**-.315****	**-.245****	-								
5.Child_home	**-.436****	**-.187***	-.015	**.175***	-							
6.WOver	-.133	-.069	-.029	.109	.041	(.840)						
7.S_Sup	.089	.030	.021	-.002	-.081	**-.319****	(.959)					
8.Co_Sup	.040	.072	.052	-.034	.001	**-.162***	**.442****	(.893)				
9.FmHier	-.013	-.010	-.080	.124	-.032	**.179***	-.097	-.132	(.792)			
10.GRI	**.157***	.099	.144	-.023	-.125	.027	-.014	**-.171***	**.374****	(.775)		
11.W2FC	-.134	-.117	.073	**.164***	.061	**.542****	**-.242****	**-.284****	**.230****	**.191****	(.933)	
12.F2WC	**-.201****	-.118	-.084	**.274****	.021	**.358****	-.080	-.057	**.175***	**.154***	**.515****	(.940)

Notes. Values are Pearson correlation coefficients. Scale internal consistencies (Cronbach alpha) are in parentheses on the diagonal. Sample size ranging from $N = 177$ to $N = 183$ (pairwise deletion of missing data). **. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).Bold faced values indicate significant correlations. ChildU6= children 6 years or younger; Child_home = children living at home; WOver = work role overload; S_Sup = supervisor support; Co_Sup = co-worker support; FmHier = family hierarchy; GRI = gender role ideology: low scores indicate egalitarian GRI, high scores indicate traditional GRI; W2FC = work-to-family conflict; F2WC = family-to-work conflict

In step one, *children six years or younger* (β = .164, p < .05) was a significant predictor of W2FC. In step two, *work role overload* (β = .487, p < .001) and *co-worker support* (β = -.216, p < .01) were significant predictors of W2FC. Therefore, only proposition 1 and 3b was supported, that work role overload positively predicts W2FC and co-worker support negatively predicts W2FC for Hindu fathers in SA respectively.

A post hoc power analysis conducted for a sample size of N = 175, with α = .05, and four predictors in the final step of the hierarchical multiple regression model and produced an observed power coefficient of 1.00. The results yielded a large effect size (f^2 = .536) (Cohen, 1988).

Table 10.
Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis: Work Role Overload and Work Support as Predictors of W2FC

	Work-to-family conflict							
	Step one			Step two				
Control variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	95% CI	
Children six years or younger	.318	.147	**.162***	.198	.122	.101	[-.044	.439]
Work role overload and work support								
Work role overload				.526	.071	**.487*****	[.385	.666]
Supervisor support				-.011	.054	-.015	[-.117	.095]
Co-worker support				-.223	.073	**-.216****	[-.366	-.079]
R^2			.026			.349		
Adjusted R^2			.021			.334		
ΔR^2						**.323****		

Notes. N = 175 after listwise deletion of missing data; *B* = unstandardised beta coefficient; *SE B* = standard error of the unstandardised beta coefficient; β = standardised beta coefficient; CI = confidence interval. *$p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$

Work role overload, work support and F2WC. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to determine if *work role overload* and work support (*supervisor support*, and *co-worker support*) explained levels of *F2WC* beyond that explained by the control variables. In the first step, *children six years or younger* and *age* was introduced as the control variables. In the second step the variables, *work role overload, supervisor support* and *co-worker support* were introduced into the model.

Table 11 presents the regression model and indicates the unstandardised regression coefficients, the standardised regression coefficients, standard error of the unstandardised beta coefficient, and the 95% confidence intervals after Step 2, R^2, adjusted R^2, and change in R^2. After the second step, with all the predictors in the equation, R^2 = .19, F (5, 165) = 7.65 (p < .001), indicating that the overall model was significant.

In step one of the regression model, R^2 = .08, F_{inc} (2,168) = 7.32, p < .001. The adjusted R^2 value of .069 indicated that the control variables, *children six years or younger* and *age* explained 6.9% in the variance of F2WC. After step 2, with the addition of *work role overload*, *supervisor support* and *co-worker support*, R^2 = .19 (adjusted R^2= .16), F_{inc} (5,163) = 7.65, p < .001. The addition of the work role overload and work support variables into the model resulted in a significant increment in R^2 (ΔR^2 = .108, p < .001). These results indicated that work role overload and work support variables explain approximately 16% of the variance in F2WC above and beyond the control variables

Table 11.
Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis: Work Role Overload and Work Support as Predictors of F2WC.

	Family-to-work conflict							
	Step one			Step two				
Control variables	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	95% CI	
Children six years or younger	.387	.150	**.226***	.346	.143	**.202***	[.062	.629]
Age	-.008	.008	-.087	-.006	.007	-.065	[-.020	.009]
Work role overload and work support								
Work role overload				.320	.071	**.335*****	[.179	.460]
Supervisor support				.030	.054	.046	[-.076	.135]
Co-worker support				-.040	.072	-.044	[-.182	.102]
R^2			.080			.188		
Adjusted R^2			.069			.164		
ΔR^2						**.108*****		

Notes. N = 171 after listwise deletion of missing data; B = unstandardised beta coefficient; *SE B* = standard error of the unstandardised beta coefficient; β = standardised beta coefficient; *CI* = confidence interval. *$p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$

Table 11 indicates that in step one of the regression model, only *children six years or younger* (β = .226, p < .01) was a significant predictor of F2WC. In step two, *children six years or younger* was still a significant predictor of F2WC (β = .202, p < .05). Only *work role overload* (β = .335, p < .001) was a significant positive predictor of F2WC. In contrast, neither *supervisor support* (β = .046, p = .556) nor *co-worker support* (β = -.044, p = .581) were found to be significant predictors of F2WC. Based on these findings, only proposition 2 was supported. Thus, work role overload was a significant positive predictor of F2WC, even after controlling for children six years or younger and participant's age.

A post hoc power analysis conducted for a sample size of N = 171, with α = .05, and five predictors in the final step of the hierarchical multiple regression model and produced an

observed power coefficient of .999. The results yielded a small effect size (f^2 = .231) (Cohen, 1988).

Moderated Multiple Regression Analyses

Moderated hierarchical regression was conducted to determine the potential moderating effect of traditional cultural values on the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support and WFC. Firstly, the independent variables were centred by subtracting the mean from each independent variable (Aiken & West, 1991). To establish the moderating effects, interaction terms were created by multiplying the centred independent variables by the centred moderating variable (e.g., work role overload x GRI). The results from the hierarchical regression analyses above indicated that children six years or younger explained little variance in W2FC. Similarly, children six years or younger and age explained little variance in F2WC. For these reasons, these control variables were omitted from the moderated regression analyses.

Work role overload, supervisor support, cultural values and W2FC. Hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to determine the possible moderating effects of *GRI* and *family hierarchy orientation* on the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support and W2FC. In the first step, *work role overload, supervisor support* and the two cultural values, *GRI* and *family hierarchy orientation* variables were introduced. In the second step, the following interaction terms were added to the regression model:

- *Work role overload x GRI,* and
- *Supervisor support x family hierarchy orientation*

Table 12 presents the regression model and indicates the unstandardised regression coefficients, the standardised regression coefficients, standard error of the unstandardised beta coefficient, and the 95% confidence intervals after Step 2, R^2, adjusted R^2, and change in R^2. After the second step, with all the interaction terms in the equation, R^2 = .34, F (6, 174) = 14.78 (p < .001), indicating that the overall model was significant.

In step one of the model, the adjusted R^2 value of .320 indicated that *work role overload*, *supervisor support, GRI* and *family hierarchy orientation* explained approximately 32% of the variance in *W2FC*. Only *work role overload* (β = .490, p < .001) and *GRI* (β = .148, p < .05) explained unique variance in *W2FC*.

In step two of the model, *work role overload* (β = .497, p < .001) and *GRI* (β = .151, p < .05) were significant predictors of *W2FC*. The addition of the interaction terms into the model resulted in a non- significant increment in R^2 (ΔR^2 = .003, p =.698). Furthermore,

Table 12 indicates that none of the interaction terms were significant. Therefore, propositions 5a and 6a were not supported. Traditional cultural values did not moderate the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support and W2FC for Hindu fathers in SA.

Table 12.
Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis: Work Role Overload, Supervisor Support and Cultural Values Predicting W2FC

	Work-to-family conflict							
	Step one			Step two				
Work role overload and supervisor support	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	95% CI	
Work role overload	.552	.073	**.499*** **	.550	.073	**.497*** **	[.406	.694]
Supervisor support	-.058	.048	-.078	-.059	.049	-.079	[-.155	.037]
Cultural values								
Family hierarchy orientation	.104	.093	.076	.103	.094	.074	[-.084	.289]
GRI	.162	.072	**.148***	.165	.073	**.151***	[.022	.309]
Interactions								
Work role overload x GRI				.043	.080	.034	[-.114	.200]
Supervisor support x family hierarchy orientation				-.046	.066	-.043	[-.176	.085]
R^2			.335			.338		
Adjusted R^2			.320			.315		
ΔR^2						.003		

Notes. N = 180 after listwise deletion of missing data; GRI = gender role ideology; *B* = unstandardised beta coefficient; *SE B* = standard error of the unstandardised beta coefficient; *β* = standardised beta coefficient; *CI* = confidence interval. *$p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$

A post hoc power analysis conducted for a sample size of N = 180, with α = .05, and six predictors in the final step of the moderated multiple regression model and produced an observed power coefficient of .950. The results yielded a small effect size (f^2 = .212) (Cohen, 1988).

Work role overload, supervisor support, cultural values and F2WC. Hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to determine the moderating effects of *GRI* and *family hierarchy orientation* on the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support and F2WC. In the first step, *work role overload*, *supervisor support* and the two cultural values, *GRI* and *family hierarchy orientation* variables were introduced. In the second step, the following interaction terms were added to the regression model:

- *Work role overload x GRI,* and
- *Supervisor support x family hierarchy orientation*

Table 13 presents the regression model and indicates the unstandardised regression coefficients, the standardised regression coefficients, the associated significant *p*-values, the 95% confidence intervals after Step 2, R^2, adjusted R^2, and change in R^2. After the second step, with all the interaction terms in the equation, $R^2 = .15$, F (6, 173) = 5.26 ($p < .001$), indicating that the overall model was significant.

Table 13.
Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis: Work Role Overload, Supervisor Support and Cultural Values Predicting F2WC

	Family-to-work conflict							
	Step one			Step two				
Work role overload and supervisor support	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	95% CI	
Work role overload	.333	.070	**.355*** **	.329	.070	**.350*** **	[.190	.467]
Supervisor support	.022	.046	.036	.021	.047	.034	[-.071	.113]
Cultural values								
Family hierarchy orientation	.068	.090	.058	.057	.091	.048	[-.123	.237]
GRI	.111	.070	.120	.114	.070	.122	[-.025	.252]
Interactions								
Work role overload x GRI				-.034	.076	-.032	[-.185	.116]
Supervisor support x family hierarchy orientation				-.043	.064	-.048	[-.169	.082]
R^2			.151			.154		
Adjusted R^2			.131			.125		
ΔR^2						.003		

Notes. $N = 179$ after listwise deletion of missing data; GRI = gender role ideology; *B* = unstandardised beta coefficient; *SE B* = standard error of the unstandardised beta coefficient; *β* = standardised beta coefficient; *CI* = confidence interval. *$p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$

In step one of the model, the adjusted R^2 value of .151 indicated that *work role overload*, *supervisor support*, *GRI* and *family hierarchy orientation* explained approximately 15% of the variance in *F2WC*. In step one, only *work role overload* ($\beta = .355$, $p < .001$) was a significant predictor of *F2WC*. In step two of the model, after the addition of the interaction terms the total variance explained by the model as a whole was approximately only 15%, $F(6, 173) = 3.94$ ($p < .001$). This indicated that the overall model was significant. However, the addition of the interaction terms into the model resulted in a non- significant increment in R^2 ($\Delta R^2 = .003$, $p = .701$). *Work role overload* ($\beta = .350$, $p < .001$) continued to explain unique variance in *F2WC*.

However, Table 13 indicated that none of the interaction terms were significant. Therefore, propositions 5b and 6b were not supported. Traditional cultural values did not

moderate the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support and F2WC for Hindu fathers in SA.

A post hoc power analysis conducted for a sample size of $N = 179$, with $\alpha = .05$, and six predictors in the final step of the moderated multiple regression model and produced an observed power coefficient of .768. The results yielded a small effect size ($f^2 = .208$) (Cohen, 1988).

Assumptions of multiple regression

No cases had a standardised residual value which exceeded the value of -3.29 or 3.29 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The value for Cooks *D* across all solutions did not exceed the value of 1. The Mahalanobis distance indicated that there were no data significant multivariate outliers. Normality was established as a visual inspection of the residual plots showed that the patterns of the observed values clustered closely to the gradient line (See Appendix H, Figures H1-H4). There was slight heteroscedasticity for all regression solutions as the residuals were randomly scattered along the horizontal line which approximately formed an oval shape. However, slight heteroscedasticity would not have an effect on significance values (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Linearity was established as the scatterplots indicated that both independent and dependant variables had an approximate linear relationship (See Appendix I, Figures I1-I4).

The final model consisted of seven independent variables, therefore the minimum required sample size to conduct multiple regression was 106 (Green, 1991). The number of participants in this research ($N = 183$) was well beyond the minimum requirement. The Durbin-Watson statistic across the regression models ranged from 2.067 to 2.214 which implied that the residuals were uncorrelated in the models. Multicollinearity was not detected because the VIF statistic was well below the threshold of 10 and the tolerance statistic was below the value of 0.1.

Final notes

The results of this research confirmed the bi-directionality of the work-family conflict scale. Work role overload was a significant positive predictor of W2FC and F2WC. Co-worker support was a significant negative predictor of W2FC, but was not a significant predictor of F2WC. Supervisor support was not a significant predictor of WFC. GRI did not moderate the relationships between work role overload and WFC. Moreover, family hierarchy orientation was not a significant moderator in the relationships between supervisor support and WFC. The findings of this research provided support for the propositions 1, 2, and 3b. Table 14 presents a summary of the propositions and findings of this research.

Table 14.
Summary of Propositions and Findings

Propositions	**Support**
Work role overload positively predicts (1) W2FC and (2) F2WC.	(1) Supported (2) Supported
Work support: (3a) supervisor support and (3b) co-worker support negatively predicts W2FC.	(3a) Not supported (3b) Supported
Work support: (4a) supervisor support and (4b) co-worker support negatively predicts F2WC.	(4a) Not supported (4b) Not supported
5a: GRI will moderate the relationship between work role overload and W2FC such that egalitarian Hindu fathers in SA will experience stronger relationship between work role overload and W2FC than traditional Hindu fathers in SA.	Not supported
5b: GRI will moderate the relationship between work role overload and F2WC such that egalitarian Hindu fathers in SA will experience stronger relationship between work role overload and F2WC than traditional Hindu fathers in SA	Not supported
6a: Family hierarchy orientation will moderate the relationships between supervisor support and W2FC such that Hindu fathers in SA with a high family hierarchy orientation will experience a weaker relationship between supervisor support and W2FC than Hindu fathers with a low family hierarchy orientation	Not supported
6b: Family hierarchy orientation will moderate the relationship between supervisor support and F2WC, such that Hindu fathers in SA with a high family hierarchy orientation will experience a weaker relationship between supervisor support and F2WC than Hindu fathers with a low family hierarchy orientation	Not supported

Discussion

The primary aim of this research was to examine work-family conflict among Hindu fathers in South Africa. This research used secondary survey data to examine the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support, co-worker support and WFC. Also, this research examined the extent to which traditional cultural values moderated the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support and WFC. This section presents a discussion of the obtained findings in relation to the study's propositions and current work-family literature. Thereafter, the practical contributions are discussed. Afterwards, the study's limitations and recommendations for future research are presented. Lastly, the concluding notes are presented.

Contributions of the present study

The present research furthers the existing knowledge concerning work-family conflict in the South African context by making the following contributions, which are discussed in detail below:

1. Examining the levels of work-family conflict among Hindu fathers in SA
2. Empirically assessing the psychometric properties of the WFC scale
3. Empirically examining the relationships between work role overload and WFC
4. Empirically examining the relationships between work support and WFC
5. Empirically assessing traditional cultural values as moderators in the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support and WFC

Patterns of self-reported work-family conflict among Hindu fathers in SA

Prior to this research, very little is known about work-family conflict of Hindu fathers in SA. In this research, the reported levels of W2FC (M = 2.68, SD = .91) and F2WC (M = 2.14, SD = .70) were below the mid-point of three on a five point-Likert type scale. This finding of lower reported levels of WFC is consistent with previous literature (e.g., Lee et al., 2013) that examined WFC in collectivistic cultures. The lower reported levels of WFC could be attributed to the idea that the work and family domain are perceived to be interconnected spheres in collectivistic orientated cultures (Lu & Chang, 2014). To further explain this finding, Amstad et al. (2011) suggested that family boundaries are permeable which allows work to interfere with the family domain more easily than family interfering with the work domain. With regard to Hindu fathers in SA, their higher levels of W2FC compared to F2WC could be attributed to their socialisation from a young age to understand their role as the primary breadwinner in the family (Singh, 2011). This finding is also consistent with the notion that Hindu fathers are more likely to identify with the role of the breadwinner to a

large extent rather than to the role of a father (Eagly, 1987). These findings indicate that Hindu fathers in SA are likely to perceive that work produces strain which makes it difficult to fulfil family duties. Their higher levels of W2FC compared to F2WC could also be attributed to the amount of time and energy consumed by work-related tasks, which would make it difficult for Hindu fathers to fulfil family responsibilities. Hence, they are likely to perceive the demands of work as inferring with their family life.

Psychometric properties and portability of WFC scale

The results of the exploratory factor analysis confirmed Netemeyer et al.'s (1996) bi-directional measure of WFC. This finding is similar to previous research (c.f., Carlson et al.,2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kalliath & Kalliath, 2013) that examined the nature of work-family conflict. The two factors (W2FC and F2WC) that emerged from the EFA confirmed the notion that the direction of conflict can be from work into family (W2FC) or from family into work (F2WC) and that in either direction there is conflict within the receiving domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Moreover, the Cronbach's coefficient alpha values shown for this scale in this research (W2FC = .933 and F2WC = .940) were consistent with Netemeyer (1996) study. The findings from the validity and reliability analyses confirmed the portability of the WFC scale to the South African context.

The relationships between work role overload and WFC

Results from the hierarchical regression analysis showed that work role overload was a significant positive predictor of W2FC and F2WC for Hindu fathers in SA. This finding is similar to that of Michel et al. (2011) who examined the antecedents of work-family conflict and found that work role overload had a statistically significant positive relationship with both W2FC and F2WC. The finding that work role overload explains a significant amount of variance in both directions of WFC can be corroborated by several past studies conducted in countries in the Global South (cf. Adisa et al., 2016; Annor,2014; Kailasapathy et al., 2014; Kaur, 2008; Hsiao & Barak, 2014; Uzoigwe et al.,2016).

The relationships between work role overload and WFC for Hindu fathers in SA can be explained using resource drain theory (Staines, 1980) and the scarcity hypothesis (Goode, 1960). For Hindu fathers, high demands and pressures in the work environment might result in the father devoting all his time, effort and resources to meet high work expectations (Goode, 1960). As a result, high expectations at work might consume the necessary resources and energy that the Hindu father requires to fulfil various obligations in the family domain (Staines, 1980). Given that the family is perceived to be central to a person's identity in the Hindu culture and the importance of traditional rituals and practices in the Hindu culture

(Chaudhary, 2013), a further speculation may be that as a result of high work overload, Hindu fathers might not have sufficient energy and time to invest in family-related activities and traditional rituals. It is speculated that when Hindu fathers encounter role overload in the work domain, they are likely to respond by removing resources from the family domain to the work domain in order to cope with role overload (Matthews, Winkel & Wayne,2014). As a result, this escalates feelings that the work domain might interfere with the family domain, thereby exacerbating feelings of W2FC.

Furthermore, the results of the hierarchical regression analyses indicated that work role overload (β = .335, p < .001) also explained a large amount of unique variance in F2WC above and beyond that of age (β = -.065, p = .563) and children six years or younger (β = .202, p < .01). This finding could be explained by the traditional role associated with the father in the Hindu family. In the Hindu family, the father is still perceived to be the primary breadwinner whilst the mother is still assumes major responsibility for childrearing (Roopnarine et al., 2013). Hence, the Hindu father has the responsibility to provide and sustain the economic welfare of the family. This involves providing financial support for his children's education, providing material needs for family members, ensuring the general maintenance of the household and providing healthcare for elderly family members (Chaudhary, 2013). It could be speculated that these family obligations along with the expectations as the primary breadwinner may deplete the father of necessary resources and energy required to meet the high work expectations. As a result, this could escalate feelings of family interfering with work (F2WC).

The relationships between work support and WFC

Two sources of social support (i.e., supervisor support and co-worker support) that originate in the work domain were examined in order to determine whether they predicted WFC for Hindu fathers in SA.

Supervisor support and W2FC. Contrary to proposition 3a and majority of empirical research (c.f., Chang, Lu, & Lu, 2009; Cinamon & Rich, 2005; Lu & Chang, 2014), the findings of this research showed that supervisor support was not a negative predictor of W2FC. The mean levels of self-reported supervisor support for the Hindu fathers were well above the midpoint of three on a five point-Likert type scale (M = 4.22, SD = 1.25). This indicated that Hindu fathers could have perceived their supervisors to be supportive, but refrained from asking them for support with regard to managing work and family demands. This could be attributed to the early socialisation of Hindu males towards a high degree of hierarchy orientation for people in authoritative positons (Chaudhary, 2013; Singh, 2011).

The finding from the present research can be corroborated by few past studies conducted in countries in the Global South which demonstrated that supervisor support does not negatively predict W2FC (cf. Hsiao & Barak, 2014; Karatepe & Bekteshi, 2008; Luk & Shaffer, 2005). For instance, Hsiao and Barak (2014) investigated work stressors, social support, and work–family conflict among Mexican factory workers. Hsiao and Barak (2014) found that supervisor support has no effect on reducing WFC for the factory workers. These findings were attributed to strict family-leave policies and family-unfriendly supervisors which prevented participants from meeting family responsibilities.

A possible explanation for non-significant relationship between supervisor support and WFC can be attributed to the scale used to measure supervisor support. In this research, a general measure of supervisor support as opposed to work-family specific supervisor support scale was used. Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, and Hammer's (2011) meta-analysis showed that work-family specific constructs of supervisor support are more strongly associated with WFC, rather than general supervisor support. Their findings could explain the non-significant relationship between supervisor support and WFC in this research.

Furthermore, the demographic statistics in this research indicated that approximately 91% (166) of Hindu fathers were employed in managerial positions. It could be speculated that these fathers had greater autonomy in their work role and did not work under supervision. Therefore, they would not seek support from a supervisor regarding work-related demands. This finding could further explain the non-significant relationship between supervisor support and W2FC for Hindu fathers in this research.

Co-worker support and W2FC. In line with previous research (c.f., Aycan & Eskin, 2005; Kulik & Liberman, 2013; Lee et al., 2013) and proposition 4a, co-worker was a significant negative predictor of W2FC for Hindu fathers in SA. This finding can also be corroborated by several studies conducted in countries in the Global South which demonstrated that co-worker support negatively predicts W2FC (c.f., de Klerk & Mostert, 2010; Forster et al., 2013; Halbesleben et al.,2012; Kailasapathy et al., 2014).

The relationship between co-worker support and W2FC can be understood through the lens of the COR (Hobfoll, 1989). According to the COR theory, individuals accumulate excess resources or replenish spent resources to mitigate the effects of resource losses that individuals experience in meeting their daily demands (Hobfoll, 2002). Individuals who are unable to retain resources when confronted with significant work demands, will face significant stress or emotional exhaustion because of the depletion of their resources (Hobfoll, 2002). Co-workers may provide energy and support to help Hindu fathers with

work-related duties, thereby helping Hindu fathers to manage multiple roles successfully (Lu et al., 2015).

A further explanation is that Hindu fathers are traditionally socialised with a high degree of hierarchy orientation. As a result, it is speculated that Hindu fathers are more likely to seek support from their co-workers rather from their supervisors with regard to work demands as co-workers are perceived to be of similar hierarchy status to the fathers. Additionally, Hindu fathers might seek social support from their co-workers because their co-workers might share an understanding of the nature of work stressors that they encounter (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2009). This notion is supported by Lu et al. (2009) who suggested that co-worker support rather than supervisor support was perceived to be more beneficial when employees seek emotional support or help with family issues.

Supervisor support, co-worker support and F2WC. Contrary to propositions 3b, 4b and past empirical research (c.f., Bryon, 2005; Lee et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2015), neither supervisor nor co-worker support negatively predicted F2WC for Hindu fathers in SA. The finding that supervisor support and co-worker support does not negatively predict F2WC can be corroborated by few past studies conducted in countries in the Global South (e.g., Annor, 2016; Epie & Ituma, 2014; Farhadi et al., 2013).

The descriptive statistics in Table 8 indicated that Hindu fathers might have perceived their supervisors and co-workers to be supportive, but refrained from asking them for support regarding family-related issues and demands. A possible reason for these findings could be attributed to the lack of awareness, knowledge and understanding that supervisors and co-workers might have of Hindu cultural practices, religious beliefs and rituals (Kumar, 2012). As a result, Hindu fathers might find it challenging to seek support and advice regarding family-related and cultural issues. For example, Diwali is a sacred festival in the Hindu culture (Kumar, 2012). Members of the Hindu community celebrate this festival by attending prayers at the temple and spending time with family and friends. But in terms of the Public Holidays Act 36 of 1994, Diwali is not recognised as a public holiday in South Africa (Maharaj, 2013). Consequently, employers would require Hindu employees to either work on Diwali or apply for an annual day off from work or unpaid leave (Maharaj, 2013).

Additionally, the observed rituals and practices during funeral ceremonies in the Hindu culture are markedly different to that of other religious cultures (Lipner, 2010). In the Hindu culture, the mourning period following the death of a family member continues for approximately 13 days (Lipner, 2010). During this period, family members of the decreased are expected to remain at home to receive visitors, attend daily prayers and are not allowed to

attend social functions (Bhalla, 2006). Supervisors or co-workers, who are not familiar with Hindu funeral rituals and practices, may not be supportive towards and accommodating in allowing Hindu fathers to meet various family responsibilities required during the mourning period.

The moderating role of GRI and family hierarchy orientation in the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support and WFC

For Hindu males, traditional cultural values are instilled within them from early socialisation within the family domain (Singh, 2011). Traditional cultural values are embedded in Hindu culture and constitute an important feature of a Hindu man's identity and how he perceives his role within the work and family domain (Kumar, 2012). Results from the moderated hierarchical regression analysis indicated that GRI was not a significant moderator of the relationship between work role overload and WFC for Hindu fathers in SA. The findings of this research also found that family hierarchy orientation was not a significant moderator of the relationships between supervisor support and WFC for Hindu fathers in SA.

Although not hypothesised, a significant positive relationship was found between GRI and W2FC. This indicates that GRI could be a direct predictor of W2FC. Hindu fathers in SA with a traditional gender role orientation are likely to experience greater W2FC than Hindu fathers with an egalitarian gender role orientation. Hindu fathers with a traditional GRI are likely to invest more time and energy in the work domain (Eagly, 1987; Pleck, 1977). These fathers are likely to develop a strong work identity compared to egalitarian Hindu fathers. Hindu fathers with a traditional GRI could perceive that work responsibilities might interfere with family obligations and duties (Chaudhary, 2013).

To explain the non-significant findings of this research, the concept of the bicultural self can be used. The bicultural self describes the effects that culture has on an individual's self-conceptualisations (Lu, 2007; 2008; 2012).The concept of the bicultural self is derived from Markus and Kitayama (1991) research on self-construals, which consists of the independent and interdependent self-construal. The independent self-construal suggests that individuals are orientated towards power, achievement, autonomy, free entity and personal talents (Lu & Yang, 2006). In contrast, the interdependent self-construal emphasises that individuals are fluid, flexible, connected and committed to others (Lu, Kao, Chang, Wu, & Jin, 2008). Lu (2003) argued that people living in pluralistic societies are likely to develop value systems consisting of both the independent and interdependent self (Lu, 2003). This phenomenon can be attributed to various economic, institutional, legal and social factors that could impact on how an individual experiences the work and family domain (Joplin et al.,

2003;Shaffer, Hsu, & Joplin, 2011). Olson, Huffman, Leiva, and Culbertson (2013) argued that exposure to these various factors would likely change the identity of an individual.

It is likely that Hindu fathers in SA would come into contact with various cultural and structural factors in their corporate work environment (e.g. freedom of speech, individualism, and policies based on the gender equal SA constitution) (Maharaj, 2013). As Hindu fathers in SA interact with their work environment, they may realise how their identity as an employee in the workplace may be different to their identity as a Hindu male in the family domain (Burke & Stets, 2009; Turner & Tajfel, 1986). Western values that are promoted in South African corporate organisations are markedly different to the traditional cultural values, beliefs and practices of Hinduism (Maharaj, 2013).Hindu fathers in SA are likely to be socialised in accordance with Western ideologies, beliefs and practices in their work environment. As a result of exposure to Western value systems, Hindu fathers in SA are likely to develop an independent self-construal. If Hindu fathers in SA want to achieve meaningful relationships with people at work, they would need to behave in accordance with situational demands and social expectations (Lu & Yang, 2006). In order to achieve this, Hindu fathers in SA would need to integrate their self-construals (independent and interdependent) with their social environment to create coherence and meaning in their functioning.

In this research, neither GRI nor family hierarchy orientation were significant moderators of the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support and WFC. Both, GRI and family hierarchy orientation are important cultural values that are developed in the Hindu family system. It could be speculated that GRI and hierarchy orientation might affect relationships in the family domain rather than in the work domain. At work, Hindu fathers in SA need to adapt their behaviour in accordance with the norms and values of the workplace. Hence, they would likely display behaviours which are characteristic of the independent self-construal. It could be speculated that whilst GRI and family hierarchy orientation may be important cultural values in the Hindu culture, Hindu fathers in SA may not transfer these cultural values into the workplace.

Contributions of the study

This research adds to the existing knowledge of work-family research by examining work-family conflict among Hindu fathers in South Africa. Additionally, this research extends on current work-family research by examining the moderating role of traditional Hindu cultural values in the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support and

WFC. In doing so, this research makes several practical contributions which are discussed below.

Practical implications for management

In South Africa, organisations face a unique challenge of rectifying the past injustices of Apartheid, by giving opportunities for previously disadvantaged groups to participate in the economy (Denton & Vloeberghs, 2003). This research has implications for organisations in South Africa that want to attract and retain a culturally diverse workforce. Specifically, human resource (HR) practitioners could use the findings of this research to design and implement policies that account for diversity within the workforce (Olson et al., 2013). Specific practical implications are discussed below.

Minimising work role overload. The findings from this research indicated that work role overload was a strong predictor of WFC for Hindu fathers in SA. Increased feelings of role overload amongst employees negatively impacts the organisation's bottom line, increases employee turnover and reduces organisational effectiveness (Malik et al., 2013). Therefore, HR practitioners should concentrate resources in order to alleviate feelings of overload among employees in the workplace. For example, HR practitioners could empirically assess the levels of role overload among the workforce by surveying employees (Gryna, 2004). Employees that are currently experiencing role overload or are at risk of role overload can be identified and, subsequently be referred to employee assistance programmes (EAPs). EAPs would provide support for employees experiencing work role overload by providing them with training to better manage role pressures at work. (Yu et al., 2010).

Working arrangements could also be designed in such a way that enhances organisational commitment, improves the well-being of employees and reduces work role overload. Job crafting can be used to refine the scope of the employees work responsibilities and alter working arrangements so that feelings of role overload can be reduced (Solberg & Wong, 2016).This intervention could also enable employees from various cultural backgrounds to manage family responsibilities and other obligations in their personal life (Solberg & Wong, 2016). For example, organisations could implement flexible working arrangements that would give Hindu fathers greater flexibility and autonomy to manage demands from the work and family domain (Demerouti, 2014).

Enhancing co-worker support. This research suggested that support from co-workers rather than from supervisors is an important resource for Hindu fathers in reducing their W2FC. Accordingly, organisations in South Africa should promote co-worker support in order to alleviate feelings of W2FC for Hindu fathers. This is particularly important as

Hindu fathers are socialised according to a high degree of hierarchy orientation and therefore would feel more comfortable from drawing on support from their colleagues. Enhancing co-worker support would not only ensure that Hindu fathers feel a sense of belonging at work, but would also allow organisations to retain a diverse workforce (Flores-Araoz & Furphy, 2012). Co-worker support can be encouraged by designing work around teams, developing peer mentor systems and promote social networking functions which allow employees to engage in informal gatherings outside of work hours (Lopez-Rocha, 2006).

Diversity training for managers and co-workers. South Africa is considered to be a culturally plural society that consists of various diverse cultural groups that reside together within a shared political and social framework (Human, 1996). For this reason, managers and co-workers need to be aware of the different cultural beliefs and traditions that are practiced in SA. The findings of this research indicated that neither supervisor support nor co-worker support were negative predictors of F2WC for Hindu fathers in SA.

Diversity training for managers and co-workers can used to increase awareness of different cultural values and beliefs in the workplace. Diversity training comprises of a range of activities aimed at improving an individual's self-awareness, understanding and tolerance of people from different cultural, economic, and societal backgrounds (Horwitz, Falconer, & Searll, 1996). A lack of understanding of cultural and other differences may lead to poor working relations, underperformance, discrimination and high employee turnover (Horwitz et al., 1996; Human, 1996). Diversity training should be included as part of an organisation's human resource strategy to ensure that all employees feel included, valued and motivated in the workplace (Human, 1996).

Diversity training could increase manager's awareness of cultural differences within the workforce and allow them to adopt their leadership style according to the employee's cultural orientation (Kirkman et al., 2009). Managers should not assume that an employee will possess a specific trait because the employee belongs to a specific cultural group (Olson et al., 2013). Managers and HR practitioners can ascertain an employee's cultural affiliation during interview questions and assessments during the recruitment process (Paluck, 2006). In doing so, managers and HR practitioners would be able to identify and accommodate the cultural specific needs of an employee in order to support the individual in managing their work-family interface.

Limitations and suggestions for future research

This research extends on previous work-family literature by examining work-family conflict in a unique cultural context among Hindu fathers in SA. The findings from this study

could have practical implications for managers and HR practitioners. However, several limitations of this research are acknowledged and discussed below. Recommendations for future research are also presented.

A limitation associated with secondary data concerns the validity of the dataset that is used (Allum & Arber, 2008). Specifically, the researcher has no control over certain design features of the research such as type of scales used, the sampling techniques used, and the obtained sample size (Donnellan & Lucas, 2013). For instance, the obtained data in the dataset was collected with the primary objective of investigating WFC among Hindu working women in SA, thereby limiting the sample size for this research. As a result, only 183 Hindu fathers were identified in the dataset. The small sample size did not allow for sophisticated statistical procedures (e.g., structural equation modelling) to be performed.

Secondary cross-sectional survey data was used to investigate WFC among Hindu fathers in SA at single point in time. This research design does not allow for causal relationships between the study's variables to be determined, neither does it allow for time lag effects to be established (Hair et al., 2010). However, the aim of this research was to determine the relationships between work role overload, work support, traditional cultural values and WFC, rather than to establish causal relationships and time lag effects. It is suggested that future researchers should adopt a longitudinal research design in order to evaluate the various antecedents that explain WFC for Hindu fathers in SA (Hair et al., 2010). However, future researchers should take into consideration the recommendation by Aryee et al. (2005), who suggested that a longitudinal design is only useful when the time lag for the relationships between variables is known.

In the work-family field, majority of research has indicated that several work-related stressors (e.g., role ambiguity, role conflict, role involvement) and work resources (e.g., job autonomy) are considered to be important antecedents to WFC (Bryon, 2005; Chang & Lu, 2011; Michel et al., 2011). Furthermore, several authors (e.g., Hofstede, 1980; Kumar, 2000) have indicated that the Indian society is considered to be highly collectivistic. Collectivism has also been cited as prominent cultural variable in work-family relationships (c.f., Billing et al., 2014; Triandis, 1995). Therefore, future research should consider developing and testing conceptual models that include other work-related stressors, work-related resources and the cultural value of collectivism to determine the effect that these variables have on the work-family relationships of Hindu fathers in SA.

The findings from this research indicated that neither family hierarchy orientation nor GRI moderated the WFC relationships for Hindu fathers in SA. Future researchers should

consider adopting an exploratory model to determine how the various macro factors (e.g., social and legal) within South Africa's environment shape the work-family experiences of individuals from different cultural groups. For example, future researchers could consider exploring the role that the post democratic legislative framework (i.e., Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998 and affirmative action policies) plays in shaping the work-family experiences of Hindu parents in South Africa.

Lastly, this research focused on the negative aspect of the interplay between the work and family roles. However, in the last two decades there has been a shift in research and practice towards the positive psychology paradigm. The other dominant perspective in the work-family interface is termed work-family enrichment (WFE). WFC and WFE are considered to be conceptually distinct and orthogonal constructs (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006). Future researchers should consider adopting the proposed conceptual model in this research to investigate if work stressors, work support and traditional Hindu cultural values contribute to WFE for Hindu fathers in SA.

Conclusion

In the post-democracy period in South Africa, there have been significant social, political and economic changes. Despite this, the Hindu population in SA continues to practice the traditional ideologies of Hinduism (Kumar, 2012). There are notable differences between the Hindu culture and the broader Western culture in SA. As a result, Hindu fathers in South Africa are faced with new challenges in managing their work and family responsibilities (Maharaj, 2013).

This research extends on previous work-family literature by examining work-family conflict in a unique cultural context among Hindu fathers in South Africa. Additionally, various authors (e.g., Annor, 2016; Lu, 2012; Powell et al., 2009) have indicated the need for work-family researchers to investigate the role of cultural values in the work-family interface. Hence, this research has responded to repeated calls to investigate WFC in unique cultural contexts, by examining the role of traditional Hindu cultural values (GRI and family hierarchy orientation) in the work-family relationships of Hindu fathers in SA.

The results of this research found support for work role overload as a significant predictor of WFC for Hindu fathers in SA. Co-worker support was found to be a significant negative predictor of W2FC but not F2WC. The evidence of this research indicated that supervisor support was not a significant predictor of W2FC or F2WC. Moreover, this research found no support for the moderating role of traditional Hindu cultural values in the relationships between work role overload, supervisor support and WFC.

Finally, the findings of this research have practical implications for organisations in South Africa that want to attract and retain a diverse workforce. By recognising the cultural values that are salient to particular employees, managers are able to create a work environment in which employees from different cultural backgrounds feel valued and motivated (Horwitz et al., 1996). In doing so, organisations are able to cultivate a corporate culture that is tolerant of diverse cultural beliefs, reduce the incidents of discrimination at work and, subsequently improve organisational effectiveness (Horwitz et al., 1996).

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Appendices

Appendix A: Ethics approval letter

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN

FACULTY OF COMMERCE

Igniting Knowledge and Opportunity

Ethics Approval Request for the Study entitled:

Work-family conflict among Hindu fathers in South Africa

Signed by:

	Full name and signature	Date
Principal Researcher/Student:	signature removed	13/06/16.

This application is approved by:

Supervisor	signature removed	20/6/2016
Co- Supervisor	signature removed	20/6/2016

Approved signature removed 24.07.2016

Prof U Rivett, Chair, Ethics in Research Committee,
Commerce Faculty, UCT

Com Ethics_V4

Appendix B: Boxplot

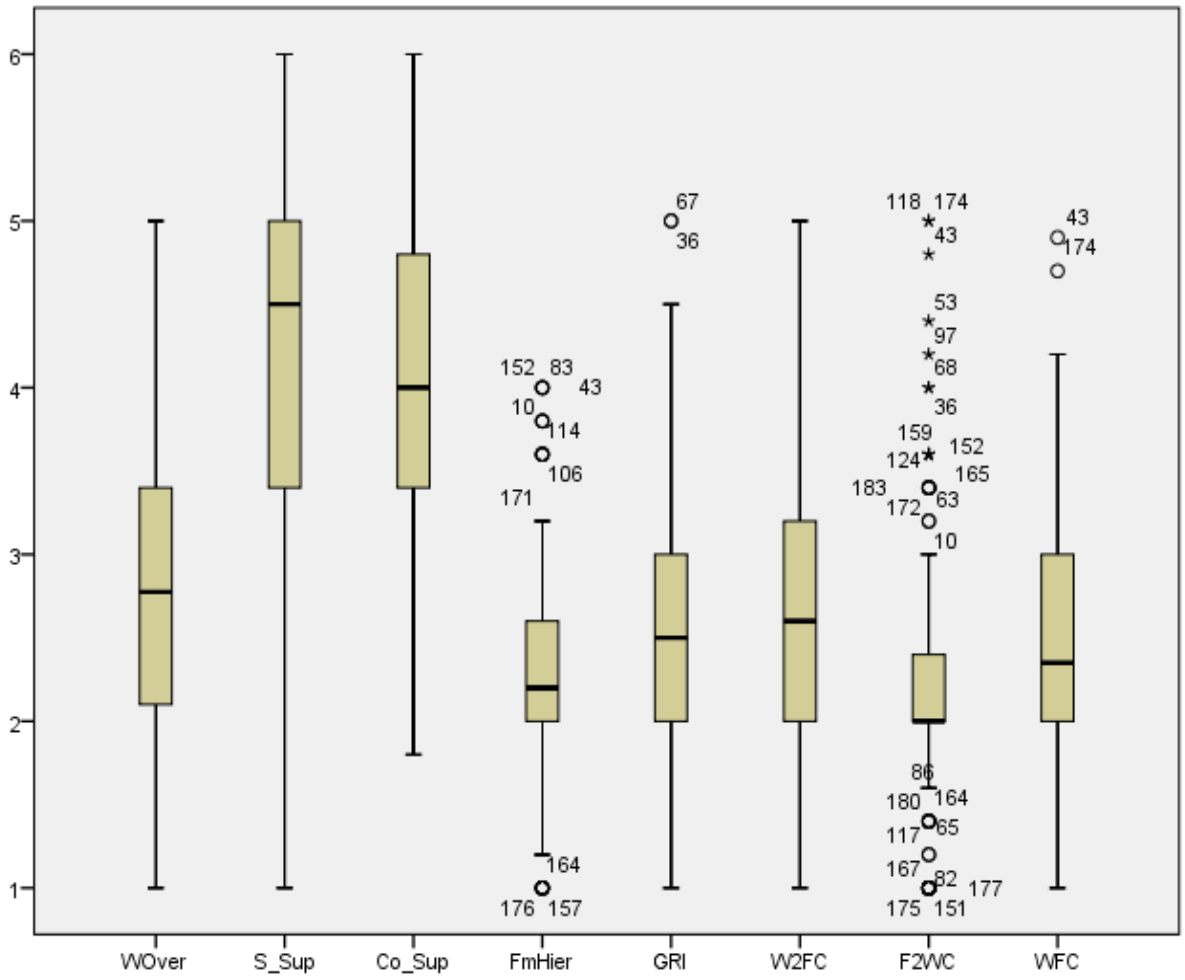

Figure B1. Boxplot of the variables in the study

Appendix C: Pearson *r* correlation analysis

Table C1.
Inter-correlations and Reliabilities of Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.Age	-											
2.Org tenure	**.536****	-										
3.Num of children	**.387****	.139	-									
4.ChildU6	**-.541****	**-.315****	**-.245****	-								
5.Child_home	**-.436****	**-.187***	-.015	**.175***	-							
6.WOver	-.133	-.069	-.029	.109	.041	(.840)						
7.S_Sup	.089	.030	.021	-.002	-.081	**-.319****	(.959)					
8.Co_Sup	.040	.072	.052	-.034	.001	**-.162***	**.442****	(.893)				
9.FmHier	-.023	-.006	-.080	.124	-.036	**.183***	-.099	-.139	(.792)			
10.GRI	**.157***	.099	.144	-.023	-.125	.027	-.014	**-.171***	**.382****	(.775)		
11.W2FC	-.134	-.117	.073	**.164***	.061	**.542****	**-.242****	**-.284****	**.236****	**.191****	(.933)	
12.F2WC	**-.200****	-.118	-.082	**.273****	.020	**.358****	-.080	-.055	**.179***	**.156***	**.515****	(.940)

Notes. Values are Pearson correlation coefficients. Scale internal consistencies (Cronbach alpha) are in parentheses on the diagonal. Sample size ranging from N = 177 to N = 183 (pairwise deletion of missing data). **. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).Bold faced values indicate significant correlations. ChildU6= children 6 years or younger; Child_home = children living at home; WOver = work role overload; S_Sup = supervisor support; Co_Sup = co-worker support; FmHier = family hierarchy; GRI = gender role ideology: low scores indicate egalitarian GRI, high scores indicate traditional GRI; W2FC = work-to-family conflict; F2WC = family-to-work conflict

Appendix D: Spearman rank correlation analysis

Table D1.

Spearman Rank Correlation: Inter-correlations and Reliabilities of Study Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.Age	-											
2.Org tenure	**.496****	-										
3.Num of children	**.391****	.135	-									
4.ChildU6	**-.557****	**-.311****	**-.255****	-								
5.Child_home	**-.424****	**-.166***	.002	**.175***	-							
6.WOver	-.125	-.059	-.029	.107	.022	(.840)						
7.S_Sup	.083	.017	.012	-.009	-.092	**-.305****	(.959)					
8.Co_Sup	.038	.086	.073	-.025	.029	-.124	**.439****	(.893)				
9.FmHier	-.011	-.020	-.079	.098	-.026	**.181***	-.084	-.140	(.792)			
10.GRI	.116	.072	**.156***	.005	-.084	.052	-.016	**-.180***	**.389****	(.775)		
11.W2FC	-.099	-.087	.073	**.177***	.051	**.534****	**-.259****	**-.262****	**.210****	**.201****	(.933)	
12.F2WC	**-.223****	-.117	-.092	**.248****	.043	**.309****	-.087	-.055	.135	.122	**.521****	(.940)

Notes. Values are Spearman Rank correlation coefficients. Scale internal consistencies (Cronbach alpha) are in parentheses on the diagonal. Sample size ranging from N = 177 to N = 183 (pairwise deletion of missing data). **. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).Bold faced values indicate significant correlations. ChildU6= children 6 years or younger; Child_home = children living at home; WOver = work role overload; S_Sup = supervisor support; Co_Sup = co-worker support; FmHier = family hierarchy; GRI = gender role ideology: low scores indicate egalitarian GRI, high scores indicate traditional GRI; W2FC = work-to-family conflict; F2WC = family-to-work conflict

Appendix E: Initial EFA of cultural scales

Table E1.

Cultural Scales: Family Hierarchy Orientation and Gender Role Ideology

	Factor			Communalities
	1	2	3	
FM_HIER3	**.777**	.067	.063	.613
FM_HIER1	**.759**	.152	.153	.623
FM_HIER5	**.662**	.244	.015	.498
FM_HIER2	**.572**	.133	-.011	.345
FM_HIER4	**.545**	.148	.111	.331
GRI2	.290	**.754**	-.004	.652
GRI4	.048	**.645**	.212	.464
GRI6	.211	**.626**	.126	.452
GRI1	.142	**.625**	.082	.418
GRI3	.080	.055	**.779**	.617
GRI5	.070	.239	**.373**	.201
Eigenvalues	3.310	1.204	.699	
Individual total variance (%)	30.095	10.945	6.352	
Cumulative total variance (%)	30.095	41.040	47.393	

Notes. N = 181 after listwise deletion of missing data; Principal factor analysis with Varimax normalised data; Each items' significance loadings are presented in bold face; FmHier = family hierarchy; GRI = gender role ideology.

Appendix F: EFA of gender role ideology scale

Table F1.

Gender Role Ideology Scale

		Factor		Communalities
		1	2	
GRI2	A husband should earn more money than his wife.	**.771**	-.259	.662
GRI6	Even if the wife works, the husband should be the main breadwinner and the wife should carry the main responsibility for the home and children.	**.667**	-.080	.451
GRI4	A woman whose husband can support her should not work.	**.661**	.009	.437
GRI1	A woman's most important task in life should be taking care of her children.	**.629**	-.114	.409
GRI5	A working mother can have just as good a relationship with her children as a mother who does not work.	**.352**	.268	.196
GRI3	It should not bother a husband if his wife's job sometimes requires her to be away from home overnight.	.312	**.719**	.615
Eigenvalues		2.094	.676	
Individual total variance (%)		34.90	11.26	
Cumulative total variance (%)		34.90	46.16	

Notes. N = 182 after listwise deletion of missing data; Principal factor analysis with Varimax normalised data; Each items' significance loadings are presented in bold face; GRI = gender role ideology.

Appendix G: Corrected item-total correlations for all scales

Table G1.

Corrected Item-Total Correlations for Each Scale

Scale	Min. corrected item-total correlation	Max. corrected item-total correlation
Work role overload	.588	.749
Supervisor support	.816	.929
Co-worker support	.601	.833
Family hierarchy orientation	.501	.669
Gender role ideology	.588	.748
Work-to-family conflict	.774	.852
Family-to-work conflict	.810	.889

Appendix H: P-Plots of regression standardised residuals

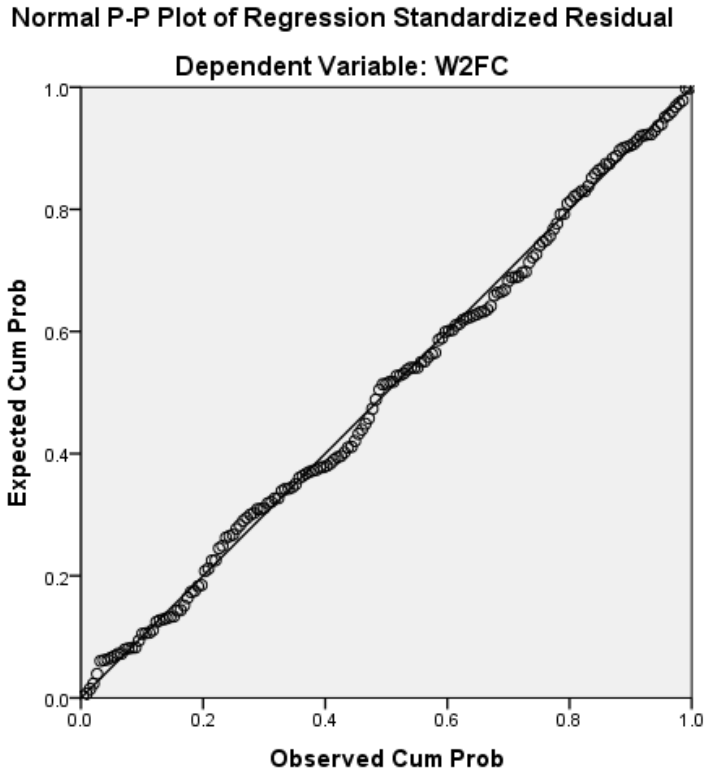

Figure H1. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis: Work role overload and work support as predictors of W2FC

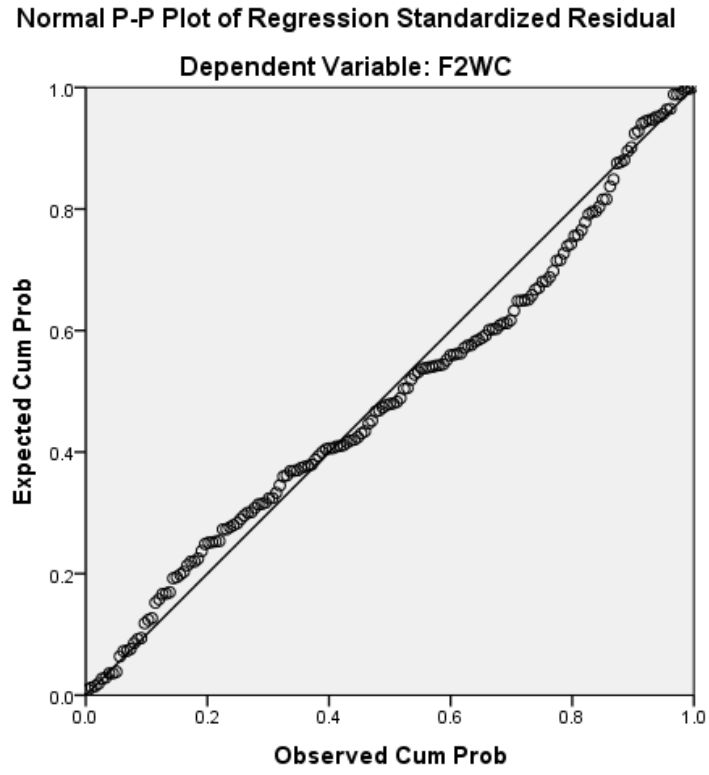

Figure H2.Hierarchical multiple regression analysis: Work role overload and work support as predictors of F2WC

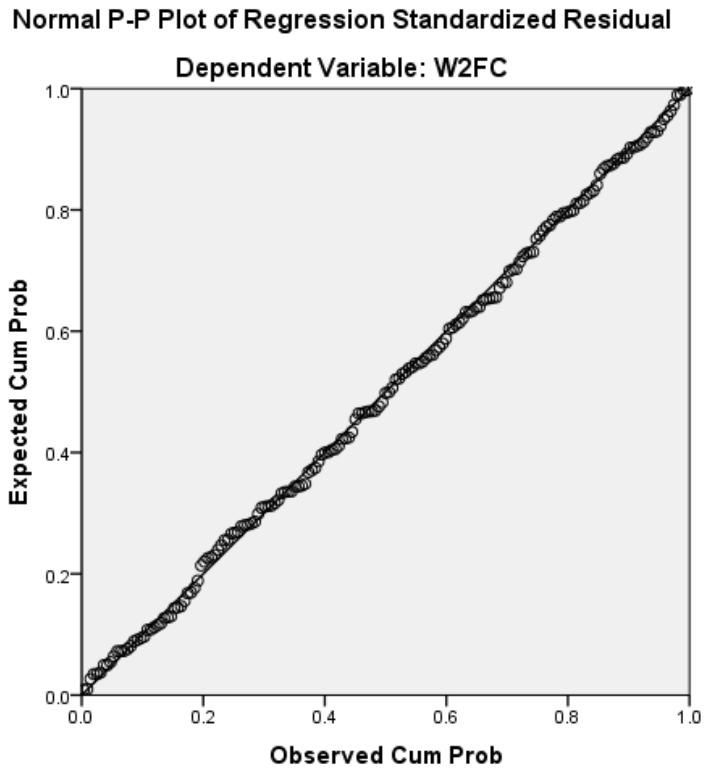

Figure H3. Moderated hierarchical regression analysis: Work role overload, supervisor support and cultural values predicting W2FC

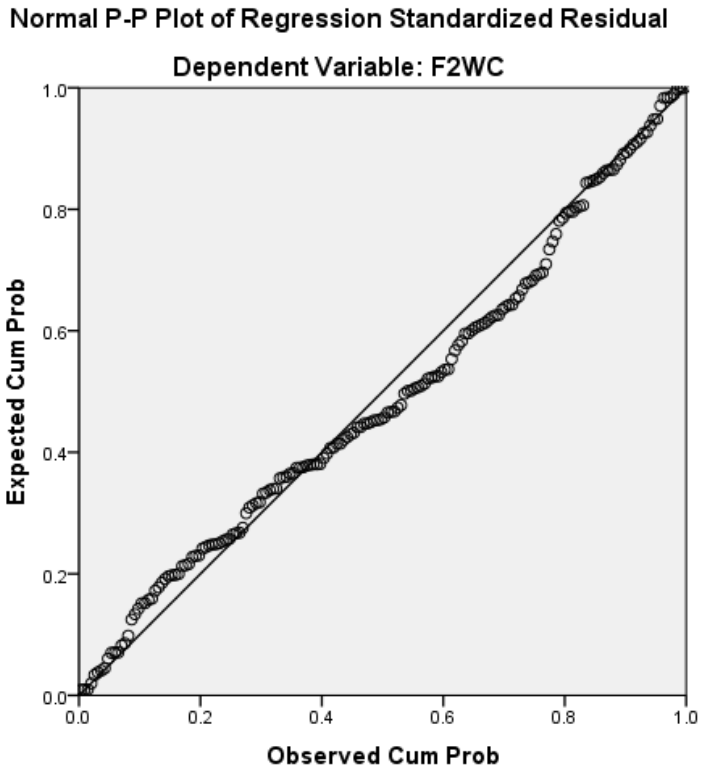

Figure H4. Moderated hierarchical regression analysis: Work role overload, supervisor support and cultural values predicting F2WC

Appendix I: Scatterplots

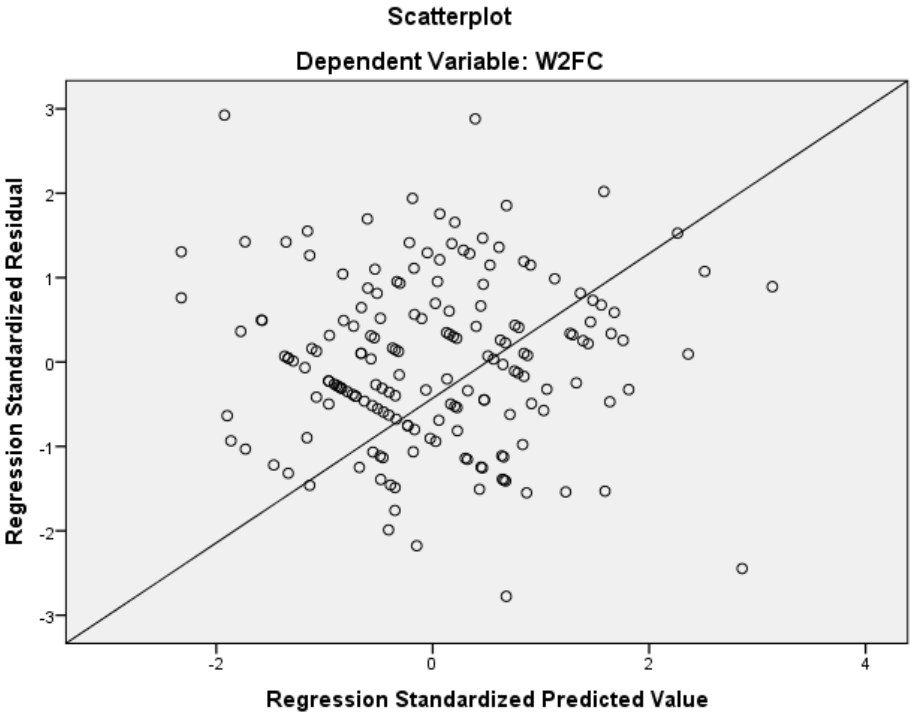

Figure I1. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis: Work role overload and work support as predictors of W2FC

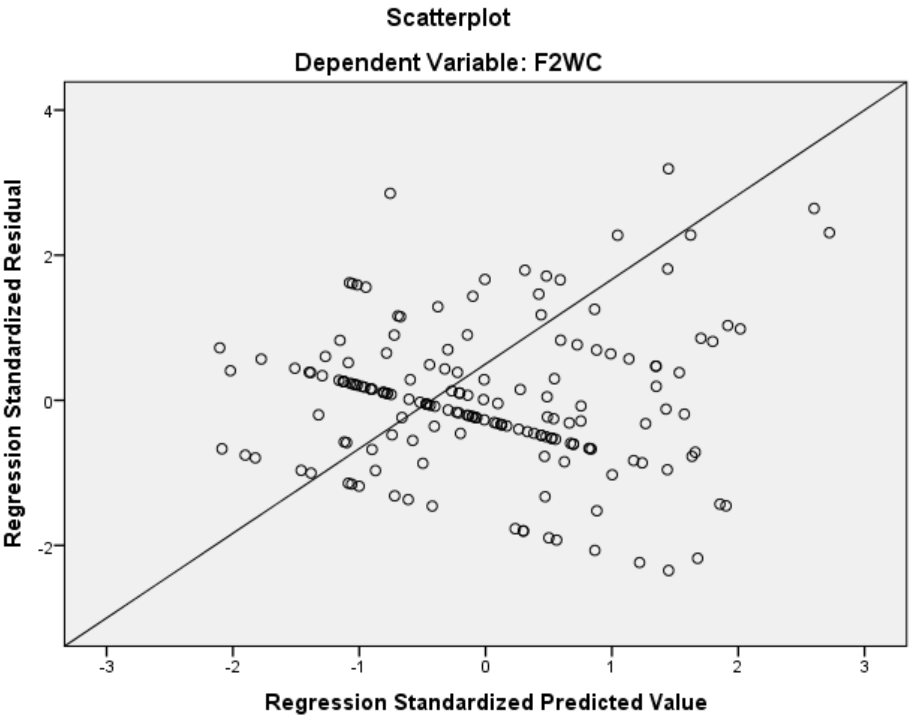

Figure I2. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis: Work role overload and work support as predictors of F2WC

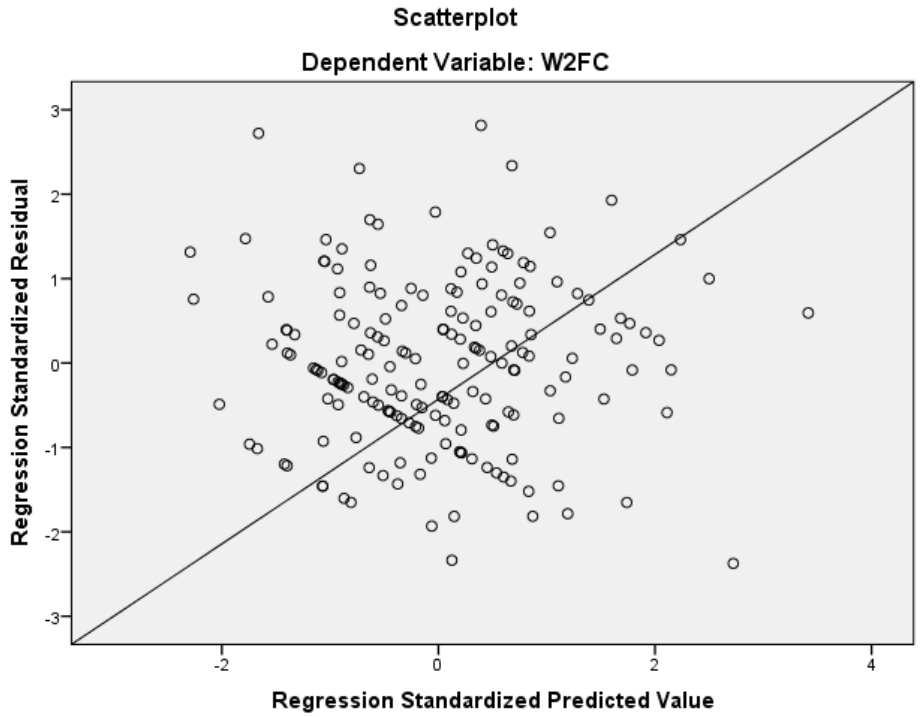

Figure I3. Moderated hierarchical regression analysis: Work role overload, supervisor support and cultural values predicting W2FC

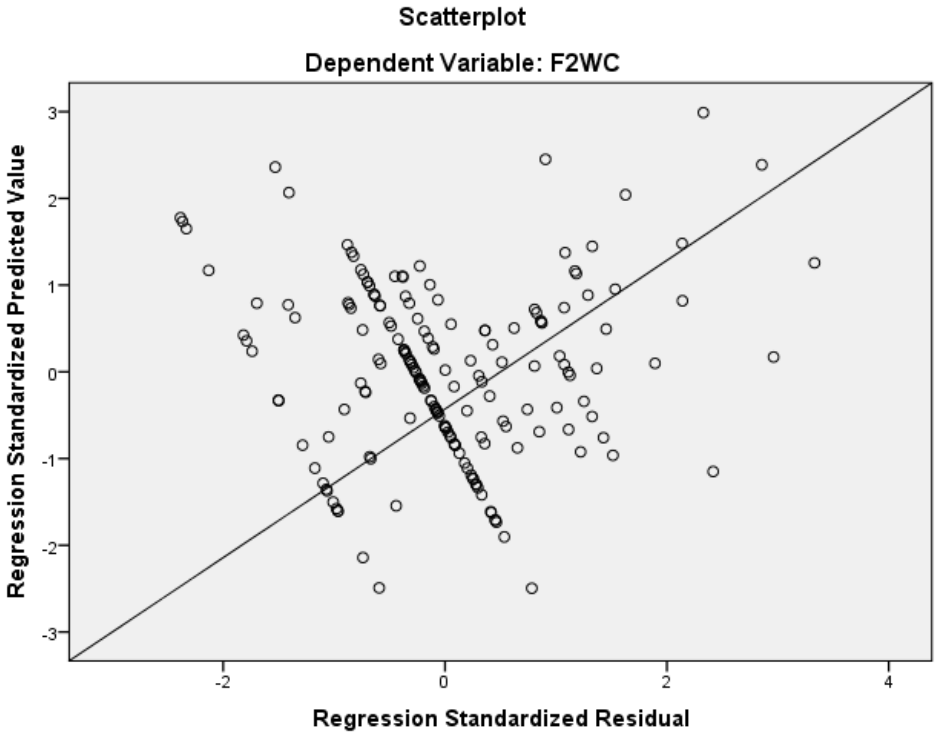

Figure I4. Moderated hierarchical regression analysis: Work role overload, supervisor support and cultural values predicting F2WC