



SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT STUDIES

# THE SUPPORT-BASED FACTORS THAT FACILITATE WORK-FAMILY ENRICHMENT FOR WORKING FATHERS IN SOUTH AFRICA

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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.

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### **Abstract**

Over the past two decades work-family researchers have increasingly explored the benefits of multiple role engagement. Work-family enrichment (WFE) is one construct reflecting the positive interaction between work and family. Yet there is a gap in our understanding of how fathers in South Africa experience WFE and how their organisations and their families can support them in managing their multiple role involvement in a way that enhances their performance in both domains. This study examined three sources of work-based support (top management, supervisor and co-worker) and three sources of family-based support (spousal, extended family and paid domestic helpers) in relation to work-to-family and family-to-work enrichment. Working fathers in South African organisations responded to a self-report survey ( $N = 229$ ). Exploratory factor analysis revealed that WFE is a uni-dimensional construct, contrary to expectations. Multiple regression analysis showed that co-worker and spousal support were statistically significant predictors of WFE. Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach was used to test the mediational effect of opportunities for professional development (OPD) on the relationship between work support (supervisor and co-worker) and WFE; however, OPD was not a significant mediator. Suggestions for future research are discussed in addition to theoretical and managerial implications associated with this study.

*Key words:* Work-family enrichment, social support, opportunities for professional development, working fathers, South Africa.

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## SUPPORT-BASED FACTORS THAT FACILITATE WORK-FAMILY ENRICHMENT

Research concerning the work-family interface has focussed primarily on female populations, perhaps due to the exponential increase in women entering the global and South African workforce over the past two decades (Donald & Linington, 2008; Maja & Nakanyane, n.d; Statistics South Africa, 2013). While the increase in female employees must be acknowledged, the 2014 South African labour force statistics indicate that twice as many males as females are employed on a fulltime basis (Statistics South Africa, 2014b). However, although men appear to be maintaining the breadwinner role (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010), Smit (2002) has established that South African fathers are beginning to adopt a non-traditional gender role orientation as their values and beliefs concerning fatherhood change. This indicates a shift towards a dual-earner dual-carer society. Although there appears to be increased interest in exploring the experiences of modern fathers, research on this topic in southern Africa is still scarce (Chikovore, Makusha, & Richter, 2013). There is therefore a need for Industrial Psychology theorists and practitioners to develop a thorough understanding of the ways in which social support can contribute towards the work-family enrichment (WFE) process by helping working fathers to manage their multiple role involvement effectively and thus experience enhanced quality of life in all domains (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

The demands of an increasingly knowledge-intensive, competitive and dynamic work environment necessitate that organisations pay more attention to addressing the needs of their employees. As South African organisations strive to attract and retain “talent” in response to the shortage of specialised skills, there is growing appreciation of the need to be proactive in helping employees to manage the demands associated with multiple life roles (Flores-Araoz & Furphy, 2012). In a survey conducted by Accenture, Visser (2013) found that 67% of South African professionals would refuse a job offer if the demands of the job in question threatened to impact adversely upon their current work-life balance. Other research has indicated that employees are more likely to leave their current employer if they feel that they are not receiving sufficient support in managing their work-family needs (Leschyshyn & Minnotte, 2014; Schulte, 2014). Organisations may therefore improve their employer brand image by acknowledging the contemporary needs of employed parents and developing corresponding talent engagement and retention initiatives. Consequently, work-family support may be used as a strategic human resource management tool in order to leverage a competitive advantage in terms of their staff (Flores-Araoz & Furphy, 2012; Mishra, Gupta, & Bhatnager, 2014; Schulte, 2014).

Organisations are thus having to pay more attention to employees' dual-role needs (as both parent and worker) as changes occur both in the structure of the workforce and in existing gender role ideologies (Cheung & Wong, 2013; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005; Francis, 2012; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The traditional family structure in which a male assumes the breadwinner role and a female adopts the homemaker role, has taken on a more egalitarian perspective, with many fathers adopting more household responsibilities and mothers undertaking increased work duties (Cheung & Wong, 2013; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004; Stevens, Minnotte, Mannon, & Kiger, 2007; Warner & Hausdorf, 2007). Moreover, it has been suggested that in our contemporary society there is an expectation for fathers to display more affection, understanding and supportiveness (Kumari, 2008). Individuals who subscribe to an egalitarian view perceive fathers who adopt the role of primary caregiver in a more positive light than fathers who opt for the more traditional role of principal breadwinner (Gaunt, 2013). Furthermore, fathers are taking on the role of friend and mentor to their children (Sriram, 2011). The change in values is further reflected as working fathers proactively spend time engaging in childcare (Enderstein & Boonzaier, 2013; Hoyman & Duer, 2004; Wadsworth & Owens, 2007). This general shift in fatherhood values has been referred to as "one of the most significant social developments of the 21<sup>st</sup> century" (Schulte, 2014, p. 1).

In response to the changing roles of employed parents, progressive organisations are offering formal and informal types of support. This support seeks not only to restructure work so as to avoid strain related to multiple role involvement, but also to do so in a manner that facilitates enhanced quality of life for employed parents. This process is referred to as work-family enrichment (WFE) (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). WFE is beneficial to employers because it is related to enhanced job performance and other positive individual and organisational outcomes (Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005; Bhargava & Baral, 2009; McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010). Mauno and Rantanen (2013) have suggested that the antecedents of WFE have not yet been sufficiently empirically investigated; however, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) as well as Schein and Chen (2011) have developed widely-used theoretical frameworks for WFE. Understanding the predictors of WFE will assist in addressing the needs of working fathers who are spending more time engaging in the family domain, whilst simultaneously continuing to adopt the primary breadwinner role (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010).

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This is especially so in South African organisations, whose managerial-level employees are still primarily male (Maithani, Misra, Potnis, & Bhuwania, 2012; O’Neil, Hopkins, & Bilimoria, 2008; Smit, 2002; Statistics South Africa, 2014b).

It is not surprising that increased fatherhood involvement is a topic that is gaining attention in South Africa. In 2014, South African fathers engaged in social and governmental lobbying in an attempt to gain ten days’ legalised paternity leave (Jackman, 2014). Fathers believe that the three days of family responsibility leave that the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (South African Department of Labour, 2004) allows to them in the case of a significant life event, including (but not limited to) the birth of a child, is not sufficient. Whilst legislation that recognises fathers’ rights to paternity leave has not yet been enacted, the door is open for progressive organisations to distinguish themselves as employers of choice by offering fathers increased work-family support.

Many South African organisations have attempted to improve their employee value proposition to attract and retain talent by offering formal work-family support provisions, such as flexible work practices (Grobler & De Bruyn, 2011; Lloyd-Walker, Lingard, & Walker, 2008.). Whilst these initiatives may be perceived favourably at first glance, closer examination of their provisions reveals that employers are often not as supportive as they appear to be. For example, findings from a qualitative study conducted by Mescher, Benschop and Dooreward (2010) indicated that when an employer offers extended opening hours for its on-site childcare facilities, the message implied is not that the organisation wants to encourage WFE; instead, the underlying message subtly informs employed parents that they are expected to work overtime. It is therefore not surprising that informal support, including social support, has been found to be more valuable than formal support initiatives in promoting multiple role involvement (Behson, 2005; Wayne, Randel, & Stevens, 2006). One of the reasons for this finding is that employees, particularly men, are less likely to utilise formal support if they feel that they do not receive informal support in the form of a family-friendly organisational culture marked by supportive relationships with various parties within the organisation (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; Dikkers, Geurts, Dulk, Peper, & Taris, & Kompier, 2007).

Social support is an informal means of support that can be extended to employed fathers in both the workplace and at home. Social support has been identified in the work-

family literature as a key resource (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Mostert, Peeters, & Rost, 2011; Schein & Chen, 2011). Most notably, social support which originates in either the home or work domain has been found to expand an individual's resources through skill acquisition and positive affect which, in turn, facilitates the WFE process (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Schein & Chen, 2011). Individuals may thus experience enhanced performance in their role as a parent as well as an employee.

Individuals may receive social support in different ways and from different sources. It has, however, been suggested that the source is more important than the form when it comes to receiving social support (Lu, Siu, Spector, & Shi, 2009). Lu et al. (2009) explained that the combination of different sources of support has distinct beneficial effects for multiple role involvement. Unlike much of the existing literature, the present study examines several sources of social support, which allows the researcher to better explore the extent to which distinct forms of social support contribute towards WFE for working fathers in South Africa (Ducharme & Martin, 2005).

In the workplace, the three most prominent sources of social support for employees are supervisors, top management and co-workers. These three sources of work-based support may offer employed fathers support in a variety of ways, such as providing them with empathic understanding or allowing them time off to attend to family-related duties (Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011; Lapierre & Allen, 2006). In addition to direct support, supervisors and top management may also indirectly support employed fathers by offering and encouraging them to participate in opportunities for professional development (OPD). OPD, in turn, contributes towards the WFE process through enhanced self-esteem and learned abilities (Molino, Ghislieri, & Cortese, 2013). The role of OPD as a mediator should be further explored to determine whether or not it acts as a supplementary source of support that adds to the relationship between work-based social support and WFE. The significance of work-based social support is corroborated by Wayne, Grzywacz, Carlson and Kacmar's (2007) recommendation that OPD, supervisory support and co-worker support are elements of the work environment that can be altered by management in order to promote a positive work-family interface.

Just as various work-based sources of social support have been associated with WFE for employed parents, the family domain also offers several forms of social support which

could enhance WFE. Spousal support can be considered the most valuable form of family-based support, partly because males are more likely than females to have an unemployed spouse who can attend solely to the family domain (Wadsworth & Owens, 2007). This explanation is also related to the proposal that working fathers are more likely to benefit from family-based sources of support than working mothers, thus indicating the importance of family-based support (Wallace & Young, 2008). In addition to spousal support, extended family members as well as paid domestic help offer support that is useful in managing multiple role demands (Aryee et al., 2005; Griggs, Casper, & Eby, 2013). Paid domestic help is particularly relevant in South Africa as it is an affordable and common form of support for working parents (Thieme, 2011).

### **Research Aims**

The aim of this study is to address a gap in knowledge concerning the support-based antecedents of WFE for working fathers in South Africa. Specifically, this research aims to enhance existing theoretical knowledge concerning social support, by examining several distinct sources of social support. In doing so, it will be possible to determine the relative significance of each source of social support in explaining WFE (Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Siu et al., 2013). Additionally, this study seeks to determine whether or not opportunities for professional development (OPD) mediate the relationship between supervisor and co-worker support and WFE.

### **Research Questions**

To what extent do distinct forms of work (top management, supervisor and co-worker) and family (spousal, extended family and paid domestic) social support relate to WFE for working fathers in South Africa?

In addition, the following sub-question is presented: does OPD mediate the relationship between supervisor and co-worker support and WFE for working fathers?

## **Structure of the Dissertation**

The information presented above serves as an introduction to the present study and provides an outline of the research objectives of this study. The following section provides an in-depth review of the relevant existing research, including a theoretical framework of WFE and an analysis of its proposed support-based antecedents. The propositions put forward by this study conclude the literature review. The method section describes the approach used to collect data and the relevant scales, data analysis techniques and sample-relevant information that are necessary to replicate this study. Following this, the results section outlines the analysis of the data and presents the results of the statistical testing phase. A concluding discussion relates the findings of this study to existing literature and details the limitations of the study as well as implications for future research and practice.

## **Literature Review**

The literature review begins with the presentation of the theoretical framework used to represent the work-family interface for this study. The framework that has been selected emphasises the positive work-family interface, specifically work-family enrichment (WFE). WFE is then defined and discussed. Following this, a detailed review explores the literature on the relationship between WFE and work- and family-based sources of social support that are relevant to working fathers. Opportunities for professional development (OPD) are examined as an additional source of support in relation to supervisor and co-worker support and WFE. The literature review concludes with the presentation of the propositions that are to be tested in this study.

## **Theoretical Framework**

**The work-family interface.** As the nature and structure of the workforce and household changes, it is necessary to adapt and develop theory relating to the work-family interface. A particularly relevant shift in our knowledge concerning the work-family interface pertains to role perspectives. The two dominant perspectives concerning the work-family interface have been the scarcity and accumulation perspectives. The scarcity perspective highlights the potential for strain and stress related to multiple role involvement, whereas the

role accumulation perspective emphasises the enhanced quality of life associated with multiple role involvement (Goode, 1960; Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974). The trend in research over the past few years has been to focus not only on the negative side of the work-family interface but also on its positive side, which is founded on role accumulation theory (Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974).

In the last two decades there has been a shift in research and practice towards positive psychology. The positive psychology movement has challenged the traditional negative and pathological perspective of human behaviour and health and posited that it is important to acknowledge and focus on individuals' strengths and positive attributes (Linley, Joseph, Harrington, & Wood, 2006; Luthans, 2002). The positive organisational behaviour movement, which follows on from positive psychology, is focused on employees' strengths and psychological capabilities that can be used to enhance organisational performance (Linley et al., 2006; Luthans, 2002; Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007; Luthans & Church, 2002; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). The positive work-family interface, including the terms *work-family enrichment* (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), *positive spillover* (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), *work-family enhancement* (Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, & King, 2002) and *work-family facilitation* (Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004), was influenced by the positive organisational behaviour and positive psychology movements (Wayne et al., 2006; Zimmerman & Hammer, 2010). In line with the focus of positive psychology research, the present study does not consider role stress theory and work-family conflict. It should be noted that the scarcity hypothesis, which represents the negative effects associated with multiple role involvement, and role accumulation theory, which signifies the positive effects of multiple role involvement, are not mutually exclusive. In this way, an individual may experience effects from both the positive and negative work-family interface simultaneously (Zimmerman & Hammer, 2010).

**Role stress theory.** Research concerning the work-family interface has typically been conducted from a scarcity perspective. The author of the scarcity hypothesis proposed that an individual has a restricted amount of time and energy that can be devoted to their involvement in various roles. Individuals will therefore ultimately experience strain, stress or conflict as a result of the taxing nature of participating in multiple roles. In addition, individuals experience reduced performance in their various roles (Chen & Powell, 2012; Goode, 1960; Warner & Hausdorf, 2007). The notion that individuals thus become depleted

of their resources suggests that multiple role involvement is harmful to both the individual and their role fulfilment (Barnett, 2008; Rothbard, 2001; Ruderman, 2002). Khan, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal (1964) termed this *role conflict*. Work-family conflict is a form of role stress that transpires when an individual perceives that the combination of their roles in the work and family domains are unsuited to their needs in some regard (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

***Role accumulation theory.*** Contrary to role stress theory, Sieber (1974) and Marks (1977) developed theories explaining how engagement in one role may lead to enhanced quality of life and performance in another role. Multiple role involvement is thus experienced as beneficial rather than depleting.

***Enhancement hypothesis.*** WFE is generally viewed through the lens of Sieber's (1974) role accumulation theory, which is useful in predicting why individuals involve themselves in more than one role at a time. Sieber (1974) acknowledged that multiple role participation may create strain; however, he posited that being invested in more than one role may lead to rewards which will prevail over any potential negative outcomes. Sieber (1974) recognised four groupings of rewards that may be generated from multiple role engagement, specifically "role-privileges, overall status security, resources for status enhancement and role performance, and enrichment of the personality and ego" (p. 567). This is referred to as the *role enhancement hypothesis*. With regard to the work and family domains, role accumulation theory provides an explanation for how resources that are generated in an individual's role as an employee may be transferred and applied to their role as a parent and vice versa. As a result the individual is likely to be energized and experience satisfaction as opposed to strain or conflict, thereby experiencing resource generation rather than depletion (American Psychological Association [APA], 2004; Brown & Sumner, 2013; Chen & Powell, 2012; Eby et al., 2005; Marks, 1977; Masuda, McNall, Allen, & Nicklin, 2012; Rothbard, 2001; Ruderman et al., 2002; Sieber, 1974).

***Expansionist hypothesis.*** Marks (1977) proposed that an individual's roles are expandable and can be used to explain why the outcomes associated with multiple role involvement occur. Consistent with the role expansion hypothesis, Ruderman et al. (2002) suggested that resources that are gained in one role may be shared, combined and extended across roles, which leads to increased energy and other beneficial outcomes. It has been



argued that many parents would work out of choice simply because of the psychological benefits associated with working, such as improved self-esteem, confidence, social support and naturally the added income. In this regard, individuals gain pleasure from engaging in multiple roles and this, in turn, leads to increased levels of energy as opposed to strain (Rothbard, 2001). The positive side of the work-family interface thus creates a win-win scenario for employed parents and employers (APA, 2004; Marks, 1977; Ruderman et al., 2002). It must, however, be noted that the salience placed upon a particular role is important as this may bear an influence on the effect of multiple role engagement (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Reid & Hardy, 1999).

**Super's life-span, life-space approach to career development.** Like Sieber (1974) and Marks (1977), Donald Super (1980; 1990) believed that multiple roles can be salient and extensive, meaning that they are "supportive or supplementary" (Super, 1990, p. 2). Super (1980; 1990) developed the Life Career Rainbow, which represents an individual's numerous role careers, their life stages and the antecedents and relationships between roles, otherwise known as a life career. An individual moves through five life stages, namely growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance and decline. The Life Career Rainbow also depicts role salience at various stages which relates to an individual's life-space (Super, 1980; 1990).

According to Super (1990) individuals may participate in nine different roles throughout their life-span. He later refined these to six roles that may be enacted in four different theatres, or spaces. The six roles that Super (1980; 1990) incorporated into his theory include: (i) child (ii) student (iii) leisurite (iv) citizen (v) worker (vi) home-maker. These roles are not linked to a specific sex and may not necessarily occur in a set order. The spaces in which these roles may be enacted are the home, community, school or work domains. Whilst it is acknowledged that multiple role involvement has the potential to create conflict, it is proposed that a role assigned to a particular theatre, such as the workplace, can lead to enrichment in a different theatre, such as the home (Super, 1980; 1990). This provides evidence that Super's (1980; 1990) life-span, life-space approach to career development was influenced by role accumulation theory (Marks; 1977; Sieber, 1974).

Super (1980; 1990) noted that the importance placed on a given role is subject to change. This links to the notion of *role salience*. Role salience is defined as the level of significance assigned to a certain role and is connected with the manner in which one goes

about managing one's roles in the work and family domains (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006; Cinamon & Rich, 2010; Lodhal & Kejner, 1965; Stoner, Hartman, & Arora, 1991; Super, 1980). As such, role salience is a key factor in the WFE process. The more an individual cares about their roles in multiple domains, such as the work and family domains, the more likely they are to transfer resources generated in one role to another role (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Whilst Super (1980; 1990) identified the importance of role salience in enabling the WFE process to occur, he did not empirically test this relationship (Schein & Chen, 2011). Schein and Chen (2011) argue that the life-span, life space approach to career development provides a theoretical framework which explains how participation in both the work and family domains can enable the WFE process originally proposed by Greenhaus and Powell (2006).

### **Nomological Network of Positive Work-Family Constructs**

As previously mentioned, research concerning the work-family interface has traditionally been dominated by the scarcity hypothesis, with particular emphasis on work-family conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Over the past decade, however, there has been an increased interest in multiple role engagement (Bhargava & Baral, 2009; McNall et al., 2010; Van Steenbergen, Ellemers, & Mooijaart, 2007; Wayne et al., 2006). This coincides with the above-mentioned shift in focus towards positive organisational behaviour. According to existing literature, WFE (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), positive spillover (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000) and work-family facilitation (Wayne et al., 2004) are the dominant terms associated with the positive work-family interface. Consequently, all three terms make reference to the benefits associated with multiple role engagement. In the past these terms have been used interchangeably; however, they are distinguishable from one another (Carlson et al., 2006; Wayne et al., 2007; Wayne et al., 2004). These terms are discussed in detail below in order to develop a holistic understanding of the positive work-family interface, with particular attention to WFE.

**Work-family positive spillover.** Positive spillover is defined as “experiences in one domain such as moods, skills, values, and behaviours, being transferred to another domain in ways that make the two domains similar” (Carlson et al., 2006, p.133). Spillover is bi-directional in nature and positive and negative spillover form distinct constructs (Grzywacz &

Marks, 2006; Hanson, Hammer, & Colton, 2006; Kinnunen, Feldt, Geurts, & Pulkkinen, 2006). Crouter (1984) expanded on the construct of positive spillover three decades ago when he proposed that the spillover is not limited to energy transactions between roles. Instead, he argued that one can experience psychological spillover as well as educational spillover. Psychological spillover occurs when positive affect generated in one role is transferred to another role. Conversely, educational spillover transpires when skills and knowledge that are acquired in one domain are applied to a different domain (Crouter, 1984). More recently, Edwards and Rothbard (2000) purported that there are four types of spillover that can be generated directly or indirectly. These relate to one's moods, values, skills and behaviours.

Positive spillover is conceptually similar to WFE; however, WFE adds to the simpler construct of positive spillover. What differentiates these two constructs is that WFE occurs when resources are successfully transferred and applied from one role to another, thus improving one's quality of life in the receiving role. Alternatively, positive spillover simply requires that resources which are generated in one domain are transferred to another domain (Carlson et al., 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006; Wayne, 2009). The acquisition or transfer of resources associated with positive spillover, however, does not directly enhance one's performance in the receiving domain (Wayne, 2009). In addition, both WFE and positive spillover have affective and instrumental pathways. The instrumental pathway is classified by direct resource transferral, whereas the affective pathway is characterised by indirect resource transferral. Even though both constructs have an affective and instrumental pathway, the types of resources that are transferred via these pathways are different for each construct. Positive spillover requires behaviour- and value-based resources, whereas WFE requires resources that are capitalistic, affective or developmental in nature (Masuda et al., 2012).

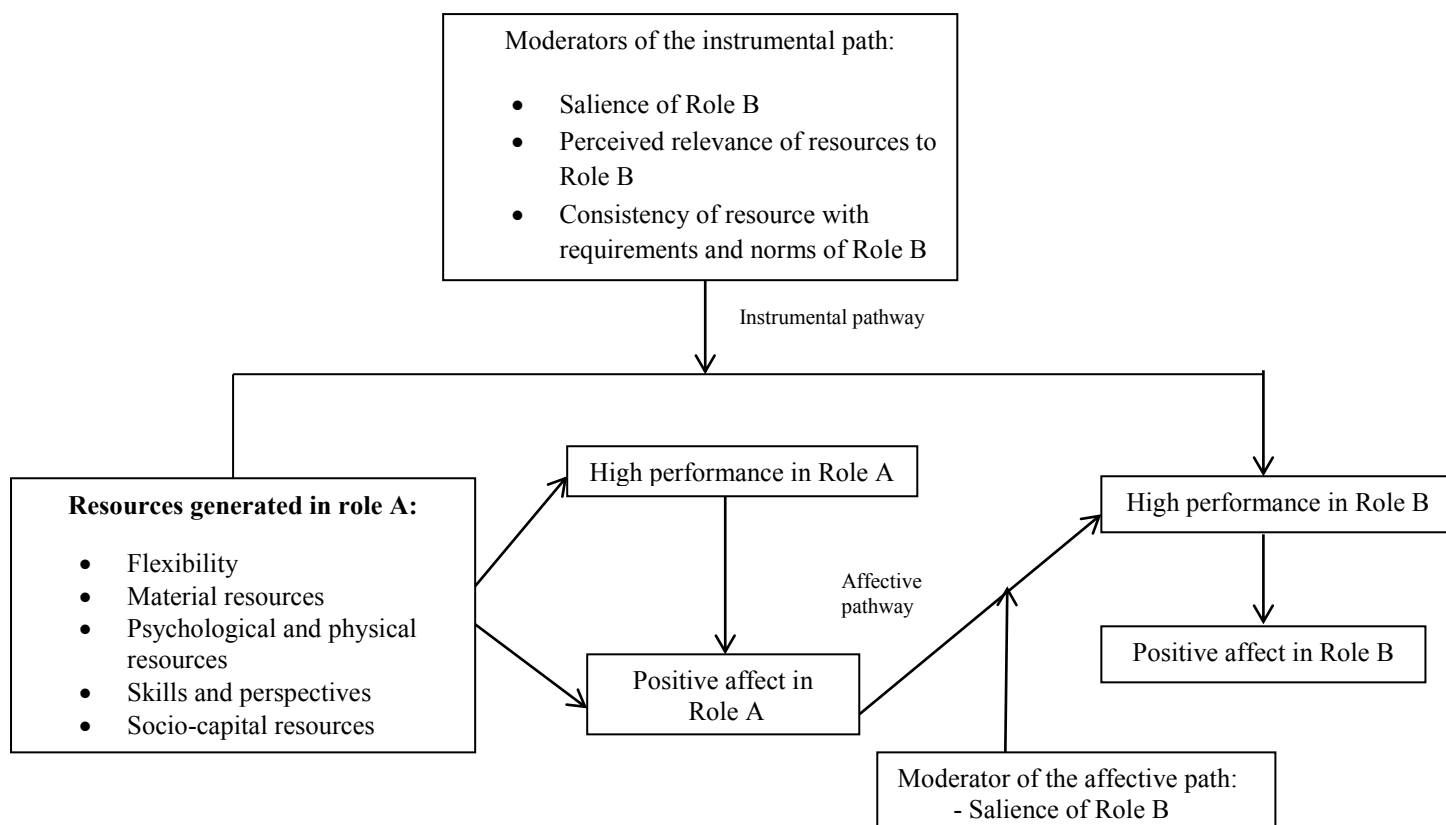
**Work-family facilitation.** The concept of work-family facilitation suggests that the work and family spheres are symbiotic and complementary (Werber & Walter, 2002). Work-family facilitation takes place when resources that are created in one role promote one's functioning in a separate role (Wayne et al., 2004; Wayne et al., 2007). It is apparent that work-family facilitation, like positive spillover, is conceptually similar to WFE. The differentiating factor between these two constructs is the level of analysis. WFE is analysed at the level of the individual and emphasises quality of life, whereas work-family facilitation is concentrated on the functioning of a particular system (Wayne et al., 2004; Wayne et al.,

2007). Work-family facilitation may therefore occur at an organisational level, but not at an individual level (Carlson & Grzywacz, 2011). With regard to facilitation, resources that are produced in the family system may be transferred to the work system, thereby improving performance in the receiving domain. The work and family systems thus complement one another (Wayne et al., 2007).

There are three principle components of work-family facilitation: engagement, gains and greater performance. Engagement pertains to the level at which one commits oneself to domain-relevant tasks; this investment forms the building blocks of facilitation. Engagement in tasks that are related to one's role may lead to certain gains or resources that aid in an individual's performance in a different role (Crouter, 1984; Sieber, 1974; Wayne et al., 2007). There are four types of gains or resources that can be generated, namely developmental (such as knowledge), affective (such as attitudes), capital (such as financial assets) and efficiency (such as improved attention) gains. Facilitation occurs when the aforementioned gains improve a system's overall functioning (Wayne et al., 2007).

### **Work-Family Enrichment**

This study focuses specifically on work-family enrichment (WFE) as it is the most widely-studied construct in the positive work-family literature and because it offers the most comprehensive conceptualisation of the positive work-family interface from an individual's perspective (McNall et al., 2010). Perhaps the most well-known definition of WFE is "the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role" (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 73). According to Greenhaus and Powell (2006), WFE takes place when one acquires resources in *role A*, for example one's work role, which are then applied to *role B*, one's family role, thus improving one's quality of life in *role B*. Resource generation is a fundamental process in the development of WFE. In Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) model, quality of life is constituted by high performance and positive affect (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006). Greenhaus and Powell (2006) developed the most widely-used theory of WFE (figure 1) (Schein & Chen, 2011; Tement, 2014). Recently, Schein and Chen (2011) proposed a refined model of the WFE process originally put forward by Greenhaus and Powell (2006).

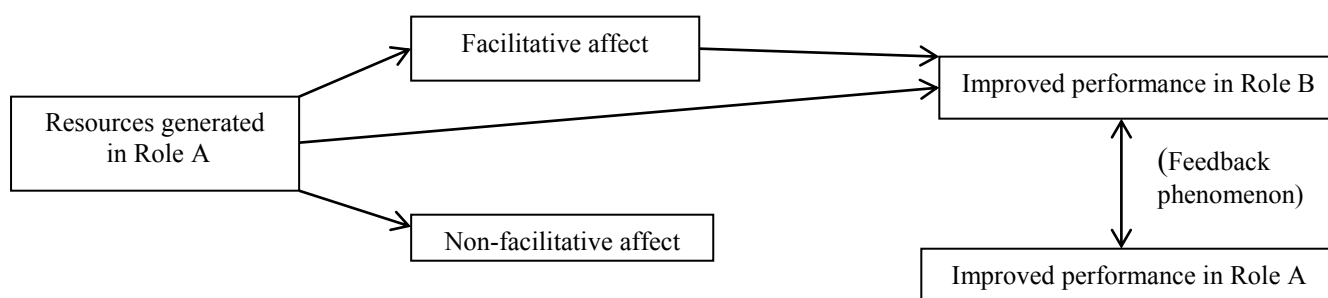


**Figure 1.** Model of WFE adapted from Greenhaus and Powell (2006)

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) posited that there are five types of resources that are generated which facilitate WFE; these include flexibility, material resources, socio-capital resources, physical and psychological resources and skills and perspectives. According to the revised WFE model, the development of these resources in one role influences one's quality of life in another role by way of three pathways (Schein & Chen, 2011).

Schein and Chen (2011) argued that the pathways to WFE operate differently to that originally proposed by Greenhaus and Powell (2006) and accordingly developed a refined version of the WFE model (figure 2). According to Schein and Chen (2011) the positive affect that is produced in *role A* is not necessarily involved in enhancing an individual's performance in *role B*. It is the involvement of affect that differentiates the instrumental, mixed and affective pathways which form the basis of the revised WFE model. Schein and Chen (2011) proposed that there are two types of affect that can be generated: specifically, facilitative and non-facilitative affect. Facilitative affect refers to an emotional state brought about when a resource gained in one role enables enhanced performance in another role. Alternatively, non-facilitative affect is created when a resource gained in one role is not

involved in the enhanced performance in another role; hence, non-facilitative affect does not influence performance (Schein & Chen, 2011).



**Figure 2.** Model of work-family enrichment adapted from Schein and Chen (2011).

As is evident in the figure presented above, there are three pathways to WFE. The instrumental pathway is followed when resources gained in one role are directly transferred to another role, thus enhancing an individual's performance in the receiving role (Carlson, et al., 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Hanson et al., 2006; Schein & Chen, 2011). Should positive affect be created due to the resource generation, it will not have an influence on the individual's performance in the receiving role (Schein & Chen, 2011). To illustrate: an employed father may attend conflict resolution training through his organisation and later on use this training in his home setting to resolve a family dispute. In this way, the conflict resolution skills generated from his work role have enabled him to perform better at home, and he therefore experiences WFE (Carlson et al., 2006).

A second pathway to WFE is the affective pathway. The affective pathway requires resources to be generated in *role A* which bring about positive affectivity in that particular role and, in doing so, promote one's performance in *role B* (Carlson et al., 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Hanson et al., 2006; Schein & Chen, 2011). It is the positive affect that is responsible for the individual's enhanced performance, as opposed to the resources that are gained. This affect is therefore classified as facilitative affect (Schein & Chen, 2011). For example, when a father perceives he has improved time management skills owing to his parenting style, he is more likely to believe that he is a better father which will increase his positive affect in the home domain. This positive affect may be transferred to the work domain and leads to increased performance in his role as an employee (McNall et al., 2010).

Finally, the mixed pathway to WFE is a combination of both the affective and instrumental pathways. The mixed pathway is followed when a resource that is gained in *domain A* is transferred to *domain B*, thus enhancing an individual's performance in *domain B*. Furthermore, the same resource also generates facilitative affect which increases performance in *domain B*. Performance is therefore enhanced by both the resource accrual and facilitative affect (Schein & Chen, 2011). For example, an employed father feels the need to develop his communication skills owing to his role as a senior manager. As a result he is also able to communicate better with his spouse, indicating that his performance has been improved in the family domain. Additionally, this enhances his confidence due to the facilitative affect that is produced. Improved performance is therefore an outcome of resource gain as well as the affect generated as a result of the new resource (Schein & Chen, 2011).

Schein and Chen (2011) extended Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) model by incorporating a feedback phenomenon in the WFE process. According to Schein and Chen (2011), when a resource generated in *role A* is transferred to *role B*, thus enhancing performance in *role B*, a feedback phenomenon occurs in *role A*. The feedback leads to improved performance in *role A* too. The inclusion of a feedback loop relates to Super's life-span, life-space approach to career development in that it illustrates that roles are extendable (Schein & Chen, 2011). It is therefore evident that WFE is bi-directional and that cross-domain WFE can occur in addition to within-domain WFE (Lu, Chang, Kao, & Cooper, 2014). The potential for a cross-domain relationship is consistent with the receiving domain perspective, which proposes that an individual is likely to experience the advantageous effects of multiple role engagement in the receiving role (Carlson, Hunter, Ferguson, & Whitten, 2014). For example, if resources are transferred from the family domain to the work domain, an individual will experience WFE in the work domain. Having said that, there appears to be more support for the originating domain view which posits that an individual is more likely to experience WFE in the role in which he or she originally generated the resources (Carlson et al., 2014; Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007). In this way, an individual who generates resources in the work domain is more likely to experience work-to-family enrichment than family-to-work enrichment and vice versa.

The process of WFE is of interest to organisations as it is linked to numerous desirable outcomes. Both directions of WFE (work-to-family and family-to-work enrichment) are related to increased job satisfaction, affective commitment, family satisfaction and

improved mental and physical health and well-being (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Grzywacz & Butler, 2005; McNall et al., 2010; Wayne et al., 2004). Furthermore, work-to-family enrichment has been associated with life satisfaction (McNall et al., 2010).

**The bi-directional nature of WFE.** The work-family interface has four separate components, namely: negative work-home interaction, negative home-work interaction, positive work-home interaction and positive home-work interaction (Geurts, Taris, Kompier, Dijkers, Van Hooff, & Kinnunen, 2005; Mostert & Oldfield, 2009). It is thus evident that work-family enrichment, like work-family conflict, is bi-directional in nature. In this way, resources generated from an individual's work role can be transferred to their family role, thereby improving the quality of their family life. This is referred to as work-to-family enrichment. For example, a manager who gives a working father time off to take care of his sick child may contribute towards work-to-family enrichment. Similarly, resources acquired from the family role can be transferred to their work role, which promotes family-to-work enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; McNall et al., 2010; Schein & Chen, 2011). For example, a spouse who listens empathically to her husband's concerns about work-related issues may contribute towards family-to-work enrichment (King, Mattimore, King, & Adams, 1995).

Some researchers have suggested that work-to-family and family-to-work enrichment are distinct constructs and as such they may have different antecedents and outcomes (Carlson et al., 2006; De Klerk, Nel, Hill, Koekemoer, 2013; McNall et al., 2010). Moreover, it is important to make the distinction between work-to-family and family-to-work enrichment because the resources that an individual accumulates in one particular role are not necessarily equal across all of their roles. For example, one is provided with a financial incentive to fulfil one's job responsibilities, but this form of incentive is not offered for completing family-related duties (Carlson et al., 2006). With that being said, other researchers have suggested that individuals may experience WFE in both the originating and receiving domains (Shockley & Singla, 2011). In line with the example mentioned above, one may experience WFE in both domains if one is offered a financial incentive in the work domain and experiences increased positive affect in the home domain as a result of the financial reward. This argument provides further evidence for the feedback phenomenon proposed by Schein and Chen (2011).



Work-to-family and family-to-work enrichment are related to several work and non-work outcomes; however, the relationship between the direction of WFE and the outcome is stronger for the role from which the WFE originated. Recent meta-analyses have confirmed that the role from which the WFE process is initiated has a stronger association with domain-related outcomes than the role to which the WFE is transferred (Carlson et al., 2014; McNall et al., 2010; Shockley & Singla, 2011). Researchers have concluded that work-to-family enrichment has a stronger relationship with outcomes that are related to the work domain, such as affective commitment and job satisfaction, than family-to-work enrichment (Carlson et al., 2014; McNall et al., 2010; Shockley & Singla, 2011). Conversely, family-to-work enrichment is more strongly related to family satisfaction and other non-work-related factors. This notion is related to social exchange theory in that when an individual perceives that one domain has provided them with beneficial resources, they will respond with a more positive attitude towards that particular domain. This explains why resources that originate in the work domain have a stronger association with work-related outcomes and the resources that are developed in the family domain are more strongly associated with non-work-related outcomes (Carlson et al., 2014; McNall et al., 2010).

**The multi-dimensional nature of WFE.** Carlson et al. (2006) established and validated a self-report WFE scale that recognises six dimensions of WFE. These dimensions were separated on the basis that the resources that are generated may be different across roles. Returning to an earlier example, individuals are provided with a financial incentive in their role as employee; however, this is not the case for their role as a parent. It is thus evident that individuals engage in different activities (which generate different resources) according to a particular role. According to Carlson et al.'s (2006) measure, WFE is composed of work-to-family and family-to-work enrichment. Work-to-family enrichment is further divided into three dimensions, specifically work-family capital, work-family affect and work-family development. Conversely, family-to-work enrichment includes family-work development, family-work affect and family-work efficiency. Work-to-family and family-to-work enrichment thus share two dimensions, namely affect and development (Carlson et al., 2006). Refer to table 1 below for a description of the types of resources that may be generated in each dimension. It should, however, be noted that the six dimensions have not consistently been found in empirical research. Studies conducted within the last five years have discriminated between family-to-work and work-to-family enrichment, but have not distinguished between the six dimensions that Carlson et al. (2006) originally proposed

## SUPPORT-BASED FACTORS THAT FACILITATE WORK-FAMILY ENRICHMENT

(Gareis, Barnett, Ertel, & Berkman, 2009; Zhang & Zhang, 2011). Consistent with the studies conducted by Gareis et al. (2009) and Zhang and Zhang (2011) this study examines the bi-directionality of WFE, but not the multi-dimensionality of WFE.

Table 1  
*Work-Family Enrichment: Dimensions and Resources*

Dimension	Resources Generated
Work-family capital	Security, accomplishment and confidence in oneself
Work-family and family-work affect	Positive emotions and attitudes
Work-family and family-work development	Knowledge, skills, actions and viewpoints
Family-work efficiency	Time and efficiency

### **Social Support and WFE**

There are various antecedents that can facilitate the WFE process (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Schein & Chen, 2011). In line with Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) and Schein and Chen's (2011) models of WFE, this study seeks to examine family- and work-based sources of social support as antecedents of WFE. Furthermore, opportunities for professional development (OPD) is explored to determine whether it acts as an additional form of support that adds to our understanding of the relationship between social support and WFE.

**Social support.** Almost four decades ago Cobb (1976, p. 300) described social support as "information leading the subject to believe that he is cared for and loved, esteemed, and a member of a network of mutual obligations". Five years later House (1981) established perhaps the most well-known typology of social support. According to House (1981) social support is an interpersonal transaction that may contain an appraisal, emotional, informational and instrumental component. Whilst this may be the most widely recognised typology of social support, findings based on House's (1981) typology have been somewhat inconsistent in the literature. For example, some researchers have stated that instrumental support bears the most significant influence on an individual's well-being (Israel, Farquhar, Schultz, & Parker, 2002), whereas others have proposed that it is emotional support that has the strongest effect on well-being and enrichment (Ben-Ari & Pines, 2002; Wayne et al., 2006). It has even been claimed that emotional and instrumental support offer similarly positive effects in relation to well-being (Rao, Apte, & Subbakrishna, 2003).

Whilst some researchers have focused on the different types of social support and their impact, others have focused rather on the source of the social support. In fact, it has been proposed that the source of the support is more significant than the type of support received (Lu et al., 2009; Schwarzer, Dunkel-Schetter, & Kemeny, 1994; Schwarzer & Gutiérrez-Doña, 2005; Siu et al., 2010). This is related to the fact that some sources of support appear more effective than others and that the combination of various sources of social support leads to an additive effect that helps individuals to cope better with their multiple role involvement (Lu et al., 2009). Wadsworth and Owens (2007) reported that supervisory support is the most widely-studied form of work-based social support; however, there are findings that indicate that support from co-workers and top management has a significant influence on the work-family interface too (Ho, Chen, Cheung, Liu, & Worthington, 2013; Korabik & Warner, 2013; O'Neill, Harrison, Cleveland, Almeida, Stawski, & Crouter, 2009). In addition to work-based social support, support from one's spouse, extended family and paid domestic support have been linked to the work-family interface (Aryee et al., 2005; Cinamon & Rich, 2010; Griggs et al., 2013; Rashid, Nordin, Omar, & Ismail, 2011). Extended family support appears to be more popular in collectivist societies that are classified by larger family units and increased interaction with extended family members. Alternatively, paid domestic support is an affordable and convenient source of support that is widely available in many developing countries, including South Africa (Spector et al., 2007; Thieme, 2011).

Social support is most often studied through the lens of the conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll, 2001). According to COR theory, individuals are driven to maintain, protect and enhance their resources. One is likely to experience stress if one believes that one's resources are vulnerable or depleted; or if resources are invested but doing so does not bring about the expected resource improvement. In COR theory, social support is said to be an essential resource that is critical in helping individuals to acquire new resources as well as preserve those resources that have already been attained (Hobfoll, 2001; Seiger & Wiese, 2009). Social support thus enables individuals to manage their roles in multiple domains better and reduces the risk of work-family conflict (Kirrane & Buckley, 2004; Siu et al., 2013). This notion is echoed in the words of Hobfoll and Vaux (1993, p. 685) who stated that "social support is a valuable social commodity and those who are endowed with social support are better off in most instances than those who are not".

Building on the argument presented above, Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1999) suggested that engagement in one particular role enables an individual to acquire new skills that may be applied to a different role. In addition, it was argued that involvement in one role, for example a parental role, enables an individual to obtain support from relevant members within that domain, including their relatives, spouse and children. This support is useful in helping the individual integrate this role with their other roles (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). Through its association with multiple role engagement and enhanced resource attainment, social support is influential in facilitating the WFE process (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Rashid et al., 2011; Ruderman et al., 2002; Salehi, Rasdi, & Ahmad, 2014; Wayne et al., 2006). It is therefore not surprising that Greenhaus and Powell (2006) as well as Schein and Chen (2011) classified social support as a social capital resource in their respective models of WFE.

Social support directly influences WFE through emotional and practical help and, in addition, social support indirectly influences WFE via employees' use of formal workplace support. It has been proposed that the utilisation of family-friendly human resource practices (FFHRPs) is connected to the elements that construct the organisational culture, including the degree of support received from management and co-workers. Other significant constituents of the organisational culture include gender role expectations and career consequences that are associated with the use of FFHRPs (McDonald, Brown, & Bradley, 2005). For example, managerial or supervisory support is a highly influential factor when employees decide whether or not to make use of flexible work practices and other family-friendly benefits. So, for example, if an individual believes that top management does not support their use of family-friendly initiatives, they are less likely to utilise the available family-friendly benefits (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). Moreover, it has been argued that informal workplace practices, including social support, are more pertinent to the WFE process than formal work-family initiatives because they are more dynamic in nature and are tailored to the unique needs of each employed parent. In addition, social support may be less visible than other work-family initiatives and, as such, working fathers may not fear adverse consequences as they would when using formal work-family provisions (De Janasz, Behon, Jonsen, & Lankau, 2013). Consequently, by receiving work-based social support individuals are more likely to experience positive affect and other essential resources which may be transferred to the home sphere (Wayne et al., 2006).

Researchers have suggested that in a similar fashion to social support, WFE acts as a buffer protecting an individual from the detrimental effects associated with stressors such as inter-role conflict (Greenhaus & Parasuraman 1994; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). It is evident from past research that social support is associated with decreased work-family conflict and stress (Kirrane & Buckley, 2004; Kossek et al., 2011). Social support that originates in the work domain has also been associated with enhanced performance in the family domain and vice versa; thus, it is not surprising that researchers have established a relationship between social support and WFE (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Thompson & Prottas, 2006).

It is particularly important to understand the relationship between social support and WFE in the context of working fathers because past research has suggested that women are more likely to receive social support than men. This is because women are also more likely to provide support than men. As a result of their provision of support, females are more likely to be supported themselves (Aryee et al., 2005; Halbesleben, 2006; Klauer & Winkeler, 2002; Schwarzer & Gutiérrez-Doña, 2005). This is concerning because men, who generally continue to adopt the breadwinner role (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010), may need extra social support in order to manage their added responsibilities as both an involved father and a conscientious employee (Nasurdin & Hsia, 2008). It is therefore necessary to determine which sources of social support are the most appropriate for working fathers in South Africa in order to help working fathers to manage their multiple roles in a way that facilitates WFE.

***Top management support and WFE.*** Top management support is a critical factor in establishing a family-supportive work environment (Ko, Hur, Smith, & Walter, 2013). In fact, top management's support for employees' work-family integration acts as a proxy for organisational culture (Major & Lauzun, 2010; Thompson et al., 1999). Unfortunately, there is a scarcity of literature examining top management as a source of social support. This may be due to the fact that employees are much more likely to engage with their supervisors and co-workers on a regular basis; therefore, top management support may not be as valuable a source of support for working fathers (Wadsworth & Owens, 2007). In addition, employees' perceptions of top management support might be influenced by power differences in the relationship between top management and employees. The power dynamics that characterise the relationship between top management and employees may exert a differential impact on the positive work-family interface (Chiaburu, Lorinkova, & Van Dyne, 2013).

Drew and Murtagh (2005) proposed that males in senior managerial positions often act in accordance with the traditional male-breadwinner model. That is to say that they devote most of their time to the work domain and leave their spouse in charge of the family domain. This devotion is based on the perception that an individual needs to devote the majority of their time to work and demonstrate presenteeism in order to be viewed by top management as someone who possesses managerial potential (Drew & Murtagh, 2005). It is therefore necessary for top management to act as role models in order to create a family-supportive work environment. This is in line with Goodman's (2012) findings that work-life integration initiatives must be supported by top management in order for them to be effective. It should be noted that in order for top management to create and sustain a family-friendly work environment, it is necessary for them to model family-friendly behaviours through their actions and not merely through verbal communication (Paustian-Underdahl & Halbesleben, 2014).

In a qualitative study that used a sample of employees in the hospitality industry, researchers established that the general manager has a pivotal role in shaping the organisational culture in a way that promotes work-family integration and support for employed parents. It was suggested that top management should set a family-friendly trend by openly communicating their support for employees' family-life to the whole organisation (Cleveland, O'Neill, Himelright, Harrison, Crouter, & Drago, 2007). Researchers established that employees at a multinational corporation in Mexico appreciated the CEO's philosophy of "you take care of your work, and I will take care of your family", which set the tone for the organisational culture (Brumley, 2014, p. 788). In addition, top management may provide practical assistance to employed parents by, for example, involving them in decisions concerning work-family initiatives in the workplace.

Conversely, it has been suggested that non-family-friendly values and attitudes held by top management, in conjunction with restricted communication and a work environment that places an emphasis on "workaholism", are likely to deter employees from making use of FFHRPs (Newman & Mathews, 1999). It is therefore evident that formal support may be undermined if it is not accompanied by the display of family-supportive behaviours by top management who act as role models for all employees (Dikkers et al., 2007; Lewis, 2001; Paustian-Underdahl & Halbesleben, 2014). This suggests that there is a possibility for top

management to display negative support for working fathers that may impact adversely on their multiple role engagement and, consequently, their experience of WFE.

Whilst there is limited research concerning the impact of top management support on the work-family interface, top management support has been related to a decrease in work-family conflict (Glaveli, Karassavidou, & Zafiroopoulos, 2013). Employees who receive top management support within an organisation are more likely to be provided with additional resources, such as time off to perform family-related responsibilities (O'Neill et al., 2009). The provision of extra time off enables working fathers to address family responsibilities which they may not have otherwise been able to attend to. Consequently, working fathers are able to devote more time towards their parental role without fearing that top management will react negatively towards doing so, thereby contributing towards WFE. In this regard, it can be deduced that top management support will be an antecedent of WFE for working fathers in South Africa.

***Co-worker support and WFE.*** Co-worker support is “the degree of assistance and caring received from others” which includes “tangible help, encouragement and information...” (Molino et al., 2013, p. 102). With regard to the present study, a co-worker is defined as someone who an individual works with who is not regarded as their supervisor or subordinate, but rather as a peer (Ducharme & Martin, 2000). This definition ensures that respondents reflect only on the support received from their immediate work colleagues. Co-workers are able to provide instrumental and emotional support to individuals (Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Leschyshyn & Minnotte, 2014). For example, co-workers may be supportive by providing assistance on projects when an employee needs to attend to their sick child at home. Alternatively, they may provide support by empathetically listening to an individual who is expressing their concerns about their sick child. Rousseau and Aubé (2010, p. 324) proposed that co-workers can also provide “focussed situation-related support” due to the fact that an individual often engages in similar or supplementary job-related activities with their peers.

It has been stated that much of the past literature has examined and measured supervisor support together with co-worker support; therefore, the terms are not better differentiated from one another (Ducharme & Martin, 2000). It is important to distinguish co-worker support from supervisor or subordinate support because an individual's relations with

the latter two groups may be qualitatively dissimilar to their peer relationships, in which they share an organisational status (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Rousseau & Aubé, 2010). For example, an individual's supervisor may provide emotional support in addition to a solution designed to facilitate their multiple role involvement. Co-workers, on the other hand, are often not able to provide solutions to enhance multiple role involvement due to a lack of authority (Rousseau & Aubé, 2010). Furthermore, there is a vast discrepancy concerning the frequency and duration of interactions between an individual and their supervisor compared to interactions with their co-workers (Ducharme & Martin, 2000). It is for this reason that this study seeks to separate co-worker support from supervisor support as each may uniquely contribute to explaining variance in WFE.

Co-worker support helps employed parents to cope with their role engagement in both the work and family domains (Leschyshyn & Minnotte, 2014). When measured independently from supervisor support, co-worker support is associated with reduced work-family conflict and work-related distress (Byron, 2005; Cinamon & Rich, 2010; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997). In addition, co-worker support is associated with WFE and co-workers' support for work-family balance is associated with work-to-family enrichment (Cinamon & Rich, 2010; Korabik & Warner, 2013; Mostert et al., 2011; Thompson & Prottas, 2006; Van Aarde & Mostert, 2008; Wadsworth & Owens, 2007). It is proposed that co-worker support will be a precursor to work-to-family enrichment for working fathers. This proposition is based on the past findings mentioned above and the notion that co-workers can provide practical assistance to working fathers and can influence the organisational environment to create a workplace that is supportive of working fathers' desire to spend more time engaging in their parental role (Molino et al., 2013).

Whilst co-worker support is most often linked with positive outcomes related to multiple role engagement, it should be noted that co-worker support could also have a negative influence on an employee's decision to utilise family-friendly human resource practices (FFHRPs), which may adversely influence their multiple role involvement. Researchers have determined that employees may be hesitant to use FFHRPs if they perceive work-family backlash from their peers. Work-family backlash may be considered as a negative form of support that occurs when employees who do not have children or no longer have childcare-related responsibilities become indignant about FFHRPs (Haar, Spell, & O'Driscoll, 2004). This negative support from co-workers may lead working fathers to



believe that they will be stigmatised if they utilise the available FFHRPs without receiving support from their co-workers to do so (Rudman & Mescher, 2013). Consequently, co-workers who are resentful and display negative support may deter working fathers from seeking support that could otherwise facilitate the WFE process.

*Supervisor support and WFE.* According to Thomas and Ganster (1995), a supervisor may be perceived as supportive if he or she engages in certain activities, such as being flexible with an employee's work schedule, allowing for personal phone calls to family members and permitting children in the workplace if they are unable to attend school. Supervisory support may thus be viewed as a type of informal organisational support (Hill, 2005). With this in mind, a supportive supervisor can be defined as "one who empathises with the employee's desire to seek balance between work and family responsibilities" (Thomas & Ganster, 1995, p. 7).

In addition to providing support on both an emotional and practical level, it is also possible for supervisors to supply informational support in the form of supervisory work-family guidance (Dineen, Lewicki, & Tomlinson, 2006; Paustian-Underdahl & Halbesleben, 2014). Supervisory work-family guidance refers to the instructions and advice concerning how best an individual can manage their work-family conflict, or enhance WFE, whilst performing their work-related duties. Consequently, support from one's supervisor can be regarded as an essential job resource (Paustian-Underdahl & Halbesleben, 2014).

Researchers have suggested that supervisors are more likely to be supportive of employees' multiple role needs if the work environment is one that promotes work-family integration (Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman, & Daniels, 2007; Major & Cleveland, 2007). There is thus a positive relationship between a family-friendly work environment and supervisors who support employees' work-family needs (Foley, Linnehan, Greenhaus, & Weer, 2006). It is possible that there is more existing literature on the relationship between WFE and supervisor support rather than top management support because individuals spend a much greater amount of time engaging directly with their supervisor than with top management (Major & Lauzun, 2010).

Supervisory support is essential in helping employees manage both their work and family roles and is related to reduced absenteeism, stress and turnover intentions, as well as

improved job and life satisfaction and organisational commitment (Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999; Thompson & Prottas, 2005). In terms of the work-family interface, meta-analyses have determined that supervisory support is associated with reduced work-to-family conflict (Ford et al., 2007; Kossek et al., 2011). Furthermore, supervisor support is related to improved work performance and WFE (Baral & Bhargava, 2011a; Baral & Bhargava, 2011b; Hill, 2005; Lapierre & Allen, 2006; Mostert et al., 2011; Siu et al., 2010; Thomas & Ganster, 1995; Thompson et al., 1999; Thompson & Prottas, 2006; Van Aarde & Mostert, 2008; Wadsworth & Owens, 2007; Wayne et al., 2006). Supervisory support may be a particularly important source of support for working fathers. This is because supervisors are in a position of authority and can model family-supportive behaviours to encourage employees to do the same (Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, 2008). This might encourage working fathers to actively participate in non-work-related roles without the fear of adverse career consequences, and the benefits of doing so may facilitate WFE. It is therefore proposed that supervisor support will be positively related to work-to-family enrichment for working fathers in South Africa.

*Opportunities for professional development as a mediator between co-worker and supervisor support and WFE.* Opportunities for professional development (OPD) can be defined as “the developmental process of acquiring, expanding, refining, and sustaining knowledge, proficiency, skill, and qualifications for competent professional functioning that result in professionalism” (Elman, Robiner, & Illfelder-Kaye, 2005, p. 368). Researchers have proposed that providing employees with learning and development opportunities creates a perception that the organisation values the employee and their development within the organisation. This, in turn, enhances the employee’s perceptions that the organisation is supportive of their needs. Employees may therefore base their perceptions of organisational support for their development in terms of the quality of their leader-member exchange relationship. In a high quality leader-member exchange, a supervisor is more likely to provide an employee with OPD. Accordingly, employees who perceive a high quality leader-member exchange relationship are more likely to view the organisation as more supportive of their needs (Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden, & Bravo, 2011). In line with social exchange theory, if the employee perceives that the organisation is supportive of their needs, they are more likely to engage in behaviours that add value to the organisation (Kraimer, et al., 2011; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997).

Because supervisors tend to have more frequent interactions with employees than top management and are directly responsible for their career development (Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes, & Salvador, 2008), it is likely that supervisor support is more strongly related to OPD than top management support. Supervisors are able to provide direct support to help employees to cope more effectively with workplace learning interventions. In fact, as early as 1988 researchers established that supervisors are able to positively impact upon employees' performance by providing them with support in the form of key job resources, such as training and development (Guzzo & Gannett, 1988). Interestingly enough, in South Africa researchers have determined that black respondents tend to view a lack of developmental opportunities as their most prominent source of job stress, whereas white respondents generally perceive workload as their most significant source of workplace stress (Coetzee & de Villiers, 2010; Pienaar & Van Zyl, 2008). Supervisors may be able to further assist previously disadvantaged individuals by providing them with OPD and by encouraging them to participate in such opportunities. Consequently, this may help these individuals to avoid job stress whilst simultaneously enhancing their performance. In this way, individuals who receive added resources from the social support offered by supervisors, as well as opportunities to develop their skills in the work domain, are more likely to experience WFE.

Supervisors may contribute to OPD by providing employees with the opportunity to go on training or to participate in opportunities to further their skill development. Furthermore, both supervisors and co-workers can contribute to OPD and WFE by inculcating a supportive environment that promotes employee participation in OPD. By encouraging individuals to participate in OPD, supervisors and co-workers can create positive experiences of OPD within the work environment (Molino et al., 2013). For example, co-workers may be able to assist working parents by taking care of some of their job-related duties so that they can participate in a particular training programme. The support received from co-workers and supervisors, as well as the increase in skills and the improved self-efficacy that accompanies skill development, may facilitate work-to-family enrichment (Van Aarde & Mostert, 2008).

As previously mentioned, there is a paucity of research concerning the influence of OPD as a job resource on an individual's performance within the work and family spheres (Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli, & Schreurs, 2003; Bakker, ten Brummelhuis, Prins, van der Heijden, 2011). Employees who are provided with OPD are more likely to feel

challenged which may positively impact upon their intrinsic motivation and energy levels (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007). Consequently, an employee is more likely to manage the demands associated with their work role better. In addition, this increased energy may be transferred to the family domain, thus facilitating work-to-family enrichment. OPD can therefore be categorised as a skills and perspectives resource according to Schein and Chen's (2011) model of WFE. Schein and Chen (2011), however, focussed specifically on developing others and how this was associated with WFE, in that employees learned the skills necessary to develop subordinates from their parenting style and vice versa.

Schein and Chen (2011) based their model on a sample of high-level managers and as such all of their respondents were required to develop subordinates as part of their job. This study is not solely focused on high-level managerial staff; therefore, it might not be appropriate to examine the effects of developing others within the work environment. Furthermore, this study is concerned with how support that is received from others contributes to WFE, rather than with how the provision of support to others can contribute towards WFE. The inclusion of OPD in the present study is, therefore, an extension of Schein and Chen's (2011) theoretical framework.

The inclusion of development opportunities appears to be an appropriate extension of Schein and Chen's (2011) model, since OPD stimulate employees and provide them with new knowledge, skills and abilities that empower them to succeed in a manner that may enhance their functioning in the family domain (Goldstein & Ford, 2002; Wayne et al., 2007). To illustrate, it was reported that employees who acquired participative management skills from a training intervention at work were able to apply such skills in their family domain (Crouter, 1984). This finding was corroborated by Voydanoff (2004) who determined that learning interventions at work were related to enhanced family functioning. OPD is thus related to work-to-family enrichment.

Whilst there is limited literature concerning the relationship between OPD and WFE, researchers have determined that there is a positive association between these two constructs. WFE occurs when employees successfully transfer and apply skills and knowledge that they have learned from the work domain to the family domain (Voydanoff, 2004; Wayne et al., 2007). Wayne et al. (2007) based this on the resource-gain-development perspective and posited that WFE occurs because individuals are inherently motivated to take full advantage

of opportunities for development and apply what they have learned to other spheres of their life.

Consistent with the findings mentioned above, one category of job resources may influence another category of job resources in order to contribute towards WFE. In this way, individuals who are encouraged to participate in the OPD provided by their supervisor or co-workers are likely to develop new skills or resources and increased self-efficacy that they can apply to the family domain (Molino et al., 2013). In doing so, they may experience enhanced positive affect and increased performance in their role in the family domain, thereby experiencing work-to-family enrichment. To date only one journal article has been published that examines OPD as a mediator between supervisor and co-worker support and WFE (Molino et al., 2013). As previously explained, there is existing research to support the relationship between supervisor support and OPD, however, there is little research to support the relationship between co-worker support and OPD. This indicates a gap in the relevant literature. Based on the limited research examining the relationship between supervisor and co-worker support and OPD, as well as the relationship between OPD and WFE, it is proposed that OPD will act as a mediator between these two sources of social support and WFE (Molino et al., 2013).

*Spousal or life partner support and WFE.* Support that is received from an individual's spouse or life partner, which will from here on be referred to as *spousal support*, is regarded as one of the most significant sources of social support in the work-family literature (Lu et al., 2009; Wadsworth & Owens, 2007). Spousal support influences an employee's affect and performance within the work domain and is associated with increased job and life satisfaction and career success (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; King et al., 1995). A spouse may provide support through their behaviours and attitudes in relation to helping out with daily household responsibilities, such as sharing family-related responsibilities, or making special adjustments to suit the spouse's work duties (King et al., 1995). A spouse's practical help thus aids in preserving their partner's resources (Wayne et al., 2006).

Alternatively, a spouse may provide support through her attitudes and behaviours that are directed towards encouraging her partner and improving his positive affect and performance (Erickson, 1993; King et al., 1995). Such attitudes and behaviours represent a spouse's care for and interest in her husband (King et al., 1995). Researchers have reported

that men, who receive support from their spouse in the form of her appreciation for his parenting competence, are more likely to be more involved in parenting and feel more competent in their role as a father (Bouchard & Lee, 2000; Lu et al., 2009). Wayne et al. (2006) determined that it was particularly important for spouses to provide support in the form of care and understanding in order to facilitate family-to-work enrichment.

Spousal support may be necessary in order to encourage men to embrace their role as a father and to take steps to ensure that they are present and involved in their child's development. This may be particularly necessary as many men may still hold traditional gender role orientations; it takes time for societal values to transform completely (Holt & Lewis, 2009). This is supported by the finding that gendered sub-cultures which discourage the "modern father" ideal still exist within some companies (Ely & Meyerson, 2000; Sallee, 2012). South Africa is still considered to be a patriarchal society founded on a strong tradition that espouses certain cultural and social expectations that shape gender roles for its citizens (Mathur-Helm, 2010). Spouses may thus help to ease their husband through the transition of becoming a "modern father" who embraces his role in the family rather than focusing solely on his role as a breadwinner.

With regard to the work-family interface, spousal support has been linked to reduced work-family conflict as well as enhanced family-to-work enrichment (Aryee et al., 2005; Cinamon & Rich, 2010; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Narsuridin & Hsia, 2008). Furthermore, Wadsworth and Owens (2007) determined that, when compared to supervisor support, spousal support had a stronger association with WFE. A potential explanation for this finding is that one is likely to spend more time engaging with one's spouse or partner than one's supervisor.

Schein and Chen (2011) as well as Baral and Bhargava (2011a; 2011b) proposed that support from a spouse was related to enhanced performance in the work domain and is, thus, considered to be a precursor of family-to-work enrichment. This is in line with Greenhaus and Powell's model (2006) in which spousal support generates resources that have a beneficial effect on an individual's performance in the work domain, thereby facilitating WFE. Baral and Bhargava (2011a; 2011b) determined that family support was also associated with work-to-family enrichment. This is consistent with the receiving domain perspective (Carlson et al., 2014) and is related to the feedback phenomenon proposed by Schein and

Chen (2011). These findings suggest that organisations should encourage working fathers to seek spousal support in order to better manage their role as both a father and employee (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Wadsworth & Owens, 2007). Based on the literature above and the support for the originating domain view, this study proposes that spousal support will be positively associated with family-to-work enrichment.

***Extended family support and WFE.*** Extended family support refers to the support received from family members other than an individual's spouse or children. As with spousal support, extended family members, such as an aunt, may provide support to working fathers by encouraging them and providing empathic understanding and/or by attending to household and child-care related duties (Griggs et al., 2013). This form of support may be more applicable in multigenerational homes in which working fathers are more likely to spend time with their extended family members, since they share a residence.

Extended family support may be a particularly relevant source of support for working parents as the number of multigenerational households continues to increase (Rohrbaugh, 2008). Bigombe and Khadiagala (2003) reported that in South Africa, the majority of African households, even in urban areas, include live-in extended family members. In fact, it has been suggested that often extended family members are placed in charge of child-care responsibilities so that the parents of the child can primarily attend to the work domain (Evans, Matola, & Nyeko, 2008). Extended family members may therefore provide support to working parents, thereby enabling WFE.

Extended family support may be perceived as more valuable in societies that are characterised by a high degree of collectivism than in highly individualistic societies. This is in line with Hofstede's (2011) proposal that collectivist cultures are marked by highly cohesive in-groups, in which extended family members play a pivotal supportive role throughout an individual's lifetime. In return for this unwavering support the individual is whole-heartedly loyal to their extended family. In contrast, individuals residing in individualistic societies feel responsible for and dependent on themselves and their immediate family members (Hofstede, 2011). South Africa was classified as an individualistic society (Thomas & Bendixen, 2000); however, African sub-groups within South Africa tend to be more collectivist in nature (Triandis, 1989). This may lead to

differences in working fathers' reliance on extended family support in order to manage their multiple roles.

Kossek (1990) suggested that employed parents who are able to make use of familial care provisions other than those offered by their spouse have access to greater social support compared to employees who rely on paid domestic support and other non-family-related care. Kossek and Nichol (1992) determined that employees who do not have access to familial care are more likely to perceive childcare-related problems, than employees who receive childcare-related support from their family. In line with Kossek's (1990) finding, other researchers have found a positive association between family support and WFE and a negative relationship between work-family conflict and family support (Aryee et al., 2005; Bhargava & Baral, 2009; Karatepe & Bekteshi, 2008). Two points worth mentioning about these studies are that they were all conducted in collectivist societies and that they broadly defined family support in terms of the support received from extended family members and friends as well as one's spouse. There is limited work-family literature that examines extended family support in isolation (Eby et al., 2005; Griggs et al., 2013). This study thus extends current literature by examining the association between extended family members' support and WFE within the context of working fathers in South Africa.

***Paid domestic support and WFE.*** A domestic worker is an individual who provides services for a private household in return for a financial incentive (International Labour Organization [ILO], 2013). The ILO (2013) declared that in 2010 there were 3 555 000 domestic workers in "developed countries", which included 26 countries, ranging from Australia, to France and to Japan. This is in comparison with the 5 236 000 domestic workers in Africa. With particular attention to South Africa, in 2014 there were approximately 999 000 individuals who were employed as domestic workers, 955 000 of which were female (Statistics South Africa, 2014a). The reason for the significantly higher amount of domestic work in African countries compared with more developed countries may be related to the dire poverty and unequal distribution of wealth associated with many of the developing countries in Africa (Spector et al., 2007). The low cost of domestic work makes it an affordable and accessible form of support for many dual-earner middle- to upper-class South African families (Thieme, 2011).

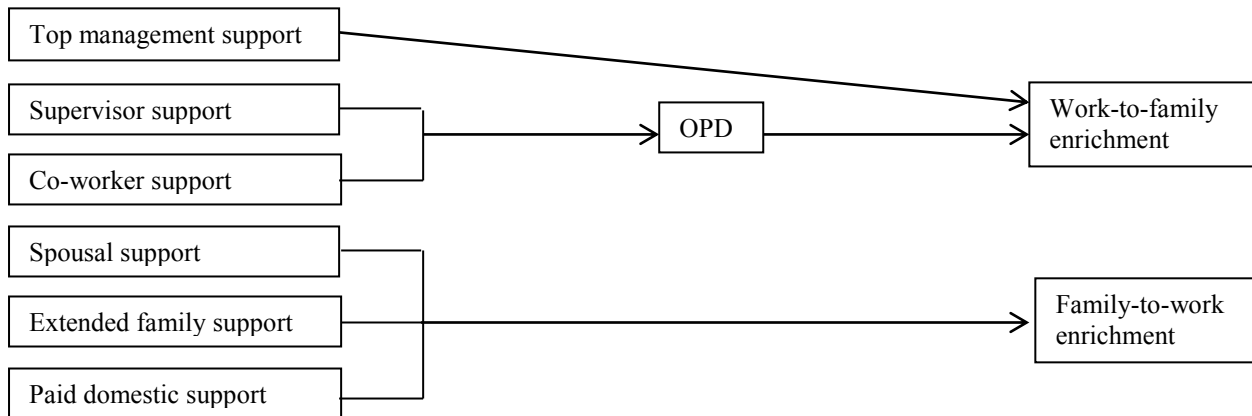


Paid domestic support is a practical form of support that provides significant help to families by managing daily household tasks and reducing family-related stress (Aryee et al., 2005; Fu & Shaffer, 2001). It has, however, been suggested that paid domestic support may be connected with the traditional “breadwinner-male, homemaker-female” philosophy. This is based on the finding that paid domestic support may not be as beneficial to working fathers as it is for working mothers since mothers still seem to be in charge of attending to family-related duties and need the extra help (Lammi-Taskula, 2008; Lewis, Izraeli, & Hootsmans, 1992). According to the shift in gender roles, however, fathers are taking a more proactive role in childcare as the amount of dual-earner families continues to rise (De Ruijter & Van Der Lippe, 2007; Enderstein & Boonzaier, 2013; Gaunt, 2013). Paid domestic support may thus provide extra resources for working fathers who can conserve energy and time by employing a domestic helper to attend to certain household and childcare-related tasks (De Ruijter & Van Der Lippe, 2007; Rout, Lewis, & Kagan, 1999). Interestingly, there is a stronger association between enhanced productivity at work and paid domestic help for males than for females (Wallace & Young, 2008).

It should be noted that whilst paid domestic support may contribute towards the WFE process, it has been proposed that this form of support is not as effective as spousal and supervisory support in predicting family-to-work and work-to-family enrichment. It has been suggested that this is because an individual’s relationship with their supervisor and spouse is generally much closer and more significant than the relationship with their paid domestic worker (Lu et al., 2009). This finding may, however, be specific to China, where the relevant study was conducted. The Chinese culture is marked by collectivism and high power distance (Hofstede, 2001). In this way, an individual who values collectivism may value the support from their family or authority figures at work more than the support offered by a paid domestic helper.

This study specifically examines satisfaction with paid domestic support as an antecedent of WFE. Satisfaction with paid domestic support is used in preference to the use of paid domestic support because satisfaction with paid domestic support can only arise if one does in fact employ a paid domestic helper. Furthermore, satisfaction with paid domestic support (as indicated by a 5-point Likert-type scale) provides a more nuanced and varied understanding of this form of support compared to a measure of the use of paid domestic support (as indicated by a dichotomous item requiring a “yes” or “no” response). Based on

previous research that has identified the role of paid domestic support in enhancing working fathers’ performance in the work domain (Wallace & Young, 2008), it is proposed that satisfaction with paid domestic support is associated with family-to-work enrichment for working fathers in South Africa.



**Figure 3.** Conceptual model representing the proposed relationship between several sources of social support, OPD and WFE.

### Research Propositions

**Proposition 1:** Work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment are distinct constructs.

**Proposition 2:** Social support helps to predict WFE.

2.a) Social support at work (from top management, supervisor and co-workers) helps to predict work-to-family enrichment amongst working fathers.

2.b) Social support at home (from spouse, extended family and paid domestic helpers) helps to predict family-to-work enrichment amongst working fathers.

**Proposition 3:** OPD mediates the relationship between supervisor support and work-to-family enrichment.

**Proposition 4:** OPD mediates the relationship between co-worker support and work-to-family enrichment.

## **Final Notes**

The literature review introduced the positive work-family interface and established the need to further explore the relationship between support-based antecedents of WFE in order to enhance working fathers' quality of life in the work and family domains (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Schein & Chen, 2011). It is evident that as working fathers take on more responsibilities in the family domain, organisations and families need to be cognisant of how to contribute optimally towards their experience of multiple role engagement. This study provides a more holistic exploration of the support-enrichment relationship by examining multiple sources of social support. In addition, it examines OPD as an extra job resource in relation to the support-enrichment relationship (Molino et al., 2013).

## **Method**

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between social support and WFE amongst working fathers in South Africa. In addition, this research aims to determine whether or not OPD mediates the above-mentioned relationship. The present section is composed of five sub-sections that describe the methods used to examine the aforementioned propositions. The sub-sections are as follows: research design, respondents, procedure, measures and statistical analyses.

### **Research Design**

A descriptive design using a deductive approach was used to collect and analyse data to fulfil the objectives of this study. The descriptive nature of this study enables the researcher to make approximations pertaining to the population parameters and to describe relationships between variables (Kelley, Clark, Brown, & Sitzia, 2003). Furthermore, this research employed a cross-sectional time dimension, which entailed the once-off collection of data from multiple respondents, using non-probability sampling techniques (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2013; Wilson, 2014). This method was suitable given the resource constraints placed on this study (Wilson, 2014).

Quantitative data was gathered from respondents using a self-administered, self-report questionnaire that was available in an electronic format on Qualtrics (Krohn, Thornberry, Lizotte, Bell, & Phillips, 2012; Qualtrics, 2014). The use of a questionnaire allows the researcher to reach a larger sample and to collect data at a lower cost and in a more timeous manner (Kelley et al., 2003; Wilson, 2014).

### **Respondents**

The sample was composed of fathers in South Africa who are employed full-time in white-collar jobs. Full-time employment was defined as anyone who worked for more than 40 hours per week. Respondents' participation in the study was voluntary and they were able to withdraw from the study at any point in time. The sample originally consisted of 320 respondents; however, 91 respondents had to be removed for various reasons, such as not answering "yes" to the qualifying statement or because they worked less than 40 hours per week, indicating that they were a part-time employee. After cleaning the dataset, the final sample consisted of 229 working South African fathers.

The demographic information relating to the sample indicated that the mean age of respondents was 45.13 years old ( $SD = 9.29$ , range = 23 - 65) (see Table 2 for further socio-demographic characteristics). Respondents had spent an average of 10.51 years with their current employer ( $SD = 8.54$ , range = 1 - 35). The mean number of hours spent working each week was 53.48 ( $SD = 10.81$ , range = 40 - 90), which included travel time, time spent at the office as well as time spent working from home. The demographic statistics of the sample pointed to the fact that almost two thirds of the sample that was obtained was composed of white males (63.60%). In addition, an overwhelming majority of the respondents were married or living with a partner (91.10%) and more than half of the sample had two children (51.00%).

## SUPPORT-BASED FACTORS THAT FACILITATE WORK-FAMILY ENRICHMENT

Table 2

*Socio-demographic statistics of working fathers (N = 229)*

Characteristic		Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Race	Black African	28	13.60%	13.60%
	White	131	63.60%	77.20%
	Coloured	30	14.60%	91.70%
	Other/foreign national/prefer not to answer	17	8.30%	100.00%
Marital status	Married/living with a partner	205	91.10%	91.10%
	Single/divorced	19	8.30%	99.60%
	Other	1	.40%	100.00%
Domestic support	Yes	155	68.90%	68.90%
	No	70	31.10%	100.00%
Number of children	1	50	24.30%	24.30%
	2	105	51.00%	75.20%
	3	40	19.40%	94.70%
	4	8	3.90%	98.50%
	5	1	.50%	99.00%
	6	1	.50%	99.50%
	13	1	.50%	100.00%

### Procedure

Prior to collecting any data, it was necessary to obtain permission from various organisations to survey their employees. Eight organisations that were based in the Western Cape and Gauteng agreed to participate in this study. In most cases, the individual who granted the researcher permission to survey at their organisation sent out an electronic pre-notice, informing suitable respondents within that particular organisation that the questionnaire would be disseminated soon. This e-mail notice also asked respondents to participate in the study when they received the link to the questionnaire. The approval letters from each organisation were included in the submission to the Commerce Faculty's Ethics in Research Committee at the University of Cape Town (UCT) in order to gain permission to commence with the data collection procedure. Once ethical clearance had been granted, the questionnaire was set up online using Qualtrics (2014).

Data were gathered over a period of six weeks between July and August 2014 by means of two non-probability sampling techniques: namely, convenience and snowball sampling. Respondents were thus selected both on the grounds of their availability and on their voluntary choice to participate in the research (Bryman & Bell, 2012). In addition, snowball sampling enabled the researcher to take advantage of the initial respondents' social networks and their referees' social networks, thereby vastly improving the size of the

sampling pool. Convenience and snowball sampling were deemed appropriate and efficient sampling techniques given the time and budgetary constraints on this study (Atkinson & Flint, 1999; Burns & Burns, 2008). Further, these sampling techniques enable the researcher to compare the findings of this study to previously established findings (Bryman & Bell, 2012).

Once the questionnaire had been set up on Qualtrics (2014), another e-mail communication containing the link to the questionnaire on Qualtrics (2014) was sent out to suitable respondents within each organisation. This notice contained a cover page explaining the purpose of the research, the approximate amount of time it would take to complete the questionnaire and the assurance that participation was voluntary. The cover page further assured respondents that their anonymity and confidentiality would be maintained with regard to any data that they provided. Similarly, respondents were not required to divulge any information that could be used to identify them. Four to six days after sending out the link to the questionnaire on Qualtrics (2014), another e-mail communication was sent out to respondents within particular organisations, urging them to participate and thanking those who had already done so. This is in accordance with findings which suggest that communicating several times with respondents about the questionnaire is the best way to enhance the likelihood of a higher response rate. In addition, consistent with recommendations, the cover letter was attractively designed and an incentive was included in order to enhance the response rate (De Leeuw, Hox, & Dillman, 2008; Dillman, 2011; Schaefer & Dillman, 1998).

Before starting the questionnaire on Qualtrics (2014), respondents were again presented with the aforementioned information in addition to instructions on how to complete the electronic questionnaire. The questionnaire began with a qualifying statement: "I am currently both a father and a full-time employee". If a respondent answered "yes" to this he was directed to continue completing the questionnaire. If a respondent answered "no" they were thanked for their time, but were directed not to continue. The respondent was asked about his children and gender again in the demographics section at the end of the questionnaire as a back-up means to ensure that data was collected from full-time employed fathers only.

## SUPPORT-BASED FACTORS THAT FACILITATE WORK-FAMILY ENRICHMENT

By one month into the data collection process it was evident that only a few individuals had started the questionnaire on Qualtrics (2014). It was therefore necessary to use snowball sampling as well as a paper-and-pencil version of the questionnaire in order to enhance the sampling pool and, consequently, the response rate. Researchers have recommended using various formats of a questionnaire in order to increase the response rate, proposing that this strategy may reduce the risk of a coverage error. The sampling procedure of this study followed recommendations that the online approach should be used initially and that a paper-and-pencil version of the questionnaire should only be considered if the primary technique did not produce the desired response rate (De Leeuw et al., 2008; Schaefer & Dillman, 1998).

In order to initiate the snowball sampling approach, the cover letter accompanying the online questionnaire was updated to ask respondents to please forward the link to the questionnaire on to other respondents who met the sampling criteria. These respondents were then asked to do the same (Vogt & Johnson, 2011).

The hardcopy questionnaire (the paper-and-pencil version) was handed out in various banks around the Western Cape region. The researchers informed the branch manager of the nature and purpose of the research and provided a comprehensive description of the target population. Following this, the branch manager distributed the paper-and-pencil questionnaire to the relevant respondents within each branch. The branch manager then contacted the researcher to collect the completed questionnaires.

This study formed part of a larger study about the experiences of working fathers in South Africa and consequently only eight sub-scales within the questionnaire were related to this study. It was estimated that the total questionnaire should take approximately 20 minutes to complete. Once respondents has completed the questionnaire they were each able to select one of three charities (the Red Cross War Memorial Children's Hospital, the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals [SPCA] or St Luke's Hospice) to which the researchers donated R2.00 (per respondent). It was hoped that this incentive to participate would enhance the response rate (Dillman, 2011).

## Measures

Eight measures were included in a larger electronic questionnaire in order to gather data for the purposes of this study. The chosen measures assessed the nature and extent of WFE and support that the respondents experienced. All responses were on a 5-point Likert-type scale, except for two qualifying questions which required a “yes” or “no” answer from respondents. The following sub-measures of the questionnaire were relevant to the present study:

**Work-family enrichment.** Work-family enrichment (WFE) was measured using six items from Kacmar, Crawford, Carlson, Ferguson and Whitten’s (2014) shortened version of the Work-Family Enrichment Scale (WFES) that was originally developed by Carlson et al. (2006). Three items were used to assess work-to-family enrichment. One item was used to measure each dimension of work-to-family enrichment, namely work-family capital, affect and development (Carlson et al., 2006). An example of an item in the work-to-family direction is “my involvement in my work makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member”. Three items were also used to assess family-to-work enrichment, with one item assessing each of its dimensions, namely family-work affect, development and efficiency (Carlson et al., 2006). An example of an item measuring the family-to-work enrichment direction is “my involvement in my family helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker”.

Kacmar et al. (2014) established a Cronbach’s alpha value of .82 for the work-to-family enrichment sub-scale and .74 for the family-to-work enrichment sub-scale, indicating acceptable internal consistency reliability for the sample. Kacmar et al. (2014) found evidence for discriminant and criterion-related validity for the measure for their sample. WFE was assessed on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). Refer to Appendix A for the full set of items from the WFE scale.

**Top management support.** Respondents’ perceptions of top management support were measured using an adapted version of the managerial support sub-scale that forms part of the larger work-family culture scale developed by Thompson et al. (1999). Three items from the original scale were included, namely items two, eight and 20. These items were selected because they had the highest factor loadings for a sample of American managers and



professionals. All three items were adapted in that the words “manager” or “higher managers” were replaced with “top management” in order to remove any ambiguity surrounding the level of management that this study is aimed at. Furthermore, the word “quite” has been removed from item eight as respondents may have different interpretations of this word. Item 20 has been reworded from “in this organization employees are encouraged to strike a balance between their work and family lives” to “in this organisation top management encourages employees to strike a balance between their work and family lives”. This was done to ensure that respondents think about the influence of top management when responding to the item. An example of an adapted item is “in general, top management in this organisation is accommodating of family-related needs”.

An extra item was included in the top management support scale that did not form part of Thompson et al.’s (1999) original scale. This item reads: “top management in this organisation implements family-friendly policies and practices”. This item has not been included in previous measures, but has been identified as important and relevant to top management support and was therefore included in this study. Refer to Appendix A for the full set of items from the top management support scale.

Top management support was measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranged from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). Thompson et al. (1999) found the scale to be valid and established a satisfactory Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of .91 for the managerial support sub-scale for their sample.

**Supervisor support.** Supervisor support was measured using five out of the six items developed by Anderson et al. (2002). Item two from the original scale (“my supervisor is fair and doesn’t show favouritism in responding to employees’ personal or family needs”) was excluded. This item was excluded because it appears to examine more than one central theme and could, therefore, be considered ambiguous (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009). Item three was slightly adapted from the original scale (“my supervisor is understanding when I talk about my personal or family issues that affect my work”) to “my supervisor understands when I talk about my personal or family issues that affect my work”. The adaptation slightly simplifies the item and thus enhances its clarity for the respondent. An example item from the scale is “my supervisor is supportive when I have a work problem”. Refer to Appendix A for the full set of items from the supervisor support scale.

Anderson et al. (2002) validated the scale for their sample and found satisfactory internal consistency ( $\alpha = .89$ ) for the measure in their research. The original scale was measured on a 4-point Likert-type scale; however, a “maybe” option was included to reduce the risk of obtaining an extreme response style (Weijters, Cabooter, & Schillewaert, 2010). In fact, Weijters et al. (2010) go as far as to suggest that researchers should avoid using 4 or 6-point response scales and should rather opt for a mid-point or neutral option. In line with this argument, the supervisor support scale was measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

**Co-worker support.** Co-worker support was assessed using an adapted version of Anderson et al.’s (2002) scale that was originally designed to measure managerial support. This scale was selected because it has the most accurate representation of social support from the work-domain that is specific to support for managing an individual’s work-family concerns. The existing co-worker support scales are general support scales and, according to a meta-analysis by Kossek et al. (2011), work-family-specific support is a better measure than a general support scale when assessing the work-family interface. It was for this reason that this scale was adapted and used instead of an existing measure that was specifically designed to evaluate general co-worker support.

Five items out of the original six items developed by Anderson et al. (2002) were included in this study. In each item the word “supervisor” was replaced with “co-workers”. Item two from the original scale (“my supervisor is fair and doesn’t show favouritism in responding to employees’ personal or family needs”) was excluded because it was not specific enough. Item three was slightly adapted from the original scale (“my supervisor is understanding when I talk about my personal or family issues that affect my work”) to “my co-workers understand when I talk about my personal or family issues that affect my work”. This modification enhanced the clarity of the item. An example item from the scale is “I feel comfortable bringing up personal or family issues with my co-workers”. Refer to Appendix A for the full set of items from the co-worker support scale.

Anderson et al. (2002) validated the scale for their sample and established a satisfactory Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of .89. The original scale was measured on a 4-point Likert-type scale; however, a “maybe” response category was included to reduce the

risk of obtaining an extreme response style (Weijters et al., 2010). Accordingly, the co-worker support scale was measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

**Spousal support.** Spousal support was assessed using the four-item scale adapted by Narayanan and Savarimuthu (2013) from Procidano and Heller's (1983) ten-item original scale. The word "my family" in the original scale was replaced with "my spouse" to ensure that respondents reflected only upon the support that they receive from their spouse in order to exclude support received from their children or extended family.

The measure, which was originally developed by Procidano and Heller (1983), was recently used by Narayanan and Savarimuthu (2013) who validated the measure and reported a highly satisfactory Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .92 based on a sample of working mothers in India. An example of an adapted item is "when something goes wrong at work, I can talk it over with my spouse". Responses were captured on a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranged from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). Refer to Appendix A for the full set of items from the spousal support scale.

**Extended family support.** Extended family support was assessed using four items from a ten-item family-support measure originally developed by Procidano and Heller (1983). The only adaptation to the measure was the use of "my extended family" as opposed to "my family" to ensure that respondents thought only of the support that they receive from their extended family members, rather than support received from their spouse or children. The scale was recently used by Narayanan and Savarimuthu (2013) who validated the measure and established highly satisfactory internal consistency ( $\alpha = .92$ ) for the measure based on a sample of working mothers based in India. An example of an item from the adapted scale is "my extended family helps me feel better when I've had a hard day at work". Items were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Refer to Appendix A for the full set of items from the extended family support scale.

**Paid domestic support.** Paid domestic support was measured with two self-developed items. Item one asks the respondent to answer "yes" or "no" to whether or not they make use of paid domestic help, including a nanny, char, domestic helper or au pair.

Responses were coded with a 0 for “no” and with a 1 for “yes”. If the respondent answered “yes” then they were asked to complete item two which asked “to what extent are you satisfied with the assistance that you receive from your paid help?”. Respondents were required to rate their response on a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranged from *not at all* (1) to *extremely* (5). Respondents who answered “no” to item one were immediately transferred to the next subscale and were not presented with item two. A positive response to item one was a necessary condition for item two; therefore only item two, which assessed satisfaction with paid domestic support, was included in the subsequent analyses.

**Opportunities for professional development.** Opportunities for professional development (OPD) was evaluated using a three-item scale developed by Bakker (2014). An example of an item is “in my work, I have the opportunity to develop my strong points”. Bakker (2014) has validated the scale with numerous samples and established a high Cronbach’s alpha value of .80 to .85 across various samples. Respondents were provided with a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5), on which they could respond to items.

In addition to Bakker’s (2014) three-item scale, one item (“overall I am satisfied with the opportunities that I have at work to learn new skills that could help me get a better job or find another equally good job if this one doesn’t work out”) from the four-item measure developed by Voydanoff (2004) was included. This item was included in order to develop a more holistic understanding of respondents’ experiences of OPD. Voydanoff (2004) reported that the measure was valid and established a Cronbach’s alpha value of .65 for the sample that was originally obtained. It is likely that the internal consistency of Voydanoff’s (2004) original scale was below the cut-off point of .70 due to the ambiguity of the original items (Burns & Burns, 2008; Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009). The item that was taken from Voydanoff’s (2004) scale was measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranged from *very unsatisfied* (1) to *very satisfied* (5). The original measure was rated on a 4-point Likert-type scale, but a neutral option was included so that respondents were not forced to answer. This was done to reduce the possibility of respondents leaving out the item completely (Ryan & Garland, 1999). Refer to Appendix A for the full set of items from the OPD scale.

**Demographic variables.** Several relevant demographic variables were assessed in this study, such as the spouse’s employment status which was coded 0 for “employed” and 1

for “unemployed”. In addition, respondents were asked to write down their current age, number of children, number of years spent with their current employer and hours worked per week in an open comment section. Finally, respondents indicated their marital status and race by highlighting the relevant box.

### **Statistical Analyses**

The data were exported from Qualtrics (2014) directly into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 22, for analysis (SPSS Statistics, 2014). In order to prepare the data for analysis it was necessary to first clean and code the dataset based on contemporary statistical conventions (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Subsequently, scale validity was examined using exploratory factor analysis (Burns & Burns, 2008). Reliability analyses were conducted using Cronbach’s alpha reliability to assess the measuring instruments’ internal reliability for the sample (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). Descriptive statistics and distribution were assessed in order to describe the composition of the obtained sample (Hair, Babin, Money, & Samouel, 2003) and the propositions were tested using hierarchical regression analyses as well as Baron and Kenny’s (1986) mediation procedure. In addition, G\*Power version 3.1 was used in order to conduct post-hoc power analyses (G\*Power, 2014). Finally, ANOVA analyses were conducted to determine whether or not any sub-group differences existed.

**Data cleaning.** It was necessary to first clean the dataset before the psychometric properties of the scales were examined and the analyses were conducted. The dataset was examined to check for evidence of a response set, to determine whether or not it contained any unrealistic values and if any females, non-fathers or part-time employees had completed the questionnaire. Lastly, the dataset was examined to ensure that respondents had completed at least 75% of each of the sub-scales.

**Baron and Kenny’s (1986) mediation procedure.** Propositions three and four were analysed using Baron and Kenny’s (1986) mediation procedure. The procedure requires at least the first three of the following criteria to be fulfilled:

- i) Firstly, there must be a direct relationship between the independent variable and the criterion variable. This step is required in order to determine whether there is an effect that might potentially be mediated (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Kenny, 2014).
- ii) The predictor must correlate with the mediator variable. For the purposes of this step, the mediator is treated as the dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Kenny, 2014).
- iii) The mediator must be a statistically significant predictor of the criterion variable when controlling for the original independent variable. Additionally, the presence of the mediator should reduce the effect of the independent variable on the criterion variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Kenny, 2014).
- iv) A fourth step is performed to determine whether the mediating variable has a full or partial effect on the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. In step four, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable is measured whilst controlling for the mediating variable. An effect size that is reduced to zero indicates the presence of a full mediator. If the effect size is reduced, but not to the point at which it becomes zero then the intervening variable acts as a partial mediator (Kenny, 2014). It should be noted that step four is not compulsory unless the researcher is specifically examining full mediation models.

There is much debate in existing literature concerning whether or not Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedure for mediation is still applicable and more appropriate than more modern methods that involve bootstrapping. Notwithstanding this debate, researchers have described it as the most widely cited mediation procedure in psychological research (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002; Rucker, Preacher, Tormala, & Petty, 2011). This is corroborated by a Social Science Citation Index search which indicated that Baron and Kenny's (1986) original article on mediation had been cited 22516 times as of December 2014.

Perhaps the greatest criticism of Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation procedure is that it is based on the assumption that the data are normally distributed, which is rarely the case in research within the field of psychology (Kenny, 2014; Micceri, 1989). Preacher and Hayes' (2004) bootstrap method involves the use of a non-parametric test and, as such, it does not assume normality. Whilst this may be true, it is still possible to use Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation procedure even if the data are not normally distributed. This is because Baron and Kenny's (1986) method involves simple linear and hierarchical multiple

regression analyses which are robust tests and can, therefore, be conducted using SPSS on data that deviates from approximate normality. Furthermore, the normal P-P plot of standardised residuals can be examined in the results of the regression analyses to determine whether or not the data appear to be multivariate normal (Pallant, 2010).

In order to avoid making a Type I error, Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach to mediation does not consider statistical significance. It is therefore useful to conduct a post hoc test to examine the indirect effect, otherwise referred to as the "amount of mediation" (Kenny, 2014, p. 1). One of the most commonly used post-hoc analyses for mediation is Sobel's (1982) post-hoc test for significant mediation. Sobel's (1982) test enhances the accuracy of Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation procedure and is used to establish the actual significance level of the model. In addition, Sobel's (1982) test provides evidence as to whether the mediator has a full or partial effect on the relationship between the predictor and criterion variables (Holmbeck, 2002). It should be acknowledged that this analysis assumes a symmetrical dataset. In this way, it is said to be a highly conservative test and consequently, it produces low power estimates (Kenny, 2014; MacKinnon, Warsi, & Dwyer, 1995).

Sobel's (1982) test has been criticised due to the fact that it requires large sample sizes. Instead, researchers have suggested that it is better to employ a design that involves bootstrapping. Researchers generally tend to use Preacher and Hayes' (2004) bootstrap method, which is more accurate at detecting significance in small samples. It is suggested that bootstrapping procedures are effective for testing for significance when using a sample size as small as 20 respondents (Efron & Tibshirani, 1993). Conversely, it has been suggested that Sobel's (1982) test is able to identify a medium effect size in a sample that consists of 100 or more respondents (MacKinnon et al., 2002). Because this study yielded a sample size that was greater than 200 respondents it was deemed appropriate to use Sobel's (1982) test.

**Detection and removal of outliers for multiple regression analysis.** According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), it is important to check the scatterplot and ensure that the minimum and maximum standardised residual values fall within the range of -3.30 to 3.30 when conducting a multiple regression analysis. Any values that fall outside of this range are indicative of extremely high or low scores and are, therefore, considered to be outliers and should be removed before further analysis (Dart, 2013; Pallant, 2010).

When conducting multiple regression analyses outliers may also be detected using Cook's Distance test to determine whether or not certain cases are having an unwarranted influence on the overall regression model (Pallant, 2010). Any case that produces a Cook's Distance value greater than one may possibly be problematic and the researcher should consider removing it from the data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

### **Results**

The objective of the present study was to determine the extent to which distinct forms of work and family social support explain a significant portion of variance in WFE for working fathers in South Africa. The current section outlines the results of the statistical analyses performed on the data in seven separate sub-sections.

The first two sub-sections of the results outline the initial analyses that were performed, including data screening procedures and the psychometric properties of the measures. The psychometric properties section is further sub-divided into two sub-sections that investigate the dimensionality of the relevant variables using exploratory factor analytic techniques and the internal consistency of the scales. Section three outlines important descriptive statistics and the distribution of the data. Section four then examines the relationships between WFE and its proposed antecedents. Section five outlines the relationships between the independent and dependent variables that were examined using a hierarchical multiple regression analysis. In addition, this section explores the results of OPD as a potential mediator between co-worker and supervisor support and WFE. Section six presents the ANOVA results to determine whether differences exist in the means of various sub-groups within the sample. Finally, section seven presents the final notes concerning the results section and a tabulated summary of the findings.

#### **Data Screening**

After data screening, 229 usable cases out of the original 330 cases were retained. Six multivariate outliers were removed because they produced standardised residual values outside of the range of -3.30 to 3.30 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). This is discussed in more detail in section five of the results. The analyses were conducted with and without the six



cases that were identified as problematic, however the results were not statistically significantly different.

### **Psychometric Properties**

It was necessary to conduct preliminary analyses on the data to determine whether the scales measures only what they intended to measure (Conway & Heffcutt, 2003). Exploratory factor analyses were performed using an iterative process in order to identify how many underlying theoretical constructs comprised each of the sub-scales. Additionally, this technique enables the researcher to determine how closely the identified constructs are representative of the variables (Henson & Roberts, 2006). The sample size exceeded the ratio of ten cases per independent variable and, consequently, it was appropriate to conduct a factor analysis (Hair et al., 2013).

Principal axis factoring was used in order to extract factors. This method was selected instead of a principal components analysis because it focuses primarily on the shared variance between items and in doing so, it emphasises the latent factor (Henson & Roberts, 2006). Conversely, principal components analysis simply reduces the variables into a lesser number of components, but does not place particular attention on the underlying factor(s) comprising each scale.

A direct oblimin rotation was chosen in order to enhance the interpretation of the factors that were extracted. An oblique rotation was selected instead of an orthogonal rotation because it does not place any limitations on the location of the factors within the factor space (Kline, 1994). Moreover, there was theoretical evidence to suggest that certain factors within the sub-scales were related to one another (Field, 2009). SPSS is able to conduct either direct oblimin or promax oblique rotations (SPSS, 2014). A direct oblimin rotation was selected as it is reportedly the most commonly used form of oblique rotation (Henson & Roberts, 2006). In addition, the direct oblimin approach is more appropriate for a smaller sample size and is more efficient and reliable in locating the simple factor structure (Field, 2009; Hakstian, 1971; Kline, 1994).

When conducting an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) it is necessary to satisfy several conditions. Firstly, the data set should contain at least five respondents for each item in the sub-scale under evaluation (Gorsuch, 1983; Stevens, 1996). Additionally, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test must produce a value larger than .50, providing evidence for the sampling adequacy (Burns & Burns, 2008; Kaiser, 1970). Lastly, Bartlett's test of sphericity must be significant, demonstrating that the items within the sub-scale adequately correlate with one another (Bartlett, 1950; Kojima, Furukawa, Takahashi, Kawai, Nagaya, & Tokudome, 2002). The results indicated that the aforementioned conditions were satisfied for all of the sub-scales in this study, thus it was appropriate to conduct an EFA.

In addition to the conditions mentioned above it should be noted that when interpreting the factors, Kaiser's (1960) rule was applied. Thus, only those factors that produced eigenvalues larger than 1.00 were considered significant and were retained. Furthermore, only items that contained factor loadings greater than .30 were considered to be significant and were thus retained (Hair et al., 2006).

**Exploratory factor analysis.** The following section presents the results of the exploratory factor analyses that were conducted.

**Work-family enrichment.** The six-item work-family enrichment (WFE) scale was evaluated using principal axis factoring. Only one significant factor was extracted, contrary to expectations (Kacmar et al., 2014). This factor produced an eigenvalue of 2.359 and explained 39.321% of the variance in WFE (factor loadings:  $.562 < r < .697$ ). The scale is, thus, uni-dimensional and is assumed to measure WFE (refer to Table 3 for the full set of item-level factor loadings); therefore, proposition one was not supported.

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Table 3  
*Factor Analysis Results for the WFE Scale*

Code	Item	WFE
WFE_1	My involvement in my work helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member.	.644
WFE_2	My involvement in my work makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member.	.628
WFE_3	My involvement in my work helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member.	.624
WFE_4	My involvement in my family helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker.	.562
WFE_5	My involvement in my family puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better worker.	.598
WFE_6	My involvement in my family encourages me to use my work time in a focussed manner and this helps me be a better worker.	.697
Eigenvalue		2.359
% Variance explained		39.32%
% Cumulative variance		39.32%

*Notes.*  $N = 229$  after listwise deletion of missing data; WFE = work-family enrichment.

**Social support.** Principal axis factoring with a direct oblimin rotation was conducted to on the social support items (including the four-item top management support scale, the five-item supervisor support scale, the five-item co-worker support scale, the four-item spousal support scale and the four-item extended family support scale) using a sample of 229 working fathers. In line with existing research, five distinct factors emerged that explained 28.38%, 16.40%, 7.48%, 6.15% and 4.91% of the variance in social support, respectively. Refer to Table 3 for information concerning the eigenvalues, variance explained and factor loadings associated with each factor. To enhance the interpretation of the scales a direct oblimin rotation was conducted and indicated the existence of simple factor structure (Pallant, 2010; Thurstone, 1947). The rotated solution indicated that five distinct groupings of factor loadings emerged, which was interpreted as indicating each of the five sources of social support, and there was no evidence of significant cross-loadings between factors. In Table 4, the social support variables have been ordered in a descending manner according to factor loading sizes in order to enhance clarity for interpretation purposes. The results of the EFA provided support for the use of supervisor, extended family, co-worker, spousal and top management support items as distinct scales.

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Table 4  
Factor Analysis Results for the Social Support Scales

Code	Items	SS	Fam	Co_Sup	Spouse	Tmgmt
SS_1	My supervisor is supportive when I have a work problem.	<b>.694</b>	-.069	-.098	.030	.102
SS_2	My supervisor accommodates me when I have family or personal business to take care of (e.g. medical appointments, meeting with my child's teacher).	<b>.599</b>	.076	-.122	.032	.192
SS_3	My supervisor understands when I talk about my personal or family issues that affect my work.	<b>.866</b>	-.055	.003	.106	-.033
SS_4	I feel comfortable bringing up personal or family issues with my supervisor.	<b>.789</b>	.103	.228	-.106	-.109
SS_5	My supervisor really cares about the effects that my work demands have on my family life.	<b>.694</b>	.035	.215	-.049	.028
Fam_1	When something goes wrong at work, I can talk it over with my extended family.	-.004	<b>.869</b>	.018	.003	.017
Fam_2	My extended family helps me feel better when I've had a hard day at work.	.005	<b>.903</b>	.007	.015	-.015
Fam_3	I am getting enough support from my extended family towards my career.	-.056	<b>.894</b>	.007	.035	.047
Fam_4	My extended family understands my work demands and appreciates the same.	.053	<b>.847</b>	-.048	.035	.000
Co_Sup1	My co-workers are supportive when I have a work problem.	-.017	-.032	<b>.621</b>	.072	.061
Co_Sup2	My co-workers accommodate me when I have family or personal business to take care of (e.g. medical appointments, meeting with my child's teacher).	.104	-.017	<b>.591</b>	-.076	.201
Co_Sup3	My co-workers understand when I talk about my personal or family issues that affect my work.	.067	-.099	<b>.685</b>	.055	.069
Co_Sup4	I feel comfortable bringing up personal or family issues with my co-workers.	.035	.087	<b>.702</b>	-.024	-.116
Co_Sup5	My co-workers really care about the effects that my work demands have on my family life.	-.058	.046	<b>.835</b>	.036	.023
Spouse1	When something goes wrong at work, I can talk it over with my spouse.	.029	.158	.008	<b>.511</b>	.037
Spouse2	My spouse helps me feel better when I've had a hard day at work.	.083	-.008	-.022	<b>.870</b>	-.085
Spouse3	I am getting enough support from my spouse towards my career.	-.011	-.026	.024	<b>.938</b>	.006
Spouse4	My spouse understands my work demands and appreciates the same.	-.067	.015	.060	<b>.771</b>	.051
Tmgmt_1	In general, top management in this organisation is accommodating of family-related needs.	.024	.032	.076	.076	<b>.672</b>
Tmgmt_2	In this organisation top management encourages employees to strike a balance between their work and family lives.	.063	-.001	.020	-.017	<b>.725</b>
Tmgmt_3	In the event of a conflict top management is understanding when employees have to put their family first.	-.001	.024	.006	-.067	<b>.757</b>
Tmgmt_4	Top management in this organisation implements family-friendly policies and practices.	.006	.006	.015	.039	<b>.778</b>
Eigenvalue		6.244	3.609	1.647	1.355	1.082
% Variance		28.38%	16.40%	7.48%	6.15%	4.91%
% Cumulative Variance		28.38%	44.78%	52.27%	58.43%	63.35%

Notes. *N* = 205 after listwise deletion of missing data; direct oblimin rotation; the most significant factor loading for each item is highlighted in bold; SS = supervisor support; Fam = extended family support; Co\_Sup = co-worker support; Spouse = spouse/life partner support; Tmgmt = top management support.

**OPD.** Principal axis factoring was performed in order to extract factors from the four-item OPD scale. As expected, the results indicated that only one distinct factor was extracted. Factor one had an eigenvalue of 2.557 and explained 63.913% of the variance in OPD. Item one produced the highest factor loading (.856), whilst item four produced the lowest factor loading (.746) (refer to Table 5 for a further breakdown of the item-level factor loadings for the OPD scale). The scale is, thus, uni-dimensional and is assumed to measure OPD.

Table 5  
*Factor Analysis Results for the OPD Scale*

Code	Item	OPD
OPD_1	In my work, I have the opportunity to develop my strong points.	.856
OPD_2	In my work, I can develop myself sufficiently.	.811
OPD_3	My work offers me the possibility to learn new things.	.780
OPD_4	Overall, I am satisfied with the opportunities that I have at work to learn new skills.	.746
Eigenvalue		2.557
% Variance		63.91%
% Cumulative variance		63.91%

*Notes.*  $N = 226$  after listwise deletion of missing data; OPD = opportunities to develop others.

**Reliability analysis.** Scale reliability was assessed using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient to assess the internal consistency of each scale. The reliability coefficients for the scales ranged from .790 to .937 (refer to Table 7). It is therefore evident that all scales produced Cronbach's alpha coefficients above the standard cut-off point of .700 (Cortina, 1993; Hair et al., 2003; Nunnally, 1967). Any value above .700 is indicative of acceptable, good or excellent reliability (George & Mallery, 2003). In addition, all scales contained a minimum of three items. See Appendix B: Table B1 for more information relating to the reliability analyses.

### Descriptive Statistics

The data were examined for normality by assessing the skewness and kurtosis of the distribution. Skewness refers to the distribution's symmetry, whereas kurtosis is concerned with the shape of the distribution with regard to its width and height (Burdenski, 2000; Burns & Burns, 2008; Field, 2009). The closer the skewness and kurtosis values are to zero, the closer the data points are to being normally distributed or in line with the Gaussian curve

(Burns & Burns, 2008; Field, 2009). It should be noted that whilst many statistical analyses assume that the data are normally distributed, it has been suggested that normality is highly uncommon in the broad field of Psychology (Micceri, 1989). The parametric analyses used in SPSS are highly robust and can, therefore, be used even when the data are not perfectly normally distributed (Pallant, 2010).

With regards to normality, the distribution of scores for WFE as well as for co-worker support was slightly negatively skewed, with skewness values ranging from -.636 to -.851. Upon further examination of these variables, co-worker support and WFE were moderately more leptokurtic than the Gaussian curve, with kurtosis values of 1.058 and 2.954 for co-worker support and WFE, respectively. The descriptive statistics also indicated that OPD and spousal support were relatively negatively skewed, with skewness values ranging from -1.029 to -1.314 respectively. In addition, the distribution of data points for the OPD and spousal support scales was moderately more peaked than the Gaussian curve, with kurtosis values extending from 1.686 to 2.552 for OPD and spousal support, respectively.

Table 6 below indicates that respondents reported high levels of WFE ( $M = 4.047$ ,  $SD = .564$ ). With regards to work-based sources of social support, the findings indicated that respondents experienced slightly more support from their supervisor ( $M = 3.821$ ,  $SD = .706$ ) than they did from either their co-workers ( $M = 3.753$ ,  $SD = .610$ ) or top management ( $M = 3.718$ ,  $SD = .734$ ). In terms of family-based social support, respondents reported receiving more support from their spouse ( $M = 4.217$ ,  $SD = .714$ ) than they did from their extended family ( $M = 3.431$ ,  $SD = .995$ ). Respondents reported moderate levels of satisfaction with paid domestic support ( $M = 3.903$ ,  $SD = .762$ ).

### **Correlation Analysis**

A Pearson Product-Moment correlation analysis was conducted in order to determine whether or not the variables were related to one another and could, therefore, be used in further analyses. Table 7 below presents the correlation coefficients of the variables under examination. It should be noted that correlation coefficients were interpreted according to Cohen's recommendations (1988). A correlation coefficient of .100 indicates a small effect, a

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coefficient of .300 indicates an average effect and lastly, a coefficient of .500 or greater represents a strong correlation effect (Cohen, 1988).

Table 6  
*Descriptive Statistics and Distribution Values*

Variable	N	M	SD	SE	Skewness	Kurtosis
Work-family enrichment	229	4.047	.564	.037	-.851	2.954
OPD	226	3.973	.727	.048	-1.029	1.686
Top management support	225	3.718	.734	.048	-.636	.665
Supervisor support	225	3.821	.706	.047	-.237	-.161
Co-worker support	225	3.753	.610	.040	-.636	1.058
Spousal support	205	4.217	.714	.049	-1.314	2.552
Extended family support	225	3.431	.995	.066	-.384	-.431
Satisfaction with PD support	155	3.903	.762	.061	-.369	-.098

Notes. N = number of respondents after pairwise deletion of missing data; M = mean; SD = standard deviation; SE = standard error of mean; PD = paid domestic; OPD = opportunities to develop others.

Table 7  
*Correlation Matrix of Variables Under Investigation*

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Work-family enrichment	(.790)							
2. OPD	<b>.314**</b>	(.868)						
3. Top management support	<b>.265**</b>	<b>.421**</b>	(.849)					
4. Supervisor support	<b>.199*</b>	<b>.394**</b>	<b>.540**</b>	(.873)				
5. Co-worker support	<b>.313**</b>	<b>.363**</b>	<b>.335**</b>	<b>.463**</b>	(.827)			
6. Spousal support	<b>.355**</b>	<b>.290**</b>	<b>.192*</b>	.142	.121	(.867)		
7. Extended family support	<b>.206*</b>	<b>.185*</b>	.133	.102	.079	<b>.506**</b>	(.937)	
8. Satisfaction with paid domestic support	<b>.227**</b>	.142	<b>.199*</b>	.053	<b>.171*</b>	.156	<b>.316**</b>	(-)

Note. N = 162 after listwise deletion of missing data; Cronbach's alpha reported on the diagonal; Cronbach's alpha value not calculated for a single-item scale; OPD = opportunities for professional development.

\* p ≤ .05, \*\* p ≤ .01

The correlation matrix above (Table 7) indicates that WFE has the strongest association with spousal support ( $r = .355, p < .01$ ), followed by OPD ( $r = .314, p < .01$ ) and co-worker support ( $r = .313, p < .01$ ); therefore, as OPD and support from one's co-workers and spouse increases, so too does one's level of WFE. Even though these are the strongest relationships that were detected, they are still only moderate in nature (Cohen, 1988). The two strongest associations were between top management support and supervisor support ( $r = .540, p < .01$ ) and extended family support and spousal support ( $r = .506, p < .01$ ). Relationships between the social support variables were expected because they are all sources of social support and should theoretically associate with one another.

### Regression Analysis

**Social support and WFE.** A two-step hierarchical multiple regression model was used to explore the relationship between *social support* and *WFE*. In step one, two demographic control variables were entered, namely *spouse's employment status* and *age*. *Supervisor, top management, co-worker, spouse, extended family* and *satisfaction with paid domestic support* were entered into step two. *WFE* was included as the criterion in the hierarchical multiple regression analysis. Table 8 displays the unstandardised regression coefficients, the standard error and the standardised regression coefficients, the confidence intervals which were set at 95% for the unstandardised beta values,  $R$ ,  $R^2$  and change in  $R^2$  for step one and two of the analysis.

In step one of the regression model, the demographic control variables accounted for 1.40% of the variance in *WFE*; however, the overall model was not found to be statistically significant,  $F(2, 133) = 1.365, p = .261$ . The adjusted  $R^2$  value of .005 signified that *age* and *spouse's employment status* explained 0.5% of the variance in *WFE*. The results indicated that subsequent to step one there were no significant predictors of *WFE* (refer to Table 8).

Step two included the addition of the six social support variables. The overall model was found to be statistically significant,  $F(8, 127) = 5.753, p < .001$ , and the social support variables together accounted for 22% of the variance in *WFE*, over and above that explained by the respondent's *age* and his *spouse's employment status* (refer to Table 8). The results indicated that after step two, both *spousal* ( $\beta = .327, p < .001$ ) and *co-worker support* ( $\beta = .240, p < .01$ ) were significant predictors of *WFE*. Based on these findings, the incremental change in explained variance was significantly greater after *co-worker* and *spousal support* were entered into the model ( $\Delta R^2 = .246, p < .001$ ). It can be concluded that the findings provided support for proposition two: co-worker and spousal support help to predict WFE for working fathers in South Africa.

A post-hoc power test was conducted and produced an observed power coefficient of .999 (input parameters:  $N = 136$ ;  $\alpha$  error probability = .05). Furthermore, the results yielded a medium effect size ( $f_2 = .326$ ) (Cohen, 1988).



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Table 8

*Hierarchical Multiple Regression Results for Dependent Variable: WFE*

Variable	Step One					Step Two				
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	95% <i>CI</i>		<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	$\beta$	95% <i>CI</i>	
				LL	UL				LL	UL
Spouse's employment status	-.077	.059	-.114	-.194	.040	-.083	.054	-.123	-.189	.024
Age	-.004	.005	-.064	-.015	.007	-.002	.005	-.034	-.012	.007
Top management support						.115	.076	.146	-.035	.265
Supervisor support						-.012	.078	-.015	-.166	.142
Co-worker support						.210	.078	<b>.240**</b>	.055	.365
Spousal support						.247	.068	<b>.327***</b>	.133	.381
Extended family support						-.027	.049	-.049	-.124	.071
Satisfaction with PD support						.049	.059	.068	-.068	.166
R <sup>2</sup>			.020					.266		
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>			.005					.220		
Change in R <sup>2</sup>								.246		

*Notes.* *N* = 136 after listwise deletion of missing data; *B* = unstandardised beta coefficient; *SE B* = standard error of the unstandardised beta coefficient;  $\beta$  = standardised beta coefficient; *CI* = confidence interval for unstandardised beta coefficients; *LL* = lower limit, *UL* = upper limit; PD = paid domestic.

\*\**p* ≤ .01, \*\*\**p* ≤ .001

**OPD as a mediator between supervisor support and WFE.** Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation procedure, as outlined in the method section, was performed in order to test proposition three. The results of step one indicated that *supervisor support* was a statistically significant predictor of *WFE* ( $\beta = .248, t = 3.798, p < .001$ ), thus fulfilling the first criterion of Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation procedure. In step two it was determined that *supervisor support* explained a significant proportion of variance in *OPD* ( $\beta = .474, t = 7.940, p < .001$ ).

A two-step hierarchical regression analysis was used to assess step three of the mediation procedure. The results of step one of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated that *supervisor support* was a statistically significant predictor of *OPD* ( $\beta = .253, t = 3.853, p < .001$ ). *OPD* was added into step two of the hierarchical regression analysis. The results of step two showed that the standardised beta coefficient of *supervisor support* was reduced to .191 ( $t = 2.567, p < .05$ ). In contrast, *OPD* was not found to be a statistically significant predictor of *WFE* ( $\beta = .132, t = 1.773, p = .078$ ). Consequently, the findings did not provide support for proposition three; therefore, *OPD* does not significantly mediate the relationship between supervisor support and WFE.

**OPD as a mediator between co-worker support and WFE.** Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation procedure, as outlined in the method section, was used to test proposition four in which it was proposed that *OPD* mediates the relationship between co-worker support and WFE.

In step one of the mediation procedure the regression model examining whether *co-worker support* predicts *WFE* was found to be statistically significant ( $\beta = .308, t = 4.812, p < .001$ ). The results of step two of the mediation procedure indicated that *co-worker support* is a significant predictor of *OPD* (the mediator) ( $\beta = .283, t = 4.381, p < .001$ ). Subsequently, step three involved a hierarchical multiple regression analysis in which *co-worker support* was added in step one and was found to be a significant predictor of *WFE* ( $\beta = .302, t = 4.698, p < .001$ ). *OPD* was added into the second step of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis. According to the results of this analysis the standardised beta coefficient of *co-worker support* was reduced from  $\beta = .302$  ( $t = 4.698, p < .001$ ) in step one, to  $\beta = .269$  ( $t = 4.031, p < .001$ ) in step two; however, *co-worker support* was still found to be a significant predictor of *WFE*. Conversely, the results indicated that *OPD* was not a statistically

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significant predictor of *WFE* ( $\beta = .117, t = 1.748, p = .082$ ). The findings do not support proposition four; therefore, *OPD* does not significantly mediate the relationship between co-worker support and *WFE*.

**Regression diagnostics.** The results of the hierarchical and simple linear regression analyses indicated the extent to which the independent variables explained variance in the dependent variables, otherwise referred to as the coefficient of multiple determination or  $R^2$  (Blaikie, 2004). It should be noted that the larger the coefficient of multiple determination, the greater the explanatory power of the predictor (Hair et al., 2003).

The pre-requisite conditions associated with the procedure were satisfied prior to conducting the analysis. Firstly, in line with Green's (1991) formula ( $N > 50 + 8m$ , where "m" represents the number of independent variables), the sample size was large enough to conduct a multiple regression analysis. The largest sample size required for the regression analyses was 98 respondents and this study had a sample size of 228 respondents after casewise deletion of missing data. It was evident that a further six cases needed to be removed as they appeared to be multivariate outliers based on their standardised residual values. Once these outliers were removed the minimum standardised residual value was smaller than -3.30 and the maximum standardised residual value was less than 3.30 for each analysis, indicating that the data did not contain any additional outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Cook's Distance test indicated that the data did not contain any multivariate outliers.

In addition to the conditions mentioned above, there was no evidence of multicollinearity for any of the regression analyses. Multicollinearity is present when the independent variables are strongly related to one another. The Tolerance values were all less than .10 and the VIF values were not larger than ten; therefore, there was no evidence of multicollinearity (Dart, 2013; Pallant, 2010). Finally, the data were assumed to be multivariate normal based on the fact that the observed data points fell close to the diagonal line on the normal P-P plot of regression standardised residuals. Consequently, it was deemed appropriate to conduct multiple regression analysis.

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### ANOVA

Several ANOVAs were conducted to examine whether or not respondents experienced varying levels of WFE based on their race, current marital status, number of children and the industry in which they work. The findings indicated that respondents did not differ significantly with regards to their experience of WFE based on any of the previously-mentioned characteristics.

### Final Notes

The findings of this study indicated that WFE is a uni-dimensional construct, contrary to expectations. In addition, the results provided support for the proposition that social support predicts WFE, although within this model only co-worker and spousal support were found to be statistically significant predictors of WFE. It was established that OPD does not mediate the relationship between supervisor support and WFE or co-worker support and WFE. Refer to Table 9 for a summary of the findings.

Table 9  
*Summary of Propositions and Findings*

<b>Proposition</b>	<b>Data Analytic Procedure</b>	<b>Support</b>
1. Work-to-family and family-to-work enrichment are independent constructs.	EFA	Not supported
2. Social support helps to predict WFE	Correlation analysis; Hierarchical multiple regression	Supported
2.a) Social support at work helps to predict work-to-family enrichment amongst working fathers	Hierarchical multiple regression	Supported for co-workers
2.b) Social support at home helps to predict family-to-work enrichment for working fathers	Hierarchical multiple regression	Supported for spouse
3. OPD mediates the relationship between supervisor support and WFE.	Linear regression; Hierarchical multiple regression	Not supported
4. OPD mediates the relationship between co-worker support and WFE.	Linear regression; Hierarchical multiple regression	Not supported

*Notes.* OPD = Opportunities for professional development.

### Discussion

The objective of the present study was to examine the relationships between several sources of work-based and family-based support and WFE in order to determine how best

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organisations and families can support working fathers in South Africa. The findings of this study help organisations and families alike to determine which specific sources of support are the most effective in facilitating WFE. In addition, the findings indicated that contrary to expectations, OPD does not act as a mediator and thus it is not an additional source of support that adds to the relationship between supervisor and co-worker support and WFE. The present and final section offers a discussion of the findings obtained in relation to existing literature. In addition, implications for theory and practice as well as limitations associated with the study are discussed.

### **Contributions of the Study**

This study furthers knowledge concerning the positive work-family interface through the following contributions, which are subsequently discussed in greater detail:

1. Empirically examining the directionality of WFE.
2. Empirically assessing several sources of social support to determine which accounts for the most variance in WFE.
3. Empirically examining OPD as a mediator of the relationship between supervisor support and WFE.
4. Empirically examining OPD as a mediator of the relationship between co-worker support and WFE.

### **The Nature of Work-Family Enrichment**

Contrary to expectations based on existing literature (Carlson et al., 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Jaga, Bagraim, & Williams, 2013), an exploratory factor analysis revealed that WFE comprised a single direction. It was therefore not possible to distinguish between work-to-family and family-to-work enrichment. There are two plausible explanations for this finding.

Firstly, the uni-dimensionality of the WFE scale may be an outcome of the particular scale that was used. Kacmar et al.'s (2014) abridged version of the original Work-Family Enrichment Scale (WFES) (Carlson et al., 2006) was used for the purposes of the present

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study. Kacmar et al. (2014) developed a six-item scale that assessed both the directionality and dimensionality of WFE. This was beneficial as the scales that were used in this study formed part of a larger questionnaire. In this regard, it has been suggested that longer questionnaires are associated with a higher rate of missing data and a higher amount of individuals who refuse to participate in the study based on its length (Stanton, Sinar, Balzer, & Smith, 2002). In order to keep the number of items to a minimum it was therefore more appropriate to use the shortened WFE scale.

In addition, it is possible that in the context of the present study, the respondents do not perceive the work and family domains to be distinct from one another. Since respondents were not able to discriminate between the work-to-family and family-to-work directions of WFE, the scale was found to be uni-dimensional for the sample. In the future, researchers should explore the dimensionality and directionality of Kacmar et al.'s (2014) WFE scale across diverse samples.

### **The Relationship between Social Support and WFE**

The present study examined six sources of social support in relation to WFE. The findings indicated that only spousal and co-worker support were significant predictors of WFE. Moreover, it was established that co-worker and spousal support accounted for a significant proportion of variance in WFE, over and above that explained by the spouse's employment status and the age of the respondent. These findings will be interpreted in three separate sub-sections: the effect of the demographic control variables on WFE; work-based sources of social support and WFE; and family-based social support and WFE.

**The association between demographic control variables and WFE.** A hierarchical multiple regression analysis revealed that age and the spouse's employment status did not account for a significant portion of variance in WFE. Existing research has displayed inconsistent findings with regard to the control effects of both of these variables. Grzywacz, Alemida and McDonald (2002) as well as Gordon, Whelan-Berry and Hamilton (2007) determined that age does have a significant association with WFE. In contrast, other researchers have provided empirical support for the proposition that age does not significantly impact upon individuals' experience of WFE (Aryee et al., 2005; Bhargava &

Baral, 2009; Baral & Bhargava, 2011a). In addition, the spouse's employment status did not significantly influence WFE. Aryee et al. (2005) determined that spouse's employment status was significantly correlated with family-to-work enrichment, but not work-to-family enrichment. However, the finding that age and spouse's employment status were not significant predictors of WFE was further supported by ANOVA analyses that produced insignificant results. The results of the ANOVA analyses suggested that sub-group differences do not exist in terms of respondents' experience of WFE ( $p$ -value < .05).

**Work-based social support and WFE.** Three sources of social support that originate in the work domain were examined in order to determine whether or not they explained unique variance in WFE for working fathers in South Africa. According to the findings of the present study, co-worker support was the only work-based source of support that was found to be a significant predictor of WFE for working fathers in South Africa. This finding is similar to that of Molino et al. (2013) who examined the relationship between supervisor and co-worker support and WFE and determined that only co-worker support had a statistically significant direct relationship WFE.

Haddock, Zimmerman, Lyness and Ziemba (2006) proposed that co-worker support has a positive impact on the work-family interface. Haddock et al. (2006) suggested that co-workers are able to support individuals in managing their work and family roles through practical help and empathic understanding. For example, it was suggested that co-workers may provide instrumental support by covering employed parents' work-related duties while the parents attended to their family responsibilities. Alternatively, co-workers may provide support by listening to an individual's concerns about coping with stressful work- and family-related situations. Haddock et al. (2006, para. 49) described this form of support as something that "transcends the bounds of personal and professional relationships and emerged as a genuine connection between professional colleagues". It was further stated that this type of relationship was often mutually beneficial for the relevant co-workers and the working parents (Haddock et al., 2006).

The finding that co-worker support explains a significant amount of variance in WFE can be corroborated by several past studies (Hill; 2005; Korabik & Warner, 2013; Molino et al., 2013; Mostert et al., 2011; Van Aarde & Mostert, 2008; Wadsworth & Owens, 2007). Researchers have determined that there might be a direct relationship between supportive co-

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workers and family-to-work enrichment, based on the finding that in many cases employees who have supportive families are more likely to be positively received by their colleagues (Lu et al., 2009). Moreover, Molino et al. (2013) proposed that the quality of the relationships that one has with one's co-workers is particularly important. They also suggested that high quality relationships with one's colleagues can create an environment which promotes positive workplace experiences that can be transferred to the family domain, thereby facilitating the WFE process (Molino et al., 2013).

Whilst co-worker support significantly predicted WFE, the results of this study indicated that neither supervisor support nor top management support significantly predicted WFE for working fathers. Findings concerning the relationship between supervisor support and WFE have been somewhat inconsistent in past studies. Several researchers have determined that supervisory support is positively associated with WFE (Baral & Bhargava, 2011b; Cinamon & Rich, 2010; Mostert et al., 2011; Nicklin & McNall, 2011; Van Aarde & Mostert, 2008; Wadsworth & Owens, 2007). However, Wayne et al. (2006) and Molino et al. (2013) did not find empirical support for a direct relationship between supervisor support and WFE. Furthermore, Aryee et al. (2005) determined that there was not a significant relationship between WFE and supervisor support in a sample of Indian parents who were employed on a full-time basis.

Whilst there is existing research that explores the relationship between supervisor support and WFE, there is little existing literature concerning the direct relationship between top management support and WFE. It has however been determined that top management support is associated with reduced work-family conflict (Glaveli et al., 2013; Thompson et al., 1999). It was suggested that this occurs because employees feel that senior management acknowledge and value them as "whole persons", not merely as workers (Glaveli et al., 2013). By valuing employees as whole persons, top management may facilitate an environment that promotes multiple role involvement, and thus WFE. Although top management may act as a proxy for organisational culture (Thompson et al., 1999), future research should rather examine factors that influence the direct relationship between top management support and WFE.

In the present study, the lack of a significant relationship between supervisor and/or top management support and WFE may be linked to the perceived or actual stigma



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experienced by employed fathers, in their capacity as fathers. For example, working fathers may experience femininity stigma in that they are judged to be weaker than men who uphold the ideal worker norm (Rudman & Mescher, 2013). Furthermore, Vandello, Hettinger, Bosson and Siddiqi (2013) determined that fathers who sought flexible work schedules following the birth of a child were more likely to receive poorer performance ratings and lower raises. This indicates that working fathers who are more involved in their family-life may experience stigma in that they are associated with undesirable and feminine qualities which could impact negatively on their career (Rudman & Mescher, 2013).

In a Scandinavian study, Holt and Lewis (2009) stated that organisations are constituted by gendered structures that remain deeply entrenched and are particularly slow to change, despite the shift towards a more egalitarian society. This finding was corroborated by Brescoll, Glass and Sedlovskaya (2013) who determined that supervisors are more likely to give permission to working fathers to utilise flexible work arrangements for career advancement purposes than for family-related purposes. This indicates that supervisors may hold negative attitudes concerning working fathers who place an increased emphasis on their family role as distinct from their work role. While there is evidence of a shift in values towards a dual-earner dual-carer society, it may be that the majority of working fathers in South Africa still fear the potential for negative consequences resulting from increased involvement in the family domain.

In line with the above, a father who gives equal attention to his work and family roles may believe that he is violating the traditional “ideal worker” norm and, consequently, he may fear facing adverse career consequences, such as limited scope for progression within the organisation, or being classified as feminine (Brumley, 2014; Kelly, Ammons, Chermack, & Moen, 2010; Sallee, 2012; Schulte, 2014). An example of this is when working fathers feel that they stand out to their managers for choosing the “daddy track” instead of relentlessly pursuing their career (De Janasz et al., 2013; Hall & Richter, 1990). Researchers have proposed that employees who feel pressurised to uphold the “ideal worker” norm are not able to manage their work and family roles as effectively as employees who do not experience such pressure (Leschyshyn & Minnotte, 2014).

Consistent with the “ideal worker” notion, employed fathers who believe that seeking work-family support from their supervisor or top management within the organisation will

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affect their career progression are more likely to be discouraged from doing so. This suggestion is aligned with existing literature that reports that working fathers rarely utilise formal work-family initiatives, in order to avoid stigma and negative career consequences (Brumley, 2014; Rudman & Mescher, 2013; Sallee, 2012; Schulte, 2014). Based on this logic, it is also possible that they may avoid seeking informal, work-family social support from authority figures. If supervisors and top management are not aware of this problem or have not created a family-friendly work environment, then they may not necessarily be cognisant of the need to provide adequate support to employed fathers. Working fathers may therefore feel more comfortable seeking support from their co-workers than from their supervisor or top management as they believe that their co-workers are not able to influence their career progression in the same way that a supervisor or top management can. This notion is connected to the idea that the interactions that one has with one's co-workers may be qualitatively dissimilar to those interactions with management based on each party's organisational status (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Ducharme & Martin, 2000; Rousseau & Aubé, 2010).

One's interaction with one's supervisors and top management may also be influenced by leader-member exchange theory. Subordinates who are classified as part of their supervisor's or management's "in-group" are more likely to have access to greater benefits and have more influence than "out-group" employees, in return for their loyalty. The relationship between a supervisor and an "out-group" member is often characterised by position power. The supervisor is thus more likely to be less caring and supportive of an "out-group" member's non-work-related needs (Agarwala, Arizkuren-Eleta, Del Castillo, Muñiz-Ferrer, & Gartzia, 2014; Gerstner & Day, 1997). It may be that working fathers are perceived to be "out-group" members if they do not uphold the "ideal worker" norm.

An additional explanation as to why supervisor support and top management support are not predictors of WFE is that these sources of work-based social support have little influence on an employee's experience of the work-family interface if they perceive the work and family domains to be independent of one another. This explanation was provided by Allard, Haas and Hwang (2011) when they did not find a significant relationship between supervisor and top management support and work-family conflict, for a sample of working fathers in Sweden. This finding is particularly surprising in that Sweden can be considered one of the most progressive countries when it comes to promoting father involvement (Hall,

1990; Klinth, 2008). In the present study, the sample that was obtained may contain a large amount of individuals whose supervisors and top management still belong to the generation for which the traditional “male-breadwinner, female-home-maker” model was approved. Consequently, individuals who subscribe to the traditional model may not provide adequate work-family support to working fathers. Working fathers are thus less likely to experience WFE.

*Supervisor support, OPD and WFE.* The results of this study did not support the proposition that OPD mediates the relationship between supervisor support and WFE. This finding is inconsistent with that of Molino et al. (2013) who determined that supervisor support was associated with WFE via OPD. The study conducted by Molino et al. (2013) appears to be the only other empirical investigation into this relationship. One of the reasons that the findings of this study did not support that of Molino et al. (2013) might relate to the different contexts in which the studies were conducted.

Molino et al. (2013) examined the relationship between supervisor support, OPD and WFE using a sample of self-employed individuals who worked in consulting roles in Italy. Furthermore, Molino et al. (2013) included males and females as well as parents and childless individuals in their sample. Conversely, this study specifically examined the relationship between supervisor support, OPD and WFE within the context of working fathers in South Africa. In addition, in this study respondents were required to be employed on a full-time basis as opposed to self-employed. While Molino et al. (2013) did include working fathers in their study, there were several variations in the sampling criteria in their study relative to the present study, which may have contributed to the inconsistent findings between the two studies.

Another plausible explanation for the finding that OPD does not mediate the relationship between supervisor support and WFE may be linked to the above-mentioned argument that supervisors potentially discriminate against working fathers based on their failure to uphold the “ideal worker” norm. If this is the case then working fathers’ fear of adverse career consequences based on their increased participation in the family domain may, in fact, be valid. Adverse career consequences have been linked to gendered biases in the workplace and inhibit an individual from career progression. Sallee (2012) suggested that traditional gender role expectations have not yet transformed to the extent that organisational

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members fully support employed fathers in both their role as an employee and as a father. Men are thus expected to prioritise their work role, whereas it is acceptable for a woman to divide her attention between her work and family roles (Mauno, Kinnunen, & Piitulainen, 2010). Furthermore, it has been suggested that men have to choose which role they want to perform optimally in. Conversely, women appear to be able to function equally well in multiple roles. This is partly based on the fact that organisational structures are often not designed to accommodate the needs of working fathers who want to increase their involvement in the home domain. For example, if a supervisor believes that a working father is spending too much time engaging in his family role, the supervisor may assume that this individual is not serious about his career (Sallee, 2012).

In line with the findings presented above, researchers have determined that there is a moderate to large positive association between supervisor support and OPD. In addition, it has been established that both supervisor support and OPD are related to increased WFE (Bakker et al., 2011; Molino et al., 2013). Conversely, if a working father does not receive support from his supervisor he is also less likely to be provided with OPD. Without the opportunity to enhance his resource base through professional development and social support, he is less likely to be able to manage his multiple role engagement to facilitate WFE.

*Co-worker support, OPD and WFE.* In this study it was established that OPD does not mediate the relationship between co-worker support and WFE. Given the paucity of information concerning OPD and WFE, this finding extends knowledge concerning the role of OPD in the relationship between social support and WFE. The findings of this study were consistent with that of Molino et al. (2013) who established that co-worker support directly predicted WFE, but that OPD did not mediate this relationship. Molino et al. (2013) proposed that this result might relate to the fact that Italian organisations tend to be structured in a rigid hierarchy and, consequently, colleagues are not permitted to contribute to the professional development of one another.

South African organisations were organised in a strict hierarchical format during the apartheid regime (Thomas & Bendixen, 2000). Many organisations may therefore have been slow to re-design their structure and are, thus, still organised in a formal hierarchy. It is therefore unlikely that employees would be able provide OPD to their colleagues in order to further their professional development, thereby contributing to the WFE process. The

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findings indicate that the best way in which colleagues can contribute towards a working father's experience of WFE is by providing social support.

An alternative explanation for the finding that OPD does not mediate the relationship between co-worker support and WFE is linked to work-family backlash. Co-workers might be supportive of their colleagues' work-family needs until they feel the need to compete with employed fathers for OPD to further their own career advancement. Co-workers may thus engage in unsupportive behaviours in an attempt to prevent working fathers from gaining access to OPD. This suggestion is supported by research that has indicated that co-workers may hold negative attitudes towards a working father who increases his involvement in his family role, whilst reducing his time spent engaging in his work role (Rudman & Mescher, 2013; Williams, Blair-Loy, & Berdahl, 2013). Co-workers' negative attitudes may translate into behaviours that aim to prevent working fathers from progressing within the organisation (Rudman & Mescher, 2013). This indicates a form of negative support from co-workers both directly and also indirectly through the prevention of access to OPD. Without support from co-workers and the provision of OPD, working fathers are less likely to experience WFE.

In the future, researchers should examine OPD as a mediator between supervisor and co-worker support and WFE in differing contexts. For example, they should conduct a comparative study by employing the same sampling criteria used by Molino et al. (2013) within the context of South Africa. In this way, researchers might be able to determine whether the relationship between supervisor and co-worker support, OPD and WFE is influenced by gender and national culture. In addition, qualitative research might be useful to provide further insight into this relationship or the lack thereof.

**Family-based social support and WFE.** It was established that support from one's spouse predicts WFE for working fathers in South Africa. This relationship has been demonstrated by numerous existing research studies (Aryee et al., 2005; Baral & Bhargava, 2011a; Baral & Bhargava, 2011b; Mauono & Rantanen, 2013). Lu et al. (2014) proposed that researchers and practitioners have not paid enough attention to the role of family-based sources in the WFE process and suggest that family-based support may be just as significant as work-based social support in the WFE process. In fact, researchers have advised that individuals often believe spousal support to be their most significant source of social support when it comes to managing the work-family interface (Wadsworth & Owens, 2007). This is

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in line with the findings of this study which indicate that when considering all six forms of social support together, spousal support explains the most variance in WFE ( $\beta = .327, p = < .001$ ).

Individuals who receive more social support from their spouse are more likely to experience WFE (Lu et al., 2009; Wadsworth and Owens, 2007). Interactions with one's spouse in the family domain may lead to skill development that could be useful in the work domain. For example, it has been suggested that WFE occurs when individuals apply problem-solving approaches that they usually utilise in the family domain to the work domain. If individuals are successful in applying these resources to the work domain then it is plausible that WFE can occur via the instrumental pathway (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Schein & Chen, 2011).

In addition, it has been established that respondents are able to transfer positive affect generated in the family domain to the work domain (Lu et al., 2009; Wadsworth & Owens, 2007). Lu et al. (2009) suggested that men might regard their spouse as their most valued source of family-based social support. If a man thus feels supported by his spouse, he is more likely to appraise his role as a father in a favourable light. It is therefore plausible that working fathers may produce and transfer positive affect from one domain to the other, thereby experiencing WFE through the affective pathway (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Schein & Chen, 2011). Alternatively, consistent with Schein and Chen's (2011) revised model of WFE, working fathers may experience WFE via the mixed pathway if their spouse's support provides resources as well as positive affect that enhance his performance in the work and family domains (Schein & Chen, 2011).

Whilst spousal support explained significant variance in WFE, extended family support did not. This finding could be influenced by the fact that South Africa has been found to be a more individualistic society (Thomas & Bendixen, 2000). This is particularly relevant for this study, since the sample was primarily composed of white males whose English and Dutch roots are likely to predispose them to individualistic tendencies. When examining a sample that comprised individuals from several different ethnic groups in South Africa, Thomas and Bendixen (2000) determined that white, English-speaking individuals had the highest score on the individualism dimension compared to all other ethnic groups. Individuals who are classified as individualistic are more likely to further their own interests and those of

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their immediate family members (Hofstede, 1991; Hofstede, 2011). A working father who subscribes to individualism will therefore have a closer and more significant relationship with his spouse than with his extended family, as suggested by Lu et al. (2009) when discussing individualistic societies. Additionally, individualistic working fathers are more likely to spend a greater amount of time with their spouse than their extended family and therefore have more opportunities to receive support from their spouse.

A third popular form of support that originates in the family domain is paid domestic help. Since paid domestic support is a remarkably common source of support in South Africa it was deemed appropriate to include in this study. Consistent with the findings of Lu et al. (2009), the results of this study indicated that satisfaction with paid domestic support is not a significant predictor of WFE. Past research has indicated that paid domestic support may not have as strong an effect on a father's experience of WFE as it would have for a working mother, because mothers still tend to bear the majority of family-related responsibilities (Lammi-Taskula, 2008; Tracy & Rivera, 2010). This suggestion is supported by the finding that a working father is ten times more likely than a working mother to have a spouse who stays at home and is not formally employed. It follows that his spouse is able to provide support by taking charge of the family domain, while he attends to the work domain (Hill, 2005). Furthermore, in taking charge of the family domain, a spouse may be able to provide support by managing a paid domestic helper in the family domain so that her husband does not have to.

### **Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research**

The findings of this study add to existing knowledge concerning the relationship between support and WFE for working fathers in South Africa. The following section outlines several suggestions that could be incorporated into future research endeavours in order to add to the value of the findings of this study by acknowledging its limitations.

With regards to the sub-scales in the questionnaire, the fact that extended family was not defined may have presented a limitation. Respondents may have interpreted "extended family" in different ways, thereby impacting on their answer to the extended family support scale items. The researcher intended extended family to refer to those individuals who do not

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form part of the traditional, nuclear family. This would include all relatives except the individual's spouse and children. Respondents may, however, have misinterpreted "extended family" to include individuals with whom they reside on a permanent basis. This has particular relevance for the current sample as South Africa has seen an increase in the number of multi-generational homes (Rohrbaugh, 2008). In future, researchers should include a short definition of extended family before the presentation of the scale items to ensure that respondents answer the items with the intended group in mind.

The sample that was targeted for the present study was comprised of males who are employed in full-time white-collar positions. It was deemed appropriate to use white-collar employees only as these employees are more likely than blue-collar employees to have access to OPD, such as courses on participative management skills, which may add to their experience of WFE. Furthermore, as previously mentioned this study is one of the few studies that have examined OPD as a mediator of the relationship between supervisor and co-worker support and WFE. The only other study that has examined this relationship was based on a sample of self-employed, white-collar consultants (Molino et al., 2013). In future, researchers should examine the relationship between supervisor and co-worker support, OPD and WFE amongst blue-collar employees in order to develop a more holistic understanding of the mediating role of OPD in the support-WFE relationship.

Data for WFE, co-worker support, spousal support and OPD were not normally distributed (skewness and/or kurtosis values greater than one). It may therefore have been apposite to use a non-parametric test, such as Spearman Rank correlation, as opposed to Pearson Product-Moment correlation. Researchers in future should consider reporting differences between the results of the parametric and non-parametric tests to determine any impact on the findings. In this study, the use of the Pearson Product-Moment correlation was deemed acceptable due to the robustness of SPSS analyses to violations of the assumptions of normality (Pallant, 2010).

The sample that was obtained appeared to be relatively homogenous with regard to respondents' race and age. It appeared that the sample largely comprised of white males (63.60%) who were on average 45.13 years of age ( $SD = 9.29$ ), which may have skewed the data and potentially bore an influence on the results that were acquired. According to the descriptive statistics obtained, 13.60% of the sample was made up of black African males.



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This finding is inconsistent with the current racial population statistics in South Africa in which white males comprise 8.40% of the population and black African males account for 80.30% of the population (Statistics South Africa, 2014a). It should, however, be noted that these population statistics are not necessarily an accurate reflection of employees from white-collar jobs in the private sector in South Africa who formed the target population of the present study.

The skewed demographic characteristics of the obtained sample may be related to the method of non-probability sampling that was selected. In this regard, there may have been a higher risk of obtaining a selection bias, which limits the generalisability of the results from the sample to the population (Tansey, 2007). This is partly because snowball sampling may increase the risk of obtaining a homogenous sample and is likely to exclude individuals who are not connected to particular social networks, which adversely impacts upon the generalisability of the findings (Atkinson & Flint, 2001; van Meter, 1990). Having said that, convenience and snowball sampling were deemed the most efficient and effective designs given the time and budgetary constraints placed upon this study. Furthermore, snowball sampling is an effective and complementary ascending methodology that can be used to increase the sampling pool, thereby enabling the researcher to collect more inclusive and complete data in order to answer a given research question (Atkinson & Flint, 2001). In future, researchers should consider employing a probability sampling technique in order to enhance the likelihood of obtaining a sample that reflects the current demographic statistics of South Africa, thereby making the findings more generalisable (Tansey, 2007).

For the purposes of this study, a cross-sectional design was employed in order to capture the work-family experiences of working fathers in South Africa. One may, however, argue that the time dimension of the study is problematic. A cross-sectional design does not enable the researcher to discern cause-and-effect relationships between variables or time-lag effects (Mann, 2003; Stone-Romero, 2009). The objective of this study was, however, to evaluate the relationships between several sources of support and WFE for working fathers, rather than to establish causal relationships and their stability over time. A longitudinal design was therefore not required in order to achieve this objective. In future, researchers should consider the possibility that social support leads to changes in one's level of WFE over time, by using a longitudinal design. Furthermore, it may be useful to use qualitative

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data in addition to the self-report data gathered in order to develop a more contextualised understanding of the relationship between support and WFE (Burns & Burns, 2008).

In addition to exploring the above-mentioned suggestions, future research could further explore some of the relationships examined in this study. Past literature has rarely explored the influence of family support from sources other than one's spouse (Griggs et al., 2013). The findings of this study have responded to this gap in the literature by determining that extended family support is not a statistically significant predictor of WFE for working fathers in South Africa. This may be related to the fact that South Africa is generally considered to be a more individualistic country (Thomas & Bendixen, 2000). Future research should examine the relationship between extended family support and WFE, to examine whether the cultural dimension of individualism-collectivism has an influence on the relationship. Whilst South Africa may be individualistic on a broader, national level, the majority of the African sub-cultures within South Africa tend to be more collectivist in nature (Triandis, 1989). In this way, there may be cultural sub-group differences in terms of South African working fathers' experience of, and reliance on, extended family support. Working fathers whose ethnicity is of African origin may place a strong emphasis on extended family members' support as a resource that can contribute to the WFE process. Conversely, working fathers who are of English or Dutch descent are more likely to favour individualism and, therefore, value spousal support over and above support offered by extended family members (Thomas & Bendixen, 2000). Future research should therefore explore the influence of culture on the relationship between various sources of family support and WFE.

Finally, this study determined that OPD does not mediate the relationship between co-worker support and WFE and/or supervisor support and WFE for working fathers in South Africa. Researchers have, however, established that family-based sources of social support may be related to OPD. Aryee et al. (2005) stated that individuals who are supported by their family members are more likely to work longer hours and, consequently, be rewarded with OPD. This indicates a relationship between social support and OPD, although there is limited research concerning the relationship between social support and employees' career development (Chen, Fu, Lou, & Yu, 2012; Molino et al., 2013; Noe, Wilk, Mullen, & Wanek, 2014). OPD, in turn, provide individuals with enhanced resources, such as increased knowledge and skills that can facilitate the WFE process. Future research should respond to

this gap in understanding by exploring OPD as a mediator of the relationship between family-based social support and WFE.

### **Implications of the Present Study**

**Theoretical implications.** Theoretically, this study adds value to existing research by providing empirical support for the relationship between social support and WFE for working fathers in South Africa. This is important as it has been noted that there is still a paucity of research examining the positive work-family interface in South Africa (Mostert et al., 2011). The findings of this study indicate that social support is a key influencing factor in working fathers' experience of WFE. This is particularly important as the increase of females in the labour market places more pressure on working fathers to attend to the family domain, even though they generally are still considered the primary breadwinner (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010; O'Neill et al., 2008). The findings of this study provide support for the argument that social support can be used to leverage working fathers' multiple role involvement in order to improve their quality of life in both domains.

The second notable theoretical implication that can be drawn from the findings of this study concerns OPD. The majority of the limited literature that examines OPD has classified it as an antecedent of WFE. Last year, however, Molino et al. (2013) proposed that OPD acts as a mediator between co-worker and supervisor support and WFE. Molino et al. (2013) rationalised this decision by recommending that more research is needed in order to understand how organisations can support their employees' professional development. The findings of the present study provided partial support for Molino et al.'s (2013) findings in that OPD was not found to mediate the relationship between co-worker or supervisor support and WFE. Molino et al. (2013) suggested that this may be related to the influence of organisational structures as well as national and organisational cultures. Future research should therefore explore organisational structure and national and organisational culture to determine whether these constructs influence the relationship between social support, OPD and WFE.

**Managerial implications.** This study focused specifically on the role of social support in facilitating the WFE process. This topic choice was influenced by existing

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literature which suggests that the nature of the work environment, which is largely shaped by relationships within the workplace, is frequently regarded as more significant in producing positive results than formal family-friendly policies (Kossek et al., 2011; Thompson et al., 1999; Wayne et al., 2006). In addition, this study examined the role of family-based sources of social support as well as the potential for OPD to mediate the relationship between co-worker and supervisor support and WFE in order to develop a more comprehensive understanding of the relationship between support and WFE.

The findings of this study contribute to a gap in knowledge concerning the support-based factors that facilitate WFE for working fathers. Contemporary employers need to be cognisant of the advantageous outcomes associated with WFE and the potential for multiple role engagement to uplift employees and further their capabilities (Van Steenbergen et al., 2007). It is thus necessary for practitioners and theorists to explore further the ways in which employers and families can contribute to the relationship between social support and WFE in order to bring about enhanced quality of life for working fathers. This is paramount for organisations as past research has suggested that there is a positive association between organisational success and employers' expression of value towards their employees' work-family needs (Hall, 1990).

One of the most significant implications drawn from the findings of this study is that in order to promote WFE, organisations need to encourage employees to make use of the various sources of social support on offer (Wadsworth & Owens, 2007). Past research has tended to focus largely on supervisor support; however, this form of support may not be as useful as others in the context of working South African fathers. When examining work-based social support it is evident that sub-cultures within the organisation have the strongest contribution towards WFE for working fathers. Based on the findings of this study, organisations should promote co-worker support in order to facilitate the WFE process. This is particularly important as it has been suggested that employees may leave their job if they perceive that they are not receiving adequate support in coping with their dual-role needs (Schulte, 2014). The findings of this study are especially relevant to South Africa as the country is currently experiencing a specialised skills shortage. Co-worker support provides an opportunity to enhance the retention of talented employees which is critical in order to achieve and sustain a competitive human capital advantage (Flores-Araoz & Furphy, 2012).

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Whilst co-worker support is an important factor in the WFE process, it may also be beneficial for top management to re-conceptualise the organisation's values concerning the work-family interface. Hall (1990) has suggested that top management should brainstorm what it means to be a good employee and a good parent. In doing so, it may be able to devise strategies to support younger managers' need to engage in both the work and home spheres. The reasoning behind this approach is that it may help top management to become aware of differences between their lifestyle and the lifestyles of younger managers and employees who are also parents. In this way, top management may develop an appreciation for younger managers and employees' need to manage their work-family interface effectively, so as to participate fully in both domains (Hall, 1990). Consequently, top management and supervisors might become aware of the need to provide further support to working fathers.

In addition to promoting co-worker support and re-shaping top management's work-family values, organisations should encourage working fathers to seek support from their spouses. Spousal support is unique in that the relationship between two spouses reflects an equal and shared partnership that is characterised by love and emotional support (Lewis, 2010). Spousal interactions are thus qualitatively distinct from those relationships that originate from work-based sources of social support. This may provide insight into the finding that spousal support is the strongest predictor of WFE for working fathers. O'Brien, Ganginis Del Pino, Yoo, Cinamon and Han (2014) recommend that researchers should examine which techniques would be effective in educating employees' spouses about how best to provide family-based support. By developing a thorough understanding of these underlying factors, practitioners are able to develop targeted interventions to enhance spousal support, thereby promoting WFE for working fathers.

The results of the present study indicated that employees who receive support in both the work and family domains are likely to benefit from their multiple role engagement through improved performance and positive affect via their experience of WFE. Organisations should, therefore, view multiple role engagement as an opportunity to enhance the value of their human capital (Baral & Bhargava, 2011a; Baral & Bhargava, 2011b). This is in line with Lu et al.'s (2014) recommendation that organisations need to focus on replacing the mind-set which tends to take the "role demands to conflict" pathway with one which embraces the "consistent flow of resources to enrichment" pathway. Through this change in mind-set, the work and family spheres can be perceived as supplementary partners

instead of opposing forces. This can be achieved by designing jobs in a way that allows for social interaction with diverse parties who offer the potential to provide support (Baral & Bhargava, 2011a; Baral & Bhargava, 2011b). In addition, spouses should be acknowledged for their essential role in contributing towards their husbands' experience of WFE through their provision of support.

### **Conclusion**

The findings of this study provide support for the theoretically derived relationship between social support and WFE that was originally proposed by Greenhaus and Powell (2006) and Schein and Chen (2011). Whilst it is not possible to state that social support has a causal influence on WFE, the findings of the present study do provide evidence of an empirical relationship between co-worker and spousal support and WFE. Moreover, this study employs a more accurate approach to examining the role of social support by simultaneously examining support received from one's spouse, extended family, paid domestic helper, supervisor, top management and co-workers.

From an employer's perspective, organisations need to align cultural work-family initiatives, particularly supportive relationships with one's co-workers, with the existing organisational systems, thereby promoting organisational performance (Kossek et al., 2011). Working fathers may rely on their co-workers for support because they believe that their co-workers will not hinder their career development in response to their multiple role involvement. It may be the case that supervisors and top management within organisations stigmatise working fathers for prioritising both their work and family roles instead of living up to the "ideal worker" norm.

In terms of the family domain, spousal support appears to be related to a working father's experience of WFE. A spouse can promote WFE through positive affect or through the provision of resources. A working father is more likely to have a stay-at-home spouse than a working mother (Hill, 2005) and his spouse is thus able to provide practical support, thereby relieving him of the need for a paid domestic helper. In addition, working fathers may have a more meaningful relationship with their spouse, marked by a high degree of

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interaction, which may reduce their reliance on extended family support in order to manage their multiple role involvement effectively.

This study has contributed to existing knowledge by responding to a gap in understanding concerning the relationship between support and WFE for working fathers in the South Africa. It is essential that practitioners and theorists identify mechanisms that facilitate the WFE process. This is especially important for working fathers, as males continue to dominate South Africa's working population (O'Neil et al., 2008; Smit, 2002; Statistics South Africa, 2014b). At the same time, there is evidence of a shift in norms and values towards increased fatherhood involvement and a dual-earner dual-carer society (Cheung & Wong, 2013; Enderstein & Boonzaier, 2013; Minnotte et al., 2007). Work-family support can therefore be viewed as a strategic human resource initiative that reinforces employer branding (Flores-Araoz & Furphy, 2012; Mishra et al., 2014). Moreover, in assisting working fathers to manage the work-family interface in a way that promotes performance and positive affect in both domains, employers can foster a sustainable competitive human resource advantage and retain critical skills during a specialised skills shortage (Flores-Araoz & Furphy, 2012).

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**APPENDIX A**

A list of the measures included in the present study.

**Work-Family Enrichment Measure (from Kacmar et al., 2014):**

My involvement in my work:

- 1) ...helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member.
- 2) ... makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member.
- 3) ... helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member.

My involvement in my family:

- 4) ... helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker.
- 5) ... puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better worker.
- 6) ... encourages me to use my work time in a focussed manner and this helps me be a better worker.

**Top Management Support Scale (from Thompson et al., 1999):**

- 1) In general, top management in this organisation is accommodating of family-related needs.
- 2) In this organisation top management encourages employees to strike a balance between their work and family lives.
- 3) In the event of a conflict top management is understanding when employees have to put their family first.
- 4) Top management in this organisation implements family-friendly policies and practices.

**Supervisor Support Scale (from Anderson et al., 2002):**

- 1) My supervisor is supportive when I have a work problem.
- 2) My supervisor accommodates me when I have a family or personal business to take care of (e.g. medical appointments, meeting with my child's teacher).

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3) My supervisor understands when I talk about my personal or family issues that affect my work.

4) I feel comfortable bringing up personal or family issues with my supervisor.

My supervisor really cares about the effects that my work demands have on my family life.

### **Co-worker Support Scale (from Anderson et al., 2002):**

1) My co-workers are supportive when I have a work problem.

2) My co-workers accommodate me when I have family or personal business to take care of (e.g. medical appointments, meeting with my child's teacher).

3) My co-workers understand when I talk about my personal or family issues that affect my work.

4) I feel comfortable bringing up personal or family issues with my co-workers.

### **Spousal Support Scale (from Procidano & Heller, 1983):**

1) When something goes wrong at work, I can talk it over with my spouse.

2) My spouse helps me feel better when I've had a hard day at work.

3) I am getting enough support from my spouse towards my career.

4) My spouse understands my work demands and appreciates the same.

### **Extended Family Support Scale (from Procidano & Heller, 1983):**

1) When something goes wrong at work, I can talk it over with my extended family.

2) My extended family helps me feel better when I've had a hard day at work.

3) I am getting enough support from my extended family towards my career.

4) My extended family understands my work demands and appreciates the same.

### **Opportunities for Professional Development Scale**

**(from Bakker, 2014):**

1) In my work, I have the opportunity to develop my strong points.

2) In my work, I can develop myself sufficiently.

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3) My work offers me the possibility to learn new things.

**(from Voydanoff, 2004):**

4) Overall, I am satisfied with the opportunities that I have at work to learn new skills.

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**APPENDIX B**

Table B1  
*Results of Reliability Analysis*

<b>Scale</b>	<b>Cronbach's alpha (<math>\alpha</math>) value</b>	<b>Min. corrected item-total correlation</b>	<b>Max. corrected item- total correlation</b>
Work-family enrichment	.790	.487	.605
Supervisor support	.873	.622	.769
Co-worker support	.827	.600	.731
Top management support	.849	.666	.724
Spousal support	.867	.559	.829
Extended family support	.937	.832	.871
OPD	.898	.690	.775

*Notes.* Min. = minimum; max. = maximum; OPD = opportunities for professional development.