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The effects of human resource management practices on employee work-life interference and its outcomes

Imran Ahmad Jumani

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Par

Imran Ahmad JUMANI

The effects of human resource management practices on employee work-life interference and its outcomes

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This thesis is dedicated to my life partner
ZOYA IMRAN
who sacrificed and took on extra responsibilities during my studies

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ABBREVIATIONS

HPHRP	Perceived high performance human resource practices
FFWP	Perceived family friendly work practices
WLI	Perceived work-life interference
EWB	Employee perceived wellbeing in the workplace
IJT	Employee intention to job turn over
MS	Perceived manager support
FFS	Perceived family and friends support
ApHPHRP	Appraisal systems based high-performance human resource practices
GrHPHRP	Group working based high-performance human resource practices
PrHPHRP	Performance-related pay based high-performance human resource

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INTRODUCTION: THE GENESIS AND EVOLUTION OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT

1. Background of the study

The question of “what” and “why” lies behind every action of an employee in a workplace is still a “black box” that is a central area of study for researchers of industrial psychology, industrial relations, organizational sociology, and human resource management (Kato & Kodama, 2017).

In the last few decades, a healthy work-life balance (WLB) has been considered a challenge for businesses. Work-life balance, according to Clark (2000), is characterized as “happiness and strong performance at work and at home, with minimal role conflict”. Work-life balance, according to Greenhaus et al. (2003), includes time balance, engagement balance, and satisfaction balance. Despite the fact that there is extensive work-family literature, the

work-family balance is an underdeveloped concept (Carlson et al., 2009). The imbalance in these two spheres of life leads to the employee's bad-being (Haar et al., 2014) and to a high turnover (Fitria & Linda, 2019). In the past, different myths were linked to this terminology. Initially, work-life balance was frequently thought of as a problem for female employees, more specifically, female mother employees. The entry of females into the labor market may be one of the original reasons behind the evolution of this issue (Crompton & Lyonette, 2006), but today it is a common issue for both men and women. The second myth about work-life balance is considering it as equal distribution of time/hours between work and life spheres. If one talks about work-life balance, it does not mean an equal division of time between work and personal life. The third myth concerning work-life balance is stating that work is bad and life is good or considering work to be the opposite of life, so that if these two spheres overlap, then it causes work-life conflict, which hampers the performance of the employee. In reality, work is part of life, as is our family, our friends and community, and hobbies. All these aspects play a crucial role in our everyday lives. Sometimes, even if these two spheres of life - work and family - overlap, it is very likely that they may strengthen each sphere and have a positive impact on each area of life, known as work-life enrichment. If one thinks the work sphere is inherently bad, then one loses sight of the possibility for better. That is why the issue has been at the forefront of a lot of management meetings and, as a result, family-friendly work practices (flextime, telecommuting, shorter workweeks, part-time work, job sharing, etc.) have been introduced in the workplace to counter the effect of work-life imbalance.

Thus, in the area of new organizational responsibilities, this dissertation deals with wellbeing in the workplace and family-friendly work practices. In the last few decades, the workplace has totally changed due to globalization, information technology, change in organizational structure, mergers and acquisitions, and economic conditions. All these factors also directly affect employee wellbeing (Sparks et al., 2001). The result of much research confirms that there is a favorable relationship between an employee's wellbeing and their performance (Fisher, 2003), and at the corporate level, it increases profitability by reducing absenteeism and health-related costs (Danna & Griffin, 1999). Employee wellbeing is nowadays considered to be a timely topic in organizational studies and also the main concern for organizations (Grant et al., 2007).

In my case, I began this PhD having observed recurring work-life imbalances, leading to stress and bad-being, while serving in the banking sector in Pakistan. According to War

(1987), the term wellbeing is defined as an employee's own perception about the quality of life they are experiencing while functioning in the workplace. Today, we are living in a highly stressed society (Tomiyama, 2019) associated with the imbalance and bad being. Work-related stress is a “negative emotional experience” due to an imbalance perceived by an employee between what is demanded from him/her at the workplace and the means available to them at the workplace to carry out their job (Karasek Jr., 1979). According to Bashir and Ramay (2010), work overload, role conflict, lack of feedback, and rapid technological changes are some significant work antecedents of stress for bankers. The high-stress level of employees often causes a clash between them and their customers, which not only affects the business of the bank but also affects the performance of the employee. Work-family conflict is also a significant reason behind stress experienced by employees (Anderson et al., 2002). A survey conducted by the European Commission reveals that long working hours and a high workload cause 66% of job stress (Pan-European opinion poll on occupational safety and health 2013¹). Consequently, the imbalance due to irrelevant HRM practices may lead to bad-being.

One may also consider that this imbalance may be due to high-performance human resources practices (HPHRP), i.e., HRM practices that link high target achievement with salary and growth. Indeed, such practices aim to motivate the employees to raise their efficiency and productivity but also cause competition among employees for more financial benefits and career growth. This competition may raise the productivity of the organization but may also cause an increase in stress levels for employees and lead to the bad-being of the employee. This is not a simple issue: sometimes, high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP) improve one dimension of an employee's wellbeing while undermining another. These are called wellbeing tradeoffs. Offering high targets makes the job challenging and increases job satisfaction; on the one hand, it also increases stress and physical strain for employees on the other (Grant et al., 2007). These practices, i.e., linking eligibility for a pay rise and growth with achieving a growing number of targets, help employers raise the productivity of the firm but also raise competition amongst the employees for better performance and more financial benefits. Such HR practices may put employees under pressure or may create a more stressful working environment. Therefore, extensive research is required to identify the links between high-performance human resource practices, work-life interference, and the wellbeing of employees in the workplace to open the ‘black box’. Moreover, the role of HPHRP being responsible for

¹ <https://osha.europa.eu/en/facts-and-figures/european-opinion-polls-safety-and-health-work/european-opinion-poll-occupational-safety-and-health-2013>

anti-family friendly work practices (high job demand raises work-life interference) needs to be explored. It opens the door for researchers to analyze this HR tendency and to explore the consequences of good and bad practices.

Accordingly, the research objectives of this dissertation are as follows:

- A. How do human resource practices influence employee work-life balance, wellbeing, and intention to quit?**
- B. What role does manager and family/friend support play in HPHRP and outcome relationships?**

2. Problem statement

Continuous stress in the workplace due to the imbalance between what is demanded from an employee and the available means for them directly affects their wellbeing and also the productivity of the organization. Because of these factors, employee wellbeing has become a topic of interest and a primary concern for organizations today (Lambert et al., 2021). According to Bryson et al. (2014), what leads to poor wellbeing and employee stress needs further examination. The question that then arises is how do businesses take responsibility and fix the imbalance that causes high stress among the employees?

In the literature, the effect of work-family balance on individual happiness has yet to be determined (Elnanto & Suharti, 2021; Greenhaus et al., 2003), though happiness is considered to be the main source of employee wellbeing in the workplace (Ullah & Siddiqui, 2020). However, we need to deepen our knowledge about the factors of imbalance in the workplace and their consequences. In developing nations, there are high inflation rates and low employment rates, which reduce the living standards of families and raise poverty levels. At the same time, globalization has increased competition within organizations; in the race for competitive advantage, organizations have developed non-stop production round the clock. To cope with the challenges of globalization, organizations intentionally or unintentionally take advantage of such economic conditions (high unemployment and high poverty rates) and force employees to work for longer hours (high job demand), which make their work lives unbalanced. In turn, employees feel more stress, which leads to poor health and wellbeing (Kundi et al., 2020; Soomro et al., 2019).

To cope with these challenges, some organizations have introduced various family-friendly work practices (FFWP) to help employees strike the correct balance between work and family life (Vadivukkarasi & Ganesan, 2015). Some scholars have shown that these FFWP have a positive impact on the productivity of the firm, which is why organizations introduce such programs (Konrad & Mangel, 2000). According to Lazar et al. (2010), reduction in absenteeism, reduction in staff turnover, productivity improvement, increase in employee loyalty and commitment, and improvement in organization image are some benefits for those organizations that implement family-friendly programs. However, on the other hand, Bloom et al. (2011) have raised the question that if the output of FFWP is so beneficial for employers, as well as for employees, and if FFWP have a significant impact on productivity, then why do not all organizations offering such programs to their employees? Bloom et al. (2009) conclude that FFWP have no direct and indirect impact on the profitability of an organization because some organizations only initiate and implement such programs to give the impression of being socially responsible (corporate social responsibility standards). The unclear and dubious role of these practices and the financial cost involved in implementing such programs (e.g., childcare facilities) discourage organizations in developing countries from offering such programs. If family-friendly work practices (FFWP) are only implemented as a show of corporate social responsibility with no clear impact, then there is a need to explore how work-life balance issues can be resolved. This dubious and unclear role of FFWP is of great interest to researchers especially those scholars who link FFWP with wellbeing and with organizational performance (Irawanto et al., 2021; Ngo et al., 2009). This lack of clear evidence may deter some employers from implementing the true spirit of FFWP.

The current work scenario is marked by intense pressure, constant deadlines, increased use of technology, the fast pace of change, and the virtual workplace. All of these blurs the lines between work and personal life, resulting in confusion and a challenging environment for one and all. Work-life balance today is not just an issue for those married with children, couples, or working parents but also a significant discussion point for generations X and Y (Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010). As such, WLB should no longer be viewed simply as balancing work and family but rather as balancing work and the rest of life. If, in this situation, organizations do not introduce such HR programs, i.e., family-friendly work practices, then not only will dual-earner families be affected, but also the wellbeing of the young generation because of high-stress levels. It will also restrict female participation in the labor force, and ultimately the economic growth of the country will suffer.

As such, there is a need to study FFWP, along with other variables, i.e., high-performance human resource practices, work-life interference, the wellbeing of the employee, and intention to turnover, especially during the current pandemic situation. Researchers have argued that the COVID-19 pandemic has created a challenging situation for employees when it comes to maintaining their wellbeing (causing stress and frustration) and the gap between work and life spheres (Hjálmsdóttir & Bjarnadóttir, 2021). To restrict the spread of the Covid-19 virus and its new variants, different countries took emergency measures, i.e., lockdowns, the closing of schools and workplaces, social distancing, etc. All these restrictions resulted in home becoming a school, the workplace, the playground. The restrictions forced everyone to stay at home and carry out all the economic activities. This situation blurred the boundaries between the spheres of work and life. According to Irawanto et al. (2021), this overlapping of work and life spheres (no clear boundaries) creates stress and anxiety, as well as affects employee job satisfaction, which ultimately leads towards the intention to leave the job. The pandemic situation and its outcome, i.e., health emergency and its effect on people's personal lives and roles within families, makes our research problem timely.

3. The research question and its significance

Anchored around new organizational responsibilities, our research deals with employees' wellbeing in the workplace. The proposal is to study how family-friendly work programs can be a win-win situation for both employers and employees and how employees can adopt these programs to enhance the multiple dimensions of their wellbeing in the workplace.

Therefore, **our main research question is:**

How do family-friendly work practices and high-performance human resource practices influence the work-life interference and its outcomes, i.e., the wellbeing of employees in the workplace and their intention to leave the job?

This research question is further subdivided into the following:

- a- Whether work-life interference influences employee wellbeing in the workplace.
- b- Whether work-life interference influences employee intention to leave the job.
- c- How family-friendly work practices influence employee wellbeing in the workplace.
- d- How high-performance human resource practices influence wellbeing in the workplace.
- e- How family-friendly work practices influence employee intention to leave the job.
- f- How high-performance human resource practices influence employee intention to leave the job.

Our research question is stated using a “How” and “When” format, which explains how I link the independent variables with dependent variables and interlink them through a mediator and when the relationship is affected due to moderators in our model. In order to address the above research question, we started with the problem area of work-life interference. The terminology is old but still relevant for researchers. On the basis of the research question, in the first part of our dissertation, we studied the consequences of work-life interferences, i.e., employee wellbeing in the workplace and employee intention to job turnover. This part of our conceptual model is based on role stress theory (Kahn et al., 1964), and border theory (Clark, 2000) and is explained in detail through 5 models of work-life interference (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990).

According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2006), the significance of a research study/question should be discussed in terms of the following criteria: theoretical significance, practical, and general significance. By following the criteria outlined by Fraenkel and Wallen (2006), the significance of this study is described as follows:

i- Theoretical significance

Theoretical significance means analyzing the contribution of the research study in terms of knowledge advancement (theory/theoretical significance) in the relevant field (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). Regarding this criterion, the researcher hopes that this study will make significant contributions to the advancement of theory in the field of human resource management.

To our knowledge, no current study in this field has raised our theoretical questions. According to Greenhaus and Allen (2011), there is a scarcity of research that captures the essential principles at the heart of the work-family study, such as work-life balance, conflict, enrichment, and boundary management. In this research, our focus will be to fill the gap

between the theory and the application. This research aims to better understand why family-friendly work practices (FFWP) are still underused while their positive effects are currently recognized by management sciences. If family-friendly work practices are considered a luxury, then these practices may be desirable but not essential ones. If we find that these practices are a necessity, then the question is, why do not all organizations implement such practices? Thus, our research started with this central question raised by Bloom et al. (2011): If the output of family-friendly work programs (FFWP) is so beneficial for employers as well as for employees and if FFWP have a significant impact on productivity, then why do not all organizations offer such programs to their employees?

To delve deeper, we believe that FFWP should be studied separately along with other high-performance human resource management practices (HPHRP) as these practices, on the one hand, tends to improve employee performance but, on the other, causes high job demand for employees). This leads to the opening of the current black box or HPHRP (Boxall, 2012). For example, Boselie et al. (2005) reviewed 104 articles on high-performance HR practices. They found multiple theories, such as contingency or resource-based view (RBV) theory, as building blocks for high performance, but no consensus was made about the outcome of these practices. In our present research, we separated family-friendly work practices from high-performance human resource practices to expand this study. As a result, our research is a first step towards unlocking the box of high-performance human resource strategies. The impact of how employees perceive high-performance human resources practices is investigated in this study (HPHRP), i.e., appraisal link with promotion and pay, future training programs, etc., on work-life interference and ultimately the wellbeing of the employee in the workplace along with intention to leave the job.

Finally, to study this, we will take a close look at the context. According to Crompton and Lyonette (2006), despite the widespread entry of females into the labor market, they still have a greater proportion of caring and domestic duties. As a result, they experience more work-life conflict than men, and this gap increases more if a female employee is also a mother and has childcare responsibilities. If we accept this as a fact, then female employees will be considered the primary beneficiaries of family-friendly work practices. But if such practices (FFWP) are focused on female employees and do not include male employees, then it may raise the question of equal opportunity in the workplace. So, we will have to consider such demographic variables. To bridge the gap between macro and micro research, management researchers have increased their efforts to investigate the impact of country settings on

individual attitudes and actions (Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2013). This research, anchored in the Pakistani context, is an effort to explore this study in a South Asian developing country with its specific culture and demography.

ii- Practical and general significance

We now consider this study's contribution to the improvement of current practices (practical significance) and the condition of humanity in general (general significance) (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006).

In terms of practical significance, we hope that this study will make some significant contributions. One important impact in this regard would be to encourage practitioners in the field of human resource management (HRM) to devise strategies linking family-friendly work practices with high-performance human resource programs so as to reduce work-life interference and enhance the wellbeing of employees in the workplace. We find that applying universal HR practices to all employees does not always provide optimum results. Therefore, it is essential for organizational success that management understands the nature of the diversified workforce and apply the proper motivating strategies that best suit the types of individuals, especially within a specific country's context. More generally, we hope that the results obtained in this study will enable practitioners to improve the overall work environment of the organization and the psychological wellbeing of individuals.

In terms of general significance, the goal of the thesis is to better understand the dynamics of both high-performance human resource practices and work-family practices with work-life interference and the wellbeing of the employee in the workplace, along with the intention to change job. The purpose of this dissertation is to open up this black box² taking into account societal implications. In developed countries, organizations are taking many steps for the wellbeing of employees by helping them to maintain good health and providing a stress-free environment. To achieve this goal, organizations have introduced FFWP, i.e., flexi-time, childcare, maternity and study leave, etc. But, in Pakistan, employees are still struggling to recognize work-life balance as a problem. Though, as noted, some organizations are taking steps to help employees maintain better work-life balance, much research is still required to empirically investigate these variables within the particular lens of the culture in this

²Black box refers to the unanswered underlying mechanisms that exist in the HRM-Performance link (Savaneviciene & Stankeviciute, 2010).

subcontinent. Even in developed countries in Europe, the working environment is not ideal for employee wellbeing; thus, organizations need to take positive steps to cope with current employee issues by offering them a more friendly work environment irrespective of the financial impact on organizational productivity.

4. Contribution of the thesis

Our dissertation contributes to the existing literature in several important ways. First, despite the relevance of HR practices in fostering desired employee behaviors in the workplace, we tried to examine the underlying mechanisms inside the so-called black box that links high-performance human resource practices with employees' wellbeing and intention to job turnover. Further research is still needed to improve insights on what managers can do to delineate a human resource strategy that enhances the wellbeing (Miao et al., 2021) and diminish turnover intentions of their workforce (Ramaprasad et al., 2021). To address this research gap, our study examines how and when HPHRP and FFWP influence employee outcomes in terms of work-life interference, employee wellbeing, and turnover intentions.

Second, the majority of research examining the relationship between high-performance human resource practices and employee outcomes has considered HPHRP as a bundle that includes flexible work arrangements (Rubio-Andrés et al., 2021). Our research highlights a need to examine the impact of the set of high-performance human resource practices and family-friendly work practices separately on employee outcomes for better insights. Our study focuses particularly on how HPHRP and FFWP influence employee outcomes. The focus on these two sets of HR practices (as a set of isolated HR practices) rather than on interconnected HR practices allows us to capture the complementarities and contradictions among the HPHRP and FFWP under the premise that FFWP may yield different employee outcomes when implemented separately from HPHRP. It also gives us a better understanding of the various mechanisms through which these practices, HPHRP and FFWP, in the workplace context influence individual outcomes.

Third, we investigate how HPHRP and FFWP influence employees' wellbeing and turnover intentions. HPHRP and FFWPs psychological mechanisms constitute a “black box”

(Mihail & Kloutsiniotis, 2016; Savaneviciene & Stankeviciute, 2010) and focus on the neglected role of employees as the primary recipients of HPHRP (Heffernan & Dundon, 2016). Hence, we position the employee work-life interference as an important mediator. By investigating the indirect relationship of (i) HPHRP and (ii) FFWP and employee wellbeing and turnover intentions via employee work-life interference, our study presents an integrated picture of how HPHRP and FFWP are managed in the eyes of employees. Our research framework flows first from what employees perceive their organization is doing (HPHRP and FFWP) to what employees perceive these practices influence their other life domain (workplace interference) and then to how employees psychologically (employee wellbeing) and attitudinally (turnover intentions) react to what they think.

Fourth, social support has been considered crucial for one's work-life balance. It has been suggested that providing support to employees is a powerful tool for the organization to deal with employee work-life interference (Ju et al., 2015; Wayne et al., 2006). Therefore, it is important to investigate whether support from the manager can be a means to mitigate work-life interference. Thus, this research examines the moderating role of manager support on the relationship between HPHRP and work-life interference. Our findings are expected to provide insights into what organizational support is important when managing employee work-life interferences.

Finally, the literature stresses that the HRM-outcomes relationship may differ for female workers (Kirkwood & Tootell, 2008). So, we also analyze the results of our research framework across gender. By doing so, our study opens a new gate for researchers on whether working women with the dual responsibility of work and kitchen make them overburdened, and the situation becomes more competitive for her to challenge the male employees in the workplace. Therefore, we examine whether female employees need more family-friendly work practices to cope with the challenge of dual responsibilities.

5. Employed quantitative methodology

We employed a quantitative research methodology for two basic reasons. First, to better understand phenomena in a specific group being studied. Second, to make inferences about broader groups beyond those being studied (Holton & Burnett, 2005).

i- Study context

We conducted research in both public and private sector banks in Pakistan. With a GDP growth rate of 5.8% (1482 \$ per capita) in 2018 (Annex-II), Pakistan was one of the world's fastest-growing economies. According to the World Bank's "ease of doing business index" report (September 2009), Pakistan improved by 10 points in four years, from 2015-to 2019. Pakistan's banking sector plays a critical part in the country's economic development (Zafar & Aziz, 2013). Since the nationalization of the banks in 1974, the modern banking system has undergone numerous adjustments to meet the needs of such a developing country (Zaidi, 2005). Significant regulatory reforms in the banking sector were implemented in 1991 in the form of privatization in order to improve consumer services and develop a competitive market. After the takeover, the new administration started the firing process. Only in one bank (Habib Bank Limited) did the new management gradually sack employees. It brought down the number of employees to around 14,000 from 23,000. This contributed to the bank's increased profits (Fahim & Siddiqui, 2013). Another case study of MCB Bank Limited revealed that after denationalization, the bank changed its HR policies to maximize profit by reducing employee benefits, including the discontinuation of pensions, the conversion of permanent executives to a contract-based system, and the elimination of officers' and executives' provident fund balances (Kartio et al., 2017).

Due to the denationalization of banks, the layoff survivors have increased workloads as a result of absorbing the responsibilities of their coworkers who had been laid off (Fong & Kleiner, 2004). Most employees work more than ten hours per day at the expense of social and family life, which has caused employee frustration (Kartio et al., 2017). Another notable effect of Pakistan's banking sector privatization is the emergence of a system in which employees perceive their jobs to be insecure, motivating them to seek new employment (Turnover intention). Thus, a challenging situation has been created for the management of consumer banking in Pakistan to retain the employees (*Dawn Newspaper*, 2006). On a side note, the

banking industry is the largest employer of recent graduates since, in comparison to other businesses, it pays employees fairly.

The dynamic work environment (high competition after privatization, adoption of new technologies, and constantly changing objectives, procedures, and goals), as well as work-life balance difficulties and current HRM challenges, are reasons for choosing the bank sector as the population for this study. Our goal is to conduct an empirical survey based on these data to assess the influence of HR practices in Pakistan's banking sector. To answer our research question, we conducted a quantitative study (the reason of why and how is explained in chapter 3). The survey questionnaire was presented in English (which is the official language), and the respondents were chosen from lower, medium, and top-level management to ensure full comprehension of the survey questions.

For this empirical study, data collection from a sample of bank employees working in Pakistan was gathered through an online questionnaire. The independent variables in our model are family-friendly work practices (FFWP) and perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP). Work-life interference (WLI), employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB), and employee intention to job turnover (IJT) are dependent variables. In this study, we also use certain variables as moderators, i.e., perceived family/friends support available to employees (FFS) and perceived manager support available to employees (MS). We use some control variables in our research, i.e., gender, age, marital status, spouse working status, and family structure of employee, i.e., nuclear family or joint family system. The measurement scales are adopted from previous research studies published in well-known business journals.

ii- **Analytical strategy**

The study hypotheses were tested using structural equation modeling (SEM) in SmartPLS 3.2 software. We utilized SmartPLS because (i) PLS is appropriate for analyzing complex research models consisting of many latent variables (Henseler et al., 2009), (ii) its comprehensive ability to test the relationship between constructs with many measurement items, and (iii) it is recommended for a model having second-order constructs, a mediator, and a small sample size (Ullah et al., 2022). We used SPSS 20.0 to examine collinearity VIF (variance inflation factor) and CMV (Dimension-reduction factor analysis).

To conduct SEM, we followed a two-step approach (details in chapter 4) recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). In the first step, we assessed the measurement. The purpose of this model was to assess the model fitness and discriminant validity between the independent and dependent variables. In the second step, we ran our hypothesized structural model based on the confirmatory model evaluated in the first step, measuring the relations between study variables. The mediation hypotheses were tested via bootstrapping method (bootstrap sample size = 5000). To examine the nature of moderation effects, we performed simple slopes analysis (Aiken et al., 1991), which allowed us to determine whether the change in slopes was significant from low levels of the moderator to high levels of the moderator.

6. Organization of the thesis

The theoretical part of the thesis consists of two chapters that present a detailed literature review. **Chapter 1** focuses on the literature review about work-life interference and its effects, i.e., employee wellbeing in the workplace and employee intention to job turnover; with theoretical support, we will carry out a thorough and intensive study of previous literature that contributed towards a better understanding of the research problem. This covers the literature used to structure hypothetical establishments and research inquiries. The rationale for the selection of different constructs to be studied in this research is detailed.

Chapter 2 discusses the development of the conceptual framework of relationships between HR practices, i.e., family-friendly work practices (FFWP), perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP), and dependent constructs, i.e., work-life interference (WLI), employee wellbeing in the workplace and employee intention to job turnover. The conceptual framework is established for the development of the hypotheses in order to adequately analyze the research problem at hand.

Chapter 3 contains a description of the methodological approach implemented in this study and includes a general introduction of the research context, techniques used to address the research problem and data collection, and selection and adaptation of measurement scales. The second part of the chapter covers the descriptive analysis section.

Chapter 4 covers the results of the data, which includes a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to check our measurement model's fitness in the first stage. In the second stage, we hypothesize a structural model, measuring the relations between study variables.

Chapter 5 discusses the results from chapter 4, the significant contributions of this research, its limitations, and future research directions. We finish with a general conclusion.

CHAPTER 1

CHAPTER 1: WORK-LIFE INTERFERENCE AND ITS EFFECTS

Introduction

In this chapter, we first discuss the concept of WLI in detail. Next, we discuss the potential outcomes of WLI, namely employee wellbeing and intention to job turnover. In doing so, we address one of our study's research objectives, i.e., to understand whether work-life interference influences the wellbeing of the employee in the workplace and their intention to leave the job. To investigate the above-mentioned objective, this chapter reviews the fundamental theories underpinning work-life interference and wellbeing and turnover intention relationships. Moreover, we provide a critical discussion of the concept of work-life interference by defining this concept and related terms and also analyzing its consequences. Indeed, balancing work-life is constantly an unresolved question for organizations, employees, politicians, psychologists, health professionals, and researchers. After the passage of half a century, why are we still discussing the issue of work-life balance? Accordingly, there is a need for a study that reviews the consequences of the imbalance between work and life and leads us to the steps required to achieve the right balance. This will help in understanding if bad-being is the cause of poor balancing between work and life spheres and if it leads employees to think about leaving the organization.

From this point of view, in this first chapter, we explore theories and myths related to work-life boundaries by discussing how boundaries were created between different spheres of life and why the line dividing family-life and work-life has gradually blurred in organizations. Previous models and research suggest that demands and resources at work are more likely to be related to work-to-family experiences (Voydanoff, 2002). However, we intend to examine whether work-life interference is a real problem or simply a myth. Although the term interference in work-life relation is bi-directional, from work to family and family to work, we

only examine conflict stemming from work. To do so, following the outline of the chapter on work-life interference and its effects, we will begin by defining the core concepts of work-life interference and work-life balance before addressing, in the second part, why this topic is of such importance today for companies and employees, leading to debates and publications. In the third part, we will present several theoretical models to build a spillover between work and life. Then finally, we will explore the costs of work-life interference: workplace bad-being (part 4) and intention to turnover (part 5).

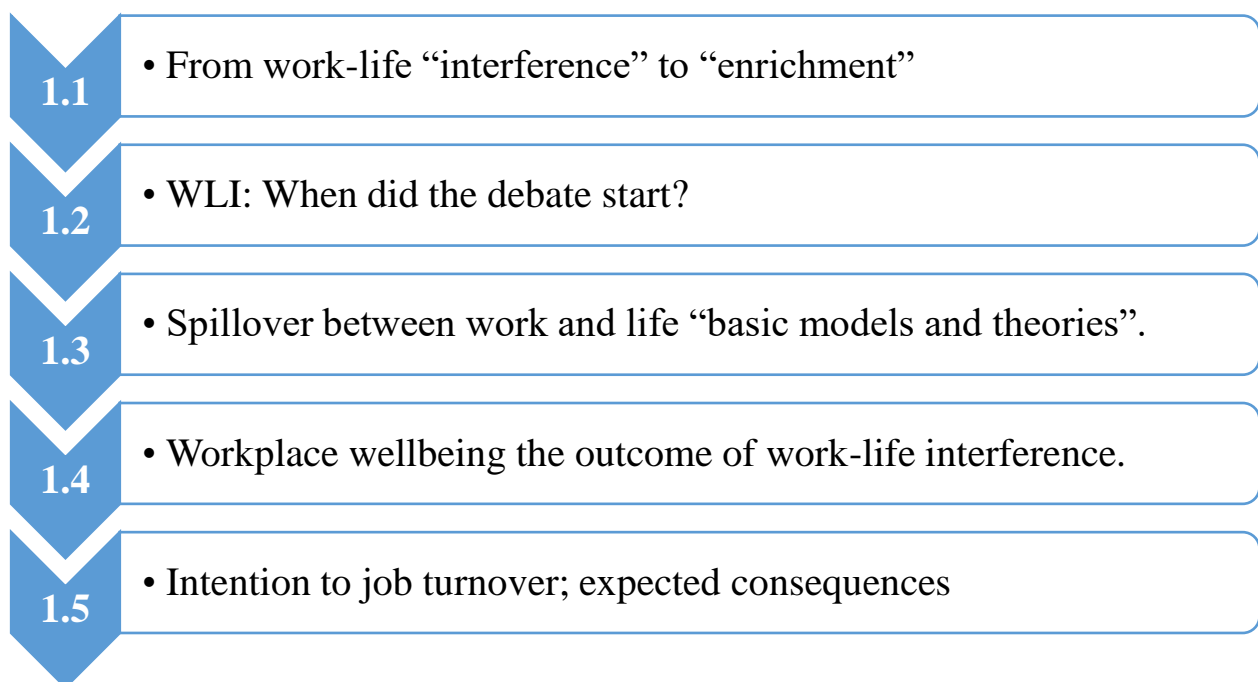


Figure 1-1 Chapter 1 outlines

1.1 From work-life “interference” to “enrichment”

In this first part, our aim is to refine the work-life balance concept. In the literature, there has been discussion concerning what vocabulary to use to describe work and non-work-life balance, with some authors preferring phrases like ‘work-life interface’ (Demerouti et al., 2012; Shah, 2017) and ‘work-family balance’ instead of ‘work-life balance’ (Carvalho & Chambel, 2016b). Similarly, some authors use terms like ‘work-life interference’ (Shah, 2017) or ‘negative work to family spillover’ (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). In terms of enrichment, we find similar terminologies, i.e., ‘work-family enrichment’ (Vadivukkarasi & Ganesan, 2015), ‘work-family positive spillover’ (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000), ‘work-life enhancement’ (Shah, 2017). When studying inter-role conflict research, we found that most authors use the terminology ‘work-family interference’ instead of ‘work-life interference’, as they consider the family as the primary domain of the non-work sphere. Therefore, most of the research is more narrowed to the family than the life sphere (Bellavia et al., 2005).

It is critical to distinguish and comprehend the connections between crucial ideas like conflict, enrichment, and balance (Carlson et al., 2009). The lack of conceptual clarity leads to conceptual ambiguity, which stymies the development of complex and useful work-life interaction theoretical models. Role balancing theorists (Marks & MacDermid, 1996) have established a framework for addressing theoretical distinctions among work-family notions, but empirical research into whether these theoretical distinctions are genuine has been limited (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007). As a result, a first clarification is required, "what is work?" and "what is life?", before we discuss work-life balance, work-life interference, or enrichment between work and life as concepts. We believe that we must first define the two sides (work and life). Work, according to Guest (2002), is "paid employment", while life is "everything outside of the formal work employment". According to Khan and Fazili (2016), the work sphere is a paid domain in which a human expects a monetary advantage in exchange for exerting time, energy, and engagement and consuming time, energy, and involvement. On the other hand, the life sphere also consumes time and involvement, but this domain is non-paid; instead, it is the social obligation of a human, i.e., time spent and association with family, friends, hobbies, and religion.

We shall define the terms of work-life interference, work-family enrichment, and work-life balance in this chapter based on this initial semantic clarification.

1.1.1 Defining work-life interference (WLI)

The early writings of Adam Smith have sparked the idea that work has an impact on life outside of work (Rousseau, 1978). Work-life balance has been defined as the lack of work-life interference since the nineteenth century. It is a type of inter-role conflict in which the demands of job and family roles are conflicting in some way, making it difficult for the individual to participate in both (Voydanoff, 2005b; Warner & Hausdorf, 2009). According to Katz and Kahn (1978), this work-life interference is not one-sided; it is the perception of focal and the perception of other members who feel the conflict and link themselves with the focal in that defined role.

The competitive business environment and evolution of technology influence the way of working and raises the expectations of both employee and employer from each other (Kakkar & Bhandari, 2016). According to Zedeck (1987), humans perform their roles in four spheres of life: 1-work sphere, 2-family sphere, 3-personal sphere, and 4-other non-work sphere. Every role demands time and energy and makes the situation more challenging and complex when one sphere of life influences the other spheres. But, currently, the line between these roles is becoming blurred. For instance, due to the global extension of business, employees need to contact relevant people in various time zones. As a result, work is no longer limited to the workplace and longer working hours and working from home produce more interference between the work and non-work life domains. Some firms, in a competitive market, demand their employees be available at all times, even answering emails late at night. With such high expectations from their managers, employees sense a blurring of two realms of life, namely work and non-work life. When there is an inter-role conflict, in which the role pressures from the two spheres of life, i.e., work and private life domains, are mutually incompatible, work-life interference (WLI) arises (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Because of the other role's engagement, participation in one role conflict becomes more difficult. Inter-role conflict develops when employees have trouble assigning and dividing family and work duties.

Role conflicts, for example, are unexpected and inconsistent expectations from the environment or its surroundings, according to (Kahn et al., 1964). These unexpected role expectations can lead to psychological strife inside the **focal**. Four sorts of role conflicts are explained in the same study: i) - Intrasender conflict: this conflict occurs when a single role sender has expectations that are not aligned. ii) - Intersender conflict occurs when two or more role senders have different expectations; iii) - Person-role conflict: when one or more role senders' expectations differ from one's own; iv) - Inter-role conflict: when the pressures of one role conflict with the pressures of another role. In this thesis, we will focus on inter-role conflicts. Many scholars also distinguish between two types of inter-role conflict (Allen et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2011): Work-family interference (WFI): a situation when unexpected or inconsistent role pressure is due to work interference with another role in private life, and 2) family-work interference (FWI): a situation when the family role interferes or restricts performance at work.

In this thesis, we also refer to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), who cite three main reasons for tensions between work and family roles: i)- conflict based on time; ii)- conflict based on strain; and iii)- conflict based on behavior:

i)-Time-based conflict develops when it is difficult to perform many jobs at the same time due to time constraints. One role consumes time, and multiple roles consume more time; therefore, if a person spends more time at work, they have left less time for their remaining life. In that case, the pressure they receive from work causes a conflict or a work-related source of conflict. As a result, there is a link between work-life interference and workload. Women face more work-life interference because they perform multiple roles simultaneously, i.e., child/family care, workplace load, etc. On the other hand, men are primarily considered to be mainly breadwinners.

ii)-Strain-based conflict occurs when employees experience stress in one role, and this stress makes it difficult for them to perform other roles in a different sphere of life, i.e., the worker is overloaded and getting undue pressure at work causes stress, depression, or anxiety. Due to this, it becomes difficult for them to perform other roles in their private life. The conflict that arises in such situations is called strain-based conflict. In such instances, we presume that work-life interference has a direct link to happiness and well-being.

iii)-Behavior-based conflict occurs when certain behaviors/attitudes required in one role are incompatible with behavioral expectations in another role, such as when aggressive and objective behavior at work is incompatible with other roles that require warm and emotional behavior while interacting with family and friends. As a result, the behavior adopted in one role makes it difficult to perform other private life roles and, therefore, conflict arises.

1.1.2 A positive spillover: “Work-family enrichment”

Work and private life do not always create negative spillovers. Sometimes, one sphere of life positively impacts other spheres of life. This is called work-family enrichment. Work-family enrichment, in comparison to work-life interference, is a relatively new notion. Hence, there are fewer ways in which to characterize it (Shah, 2017).

Enrichment occurs when experience gained from one sphere of life boosts other spheres of life. For example, resources generated in one sphere of life, i.e., skills, perspectives, flexibility, physical, social capital, and material resources, improve the other domain's performance or influences the mental state. Therefore, the juxtaposition of work and family are not enemies (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2001; Greenhaus et al., 2006). Crouter (1984) discussed the positive effect of family members on work-life, called a positive family work spillover. In this case, the supportive nature of family members and valuable skills and personality adopted from home can positively impact decision-making at work. On these grounds, Zedeck and Mosier (1990) have developed a spillover model concept that work and family life can affect each other positively and negatively. The positive impact of work and family life on each other is called work-family enrichment. For instance, being a parent may help one empathize with subordinates' childcare problems at work and help resolve their issues, thereby called the positive family to work spillover (Kirchmeyer, 1992).

Similarly, having a good and successful day at work that uplifts your mood can help you to assist your parents/children. This is an example of positive work to family enrichment (Stephens et al., 1997). Positive spillover, or work-life enrichment, is defined by Demerouti et al. (2012) as the experience obtained from different roles carried out in the work domain or non-work domain. The performance of these two domains is improved as a result of this experience.

1.1.3 What is a balance between work and life?

According to Benito-Osorio et al. (2014), the term work-life balance (WLB) stems from work-family interference. The reality is that work-life balance (WLB) is a broad and difficult concept with no agreed definition (Greenhaus et al., 2003; Maxwell & McDougall, 2004). The work-life balance, conflict, and enrichment are all concepts that are still developing and empirically unsubstantiated (Carlson et al., 2009).

In 2000, we found that individual articles used different definitions of WLB (Kirchmeyer, 2000) that are inconsistent with others. Even the measurement of balance is problematic (Greenhaus et al., 2003). Other concepts of work-life balance have arisen in the literature since the beginning of the new century. Kirchmeyer (2000), for example, defines work-life balance as “achieving satisfying experiences in all life domains, and this requires personal resources such as energy, time, and commitment to be well distributed across all domains”. According to Clark (2000), work-life balance (WLB) is defined as “satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home, with a minimum of role conflict.” Greenhaus et al. (2003) see work-life balance as consisting of time balance, involvement balance, and satisfaction balance. Frone (2003) conceptualizes work-life balance as a state where individuals' work and family lives experience little conflict while enjoying substantial facilitation. According to Voydanoff (2005b), work resources meet family expectations, and family resources meet work demands, resulting in effective engagement in both domains. Greenhaus et al. (2006) conclude that each individual sets priorities in his or her life spheres and work-life balance refers to how well they execute these tasks and their level of happiness with work and life in comparison to their expectations.

Few authors criticize some initial definitions that overemphasize individual satisfaction and focus more on this role prioritizing. For example, Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) define work-life balance as an individual's ability to fulfill socially negotiated role responsibilities at work and in the family, as well as the accomplishments of role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between an individual and his/her role-related partners in the work and family domains. According to Kelliher et al. (2019), WLB is creating a balance between work and non-work life spheres by restricting one side in order to have more time for the other. WLB refers to the right prioritization of work (career and aspiration) and non-work-related activities, such as health,

enjoyment, leisure, family, and spiritual development (Fapohunda, 2014). There has always been discussion about what defines “balance”, adding to the field’s uncertainty (Voydanoff, 2005a). This word is again debatable amongst researchers and is rarely defined in the literature. According to Greenhaus et al. (2006), three types of balance coexist in the literature: time balance, involvement balance, and satisfaction balance.³ From another point of view, the term balance means “comfortable”, i.e., work-life balance is the “comfortable accomplishment of work and non-work responsibilities” (Saif et al., 2011). Taking a situationist approach, Reiter (2007) states that the extent to which a person has a satisfactory work-life balance will depend on how they perceive their situation, rather than any predetermined notion of what “balance” is. Greenhaus et al. (2006) define the term balance as an individual's satisfaction with their expectations, but Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) criticize this definition, considering that work-life balance is not an individual-level problem but a social issue.⁴ More recently, according to Poulouse and Sudarsan (2014), the term ‘balance’ in work-life research is about balancing three dimensions of life, i.e., organizational life, societal life, and an employee’s personal life. Work-life balance, according to Khan et al. (2020), is a personal subjective perspective. It is a good degree of contribution or fit among the numerous realms of an individual’s life, not an equal quantity of time distribution between paid and unpaid work.

To wrap up this first section, we'll keep the definitions underneath. Job-life interference is a type of inter-role conflict in which the demands of the work and family responsibilities are incompatible in some way, making it difficult for the individual to participate in the other roles. Work-life enrichment refers to when one aspect of one's life has a good impact on other aspects of one's life. This thesis focuses on work-family conflict and enrichment, distinguishing between time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based conflict. Finally, the following definition of work-life balance by Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) is retained: work-life balance as an individual’s

³ Some scholars see balance as time balance, which means an equal amount of time distributed among different roles, i.e., between work and family roles. Similarly, involvement balance means there will be an equivalent level of psychological involvement in various roles, i.e., work and non-work roles. The last is satisfaction balance, which means an equal level of individual’s own satisfaction with work and other non-work roles. So, it is an equal distribution of time, energy, and commitment to work and non-work spheres.

⁴ They consider that as the terms of satisfaction separating the **focal’s** work family-related activities from the environment in which these activities are performed. They argue that it is unfair to link satisfaction with the only individual who is performing work and life roles. In reality, the term balance means equal satisfaction of all the stakeholders who are affected with the term balance.

ability to fulfill socially negotiated role responsibilities at work and in the family, as well as the accomplishments of role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between an individual and his/her role-related partners in the work and family domain.

1.2 WLI: When did the debate start?

In this section, we discuss how work-life interference emerged as a concept and why it is important for researchers and practitioners. In addition, we highlight the recent research conducted on WLI.

1.2.1 A foot in the past and the present

Before World War II, women were primarily homemakers, but the outbreak of war created a critical need for vast increases in the number of women in the paid workforce (Beaton, 1982). Following WWII, as a growing number of women sought paid jobs outside the home, this caused inter-role tensions between work and family life, and therefore this became a topic of interest for researchers. These women typically continued to be the primary caregivers for their children and families while they were working. As a result, women began to take on multiple responsibilities, which put pressure on them to manage both spheres of their lives and created a need to balance employment and their familial obligations (Gatrell et al., 2013). Formally, the term work-life interference began to be used in the 1960s when researchers analyzed work and non-work-life interference under the lens of role stress theory (Shah, 2017). The myth of work-family balance was initially explored in the 1970s to explain the balance between an individual's employment and life after work (Khan & Fazili, 2016). It is important to note that, in previous literature, work-life balance was referred to as work-family balance with a relatively limited scope. Today, we also find alternative terms such as work-family interface (Demerouti et al., 2012) and work-life interface (Kaciak & Welsh, 2020) in the literature.

The research on work and private life balance has always reflected demographic, economic, and workplace changes (Benito-Osorio et al., 2014). However, we may say that the area of research is shifting in response to new trends. Hochschild's book, published in the 1970s, *The Time Bind*:

When Work Becomes Home, and Home Becomes Work, focuses on working mothers. This book highlights the work-family issue, with working parents attempting to balance increased work demands with childcare and home life difficulties. The term work-life interference (WLI) became more popularized during the 1980s and 1990s in relation to work stress and burnout in companies, as well as in the research domain (Lewis & Cooper, 1999). In companies, for example, IBM initiated a survey about work and life, and the Du Pont company created the job position of “Work-Life Director” in their organizational structure during this period. In short, the work-life arms race had begun. Similarly, researchers examined work-family conflicts as another source of stress which ultimately influences wellbeing (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1986). During the 1990s, work-life balance programs were considered a principal motivational force for employees and a leading retention strategy for Generation Y⁵ employees (born between 1982-2000). Therefore, many studies considered it a central area of concern for generation Y (Susaeta et al., 2013).

The field had become more multidisciplinary by the turn of the century: a "sprawling sphere of study comprising academics from numerous disciplines and distinct theoretical views" (Perry-Jenkins et al., 2000). With globalization and new technology, a growing number of young employees reported high job demand pressures and lack of free time for other activities due to 24/7 work and intensified human resource programs. This led to more attention for scholars to redefine work-life balance and link it to human resource practices (White et al., 2003).

Recently, there has been a focus on how information communication technologies blur the lines between work and life, significantly hampering work-life balance (Des Horts, 2009; OFFICE-ILO, 2017). According to a recent study (Ma et al., 2021), information technology has become an essential source of stress in the modern workplace, and these techno-stressors have a negative impact on individual work-life balance. Furthermore, in the past decade, investigators have started to examine the link between work-life balance and organizational effectiveness (Bloom et al., 2009). Still, work-life balance is the main research area for academics (Xu, 2009), business (Benito-

⁵ The term, Generation Y, was first used in 1993 by Advertising Age as the last generation to be born entirely in the twentieth century. Generation Y is also known as Echo Boomers, the Millennium generation, generation next, the internet generation (Reisenwitz & Iyer, 2009).

Osorio et al., 2014), and an area of discussion for politicians and non-government organizations (White et al., 2003).

1.2.2 Is WLI a real issue for companies and employees?

For many decades, scholars have attempted to define what work-life balance is and its positive and negative consequences (Powell et al., 2019). However, as the literature began to characterize work-life balance as a significant obstacle for businesses, the interference side became the focal point, generating more stress than enrichment (Benito-Osorio et al., 2014). As a result, the primary focus of this study will be on work-life interference (WLI). According to Allen et al. (2015), work-life interference is still a topic of considerable interest for researchers and organizations worldwide. It has great importance for governments and the management of organizations since it has an impact on different organizational and individual issues. For example, a survey conducted by Radcliff Public Policy Center in 2001 presented the results that “men and women with 82% and 85% having ages 20-39 rated family time at the top of the list of their work/life concerns.” In the recent decade, this issue has also been of public interest (Kelliher et al., 2019). Organizations must address both social and business requirements by assisting people in balancing their work and family lives. According to Powell et al. (2019), the nature of gender role, family, work, and career are some reasons for the explosion in work-family research. If we take a quick glance at the literature on work-life interference, we observe that it has evolved and expanded from focusing as an issue affecting working women (as women began to take on multiple responsibilities, they were under pressure to manage both sectors of their lives, necessitating a need to balance employment and work). That is why most previous research has linked this issue to female (mother) employees (de Luis Carnicer et al., 2004). However, today, in a broader discussion of work-life balance, it is considered an issue for both men and women, with or without spouses and children.

Further, deep research is also available on how employee work-life balance affects the organization in terms of turnover and financial performance (Benito-Osorio et al., 2014; Obiageli et al., 2015). For example, a study conducted in private hospitals in Jordan targeting medical staff found that work-life interference has a highly significant positive impact on employee intention to job turnover (Suifan et al., 2016). According to Garg and Rani (2014), the balance of work and life spheres benefits the organization by reducing absenteeism and lateness, staff turnover rate,

improves productivity, and increases employee loyalty. Similarly, work-life balance also benefits employees by raising their job satisfaction, sense of job security, and control over work and life, thus further reducing stress levels to maintain physical health. Some other studies show that the conflict may be on both sides, i.e., interference between job and family or work and family (Shah, 2017). The employees in such challenging situations make family trade-offs or job tradeoffs. These tradeoffs may affect employee performance at work and create another challenging situation for the organization (Mennino & Brayfield, 2002).

Work-life balance gives employees different work arrangements to keep them motivated and to maintain a greater output level, according to empirical surveys. Work-life interference has severe consequences on the three spheres of life, i.e., organizational, societal and personal life. These consequences result in poorer productivity and performance, diminished job satisfaction, employee burnout, job stress, poorer physiological and psychological health, inferior career ambitions and success, and diminished performance in personal life and family. These also contribute to increased absenteeism and intention to leave (Poulose & Sudarsan, 2014). Work-life interference has a more complicated link with performance, productivity, and organizational profitability, and many other factors impact these outcomes, i.e., employee wellbeing and employee turnover (Skinner & Chapman, 2013).

For this reason, some scholars search for moderators that influence this relationship with performance and turnover. Breakspear and Hamilton (2004), for example, state that employees should strive for work-life balance; otherwise, they will impede the productivity of both the organization and their coworkers. Other researchers suggest that by effectively implementing work-life balance policies, businesses can improve productivity and reduce employee stress, absenteeism, and annual medical expenses (Smith & Gardner, 2007).

1.2.3 Work-life interference: What does the literature say?

Work-life interference research has been concentrated on Western and industrialized countries, with little attention paid to the status of work-life balance in emerging countries (Ratnesh et al., 2019). Work-life interference amongst the workforce prevails more in developing countries (i.e.,

Pakistan) along with a high level of work pressures, which causes isolation from social networks (Bhutto, 2016) the reduced performance at work (Hussain & Mujtaba, 2012).

A detailed chart of research conducted in Pakistan is shown below (Table 1.1). In Asian underdeveloped countries, particularly in collectivist societies such as Pakistan, work-life interference is undesirable and has destructive costs (Kirn & Zaman, 2018). Nadeem and Abbas (2009) investigated the relationship between work-life conflict and job satisfaction in the public and private sectors in Pakistan and discovered a negative relationship between the two. Furthermore, they found no relation between work overload on employee job satisfaction. In another similar study by Saif et al. (2011), a positive association between work-life balance and job satisfaction was discovered in a sample of 450 layoff survivors working in two large firms in Pakistan. The authors found that a significant reason for the imbalance between non-work and work-life is overtime at work without additional pay. Employees in the banking sector spending more time at work than the contracted hours become dissatisfied regarding their work-life balance. The results of other studies carried out in Pakistan with the focused area of work-life interference are detailed in Table 1-1 below.

Table 1-1 Summary of research on WLI in Pakistan

Author/s	Sector of Pakistan	Result of research
(Zahoor et al., 2021)	Punjab banking sector	Work-family interference has a highly significant and negative effect on work-life balance.
(Akram et al., 2020)	Physicians from public and private hospitals in Punjab, Pakistan	Work-family conflict was a positive predictor, whereas life satisfaction was shown to be a negative predictor of suicidal ideation among the physicians.
(Sultan & Hayat, 2019)	Banking sector of Khaiber Pakhtoon Khuwa Province, Pakistan	Work-family interference negatively impacts the employees' performance and commitment, and supervisor support moderates the relationship between work-

		family conflicts and organizational performance.
(Ratnesh et al., 2019)	Meta-analysis	Flexibility, family demands, and needs are found to be the essential determinants of work-life interference among Pakistani employees.
(Shaikh et al., 2019)	Nonprofit organization of Sindh Pakistan (NGO)	Results indicated that the work-life balance of women was affected by factors such as employee engagement and organizational support.
(Haider et al., 2018)	Private banking sector	Psychological wellbeing mediates the link between WLB and job performance.
(Soomro et al., 2018)	Teaching faculty serving in public-sector universities in Islamabad	Work-life balance is positively correlated with employee performance, and job satisfaction moderates the relationship between work-life balance and employee performance
(Syed et al., 2018)	Female medical doctors practicing in hospitals in Lahore	The study confirmed that a positive relationship exists between WFC and intention to quit jobs in female doctors. No significant impact of stress as a mediator between work-family conflict and intentions to leave in female doctors.
(Kirn & Zaman, 2018)	Banking sector (front line officers)	Work-family interference and family work interference have a positive impact on the turnover intention of front line employees.
(Javed et al., 2014)	Private sector banks in Pakistan	Role conflict and job stress have a positive and significant relationship with the turnover intention of employees.

(Umer & Zia-ur-Rehman, 2013)	The education sector, Islamabad Pakistan	The work-life conflict has a significant negative impact on the life satisfaction of working women.
(Alsam et al., 2013)	Banking sector	Results reveal a positive and significant impact of work-family conflict and family-work conflict on turnover intention.
(Hussain & Mujtaba, 2012)	Public sector	The positive and significant relationship between work-life conflicts and the performance of employees.
(Rehman & Roomi, 2012)	Women entrepreneurs in Pakistan	To avoid work-life interference in their life, females preferred to run their own businesses. Their own businesses give them flexibility, control, and freedom to juggle with their family and social responsibilities.
(Anwar & Shahzad, 2011)	The public and private sectors of Pakistan	The results of the study reveal that there is a statistically insignificant negative relationship between work-life conflict and perceived employee performance in Pakistan.
(Shujat et al., 2011)	Banking sector of Karachi	The findings suggest that work-life balance has a positive but weak impact on employee job satisfaction in the private commercial banking sector of Karachi. Also, long working hours have a negative but weak relation with job satisfaction.
(Malik et al., 2010)	The public and private sectors of Pakistan	The multiple regression analysis shows that social support and job satisfaction have a significant strong positive relationship with work-family balance among female

		employees working in the public and private sectors of Pakistan.
(Noor & Maad, 2008)	Private sector employees from the marketing department	Work-life conflict and stress have a significant positive relationship with turnover intentions.
(A. Malik & Khalid, 2008)	17 private banks in Pakistan's twin cities, Islamabad and Rawalpindi	Long working hours are significantly responsible for work-life interference among employees.
Note: The table is designed by the author.		

However, if we examine the research on work-life interference (Table 1.1), there seems to be no research on the impact of work-life conflicts in moderating the relationship between perceived high-performance human resource practices and other outcomes, such as wellbeing and job turnover intentions.

To our knowledge, there is only one study, based on a Belgian sample, in the extant literature. Babic et al. (2019) have examined the relationship between these concepts. A detailed chart of international research conducted is shown below (Table 1.2), which summarizes that there is evidence in the literature that an employer's desire to reduce employee work-life interference has a positive impact on employee motivation, recruitment, and retention (Farivar & Cameron, 2015), as well as employee attitudes like organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Kim, 2014; Shanafelt et al., 2012). However, we find contradictory results in terms of the relationship between work-life interference and performance, i.e., a positive and substantial relationship, as well as no significant relationship (Chaudhry & Ahmad, 2011; Mohsin & Zahid, 2012).

Table 1-2 Summary of research on WLI impact

Author	Work-life interference impact	Research country
(Babic et al., 2019)	Work to family conflict (WFC) increases job strain and has no significant impact on job engagement . WFC also	Belgian company

	partially mediates the relationship between high-performance work systems (HPWS) and job strain. Employees perceive less WFC and more work-family enrichment in HPWS.	
(Chambel et al., 2017)	Work-life conflict increases burnout and decreases job engagement.	Portuguese service organization
(Neto et al., 2016)	Work-family conflict at Time1 and Time2 decreases the employee psychological wellbeing at Time2 and Time3, respectively (Cross-lagged analysis).	Portuguese service organization
(Haar, 2013)	Work-life interference significantly reduces the work-life balance. Work-life balance mediates work-life interference towards outcomes, i.e., job satisfaction, life satisfaction, anxiety, and depression.	New Zealand (Parents and non-parent employees)
(Demerouti et al., 2012)	High inter role conflict in early adulthood. Low inter role conflict in late adulthood. High inter role conflict in middle adulthood.	Review paper
(Van Der Heijden et al., 2008)	Work home interference was statistically significantly related to general health (cross-lagged analyses). WHI is an intervening variable in the relationship between job demands and general health over time (cross-lagged analyses).	Netherland (Nurses)
(Kelly et al., 2008)	Work-family conflict is related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intentions, tardiness, and absenteeism.	Review paper
(Carr et al., 2008)	When individuals view work as being more central to their lives, the negative relationships between WFC and organizational attitudes and organizational retention is suppressed.	Manufacturing plant (USA)

(Haar, 2004)	Work-family conflict and family-work conflict are both significantly associated with turnover intention.	New Zealand
Note: The table is designed by the author.		

In conclusion, based on the above discussion, we found that WLI has a severe adverse impact on employee psychological and physical wellbeing, satisfaction, commitment, and intention to job turnover. Hence, we propose to study how human resource practices (i.e., family-friendly work practices and high-performance HR practices) may help employees manage their work and private life to balance these two spheres, especially to reduce the adverse outcomes of WLI. Also, there is a need to identify other job characteristics which may help employees reduce negative work to life spillover, i.e., autonomy, task identity, task significance, and job support (Carvalho & Chambel, 2016b).

1.3 Spillover between work and life: “Basic models and theories”

Limited numbers of theoretical frameworks are available in the literature to guide the existing work-life research (Powell et al., 2019). Historically, work-life theories are primarily guided by role theory, based on the negative spillover between work and non-work life roles (Kahn et al., 1964). The work and family interactions are further explained by role theory, spillover theory, compensation theory, and boundary theory (Xu, 2009). In this context, this part focuses on three seminal papers proposing models about spillover between work and life: Zedeck and Mosier’s five models, Clark’s border theory, and Kahn’s role stress theory.

1.3.1 Zedeck and Mosier (1990) : 5 Models

Zedeck and Mosier (1990) outline five key models to explain the interaction between work and life outside of work after reviewing the literature. The descriptive model describing the relationship between work and life spheres is described below:

i- Segmentation Model

Work and non-work life are two distinct spheres of life with no relationship and no influence on each other. An individual can perform a role in one segment of life successfully without influencing the other. Individuals divide their time and energy for all the spheres of life, and they can perform accordingly in separate spheres. This model is based on a separate spheres pattern (Xu, 2009). According to Benito-Osorio et al. (2014), this model does not work in reality.

ii- Spillover Model

Most of the research in the work-family area has been done on the spillover theory (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). According to the spillover model, one sphere of life influences the other sphere. In general, positive correlations between work and family variables determine spillover; if an individual is content with their job life, it will improve their family life satisfaction. Work to family enrichment and family to work enrichment are two examples of positive spillover. According to Greenhaus and Powell (2006), when work experience improves the quality of non-work life, it is called work to family enrichment, and when family experience improves the quality of work-life, it is called the family to work enrichment.

The spillover may also be negatively related (Benito-Osorio et al., 2014). For example, according to (Piotrkowski, 1979), if work is boring, it may result in a loss of energy and make the worker lazy in their life and make them unable to do certain important things in the non-workplace, causing a negative spillover from work to life. Another example is a bad relationship between employee and supervisor that creates a stressful situation and may impact employee health and cause negative spillover. The focal point is that there are no boundaries for one's behavior (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990). This theory generally assumes that the direction of influence is from work to family (Zedeck, 1987).

iii- Compensation Model

The lack of one sphere of life, either in terms of demand or satisfaction, can be compensated for in other spheres of life (Zedeck, 1987). The work sphere and the life sphere have an inverse relationship, according to this idea. For example, an employee who spends less time with family

and more time at paid work may get more financial benefits and more satisfaction in the workplace. That high satisfaction at work is compensating for low satisfaction achieved due to conflicts that arise in the family because of sharing less time with the family. The excellent output from one sphere of life compensates for poor output in other spheres of life. According to Lambert (1990), this model explains the behavior of employees who spend more time at work when experiencing family problems.

iv- Instrumental Model

Activity in one sphere of life helps improve the environment in other spheres of life. Training in leadership skills at work also improves the quality of life outside work, or high performance at work causes more financial reward, which ultimately helps in enjoying the luxuries of life apart from the workplace.

v- Conflict Model

The conflict model is based on the theory that high demands from all spheres of life cause conflicts in life. The model is based on the view that resources are limited, i.e., time and energy. If we spend more time in one sphere of life to achieve a high return, we must spend less time in others; hence, contentment or success in one environment necessitates sacrifices in another. This area of life is sacrificed to acquire high results in another area of life (Benito-Osorio et al., 2014). Because they have different rules and requirements, each area of existence is incompatible with the other (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). If a person has greater family duties, it may lead to increased work absenteeism, tardiness, inefficiency, and inter-role conflict (that is, the conflict between work and family roles) (Zedeck & Mosier, 1990).

1.3.2 Border theory (Clark, 2000)

Border theory states that individuals are daily crossing borders between different spheres of life, i.e., work and non-work life, to play different roles in life. Individuals shape their environment and border between different spheres by themselves; therefore, individuals are border crossers. According to Clark (2000), spillover theory and compensation theory do not explain, predict, and

help solve the problem if work and life interference occurs. Therefore, these theories have limited usefulness in the literature, as they only address emotional linkages. Further, border theory argues that individuals are reactive and can manage their work and non-work spheres to shape the environment and boundaries according to their work and non-work demands. The addition of different variables in work-life research also makes the relationship between different spheres of life complicated. These variables were not truly explained by the spillover and compensation theories, i.e., supportive role of supervisor, supportive role of family and friends in the non-workplace, the role of family-friendly work practices, etc.

The Border theory explains how employees manage their different roles, which they are expected to perform in such a way to balance the roles. This theory is grounded on several core concepts. First, this theory states that employees live in different spheres of life, with different environments and rules, which require different behaviors and thoughts. Second, a border separates each sphere. These borders are physical, temporal, and psychological.⁶ Thirdly, individuals cross these borders frequently; this crossing is also physical and psychological. The negative or positive spillover of emotions from work to home and home to work is an example of psychological permeations. Fourth, there is border flexibility: individuals may expand or shrink their borders according to the demands of each sphere of life. The fifth focal point of border theory is blending, sometimes due to more permeability and flexibility of borders, creating a borderland that cannot be exclusively a border area of one sphere of life.⁷ Finally, different actors define or negotiate to set/constitute the boundaries between different spheres of life: border crosser, border-keeper, and other domain members.

Border keepers are those who share the same domain and influence the border crosser to define the border of different life spheres, i.e., the supervisor at work and spouse in the family sphere. Other domain members include friends in the non-work life sphere and coworkers in the

⁶ Walls (physical borders) separate home from social life outside the home; similarly, walls in the workplace separate it from non-work life. The temporal boundaries are hours allocated for each sphere, i.e., working hours separate workplace time from non-work time or family time is created as a border between work and life. The psychological border is a self-created border. The individual behaves differently in different spheres and each pattern of behavior makes a boundary between different spheres of life.

⁷ A good example of the blending of the border is when an employee attends work calls while dropping a child at school. This blending mainly occurs when an individual is juggling with demands from different spheres of life.

workplace. Border-keepers and other domain members work together to assist border crossers in managing the boundary lines between the different realms.

1.3.3 Work-life interference and role stress theory

The relationship between work-life interference and health is effectively defined by role stress theory (Kahn et al., 1964). It explains why individuals may face difficulties in combining many roles in their life (Demerouti et al., 2012). The scarcity hypothesis, which states that energy and time are fixed and predefined, is at the heart of the role stress theory. Multiple roles with high job demands create conflict among different roles (Demerouti et al., 2012) and ultimately cause bad-being. When an individual is faced with many expectations from multiple roles, conflicts arise, increasing the likelihood of mental disease in the long run (Neto et al., 2016). When high employment demands are combined with a lack of control over one's personal life condition, it can be extremely stressful (Karasek & Theorell, 1990). As a result of this condition, there is a high danger of mental strain, which increases the risk of psychological distress (Nordenmark, 2004). According to (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), stress is the state when the demands increase and resources are not sufficient to cope with these demands. Role stress theory supports that when the demands at work increase and the resources are incompatible with meeting these demands, then the conflict between work and life roles causes stress, leading to bad-being. According to Demerouti et al. (2012), role stress theory is based on the scarcity approach in which humans perform multiple roles with limited time and energy.

According to role theory, work-life interference due to multiple roles that are incompatible with each other causes continuous pressure and rising stress levels in employees and affects their performance. The employees in such a challenging situation make family trade-offs or job tradeoffs. These tradeoffs may affect an employee's performance at work and create another challenging situation for the organization (Mennino & Brayfield, 2002). A trade-off is a scenario in which one quality or aspect of something is sacrificed in return for the acquisition of another quality or aspect; if one item improves, another must decline. Employees in the situation of work-life interference sacrifice and make adjustments to fulfill different responsibilities either at their job or in their personal lives. If they make sacrifices in their personal lives due to their job, then it is called family trade-offs. And if sacrifices are made in their job due to family responsibilities,

then it is called employment trade-offs (Mennino & Brayfield, 2002); for example, missing family events or family functions due to long working hours at the job.

Similarly, employees also make adjustments in the workplace to decrease the level of work-life interference, i.e., make adjustments at the job by starting a part-time job instead of full-time work, working from home, or compromising on promotion to avoid high job responsibilities at a higher level. Assisting workers in reducing work-life conflict is seen as both critical for the company and valuable for society as a whole (Carlson et al., 2009). Balancing work and family life is primarily a current challenge for the new generation living with high technology (Halpern, 2005b).

In conclusion, research suggests that humans are living in different spheres of life, i.e., work, private life, social life, etc. Hence, if one's work experience improves the quality of non-work life, it will be known as *work-family enrichment*, whereas if non-work life affects one's life negatively, it is known as *work-life interference*. According to border theory, humans are regularly crossing different borders to perform different roles, and it becomes a challenge for employees to manage their different roles while moving around different spheres. If an individual is faced with many expectations from multiple roles, and he/she is continuously crossing borders, this can result in conflicts, and they may have difficulties in combining the many roles. Similarly, the scarcity approach suggests that humans perform multiple roles with limited time and energy; therefore, when the demands at work increase and the resources are incompatible with meeting these demands, then the conflict between work and life roles causes stress, leading to bad-being.

1.4 Workplace wellbeing: The outcome of WLI

This section explains the concept of employee wellbeing at work and elucidates how work-life interference affects employee wellbeing at work. Work-life interference has many consequences, as identified in previous research. One of the prominent consequences of work-life interference is bad-being. This section also highlights the perils of work-life interference for employee wellbeing.

1.4.1 What is wellbeing in the workplace?

According to War (1987), wellbeing in the workplace is the “overall quality of employee experience and functioning at work”. Baptiste (2008) defined wellbeing in the workplace as the feeling of an employee about himself in relation to his job. According to Grant et al. (2007), most managers narrowly define only one dimension of wellbeing as employee perception of job satisfaction. The bottom line is that there is still no consensus among researchers on the definition of employee well-being (Zheng et al., 2015).

The majority of studies support the notion that employee wellbeing has a positive link with employee performance (Fisher, 2003). At the organizational level, it improves profitability by lowering absenteeism and health-related expenditures (Danna & Griffin, 1999). Because of these factors, employee wellbeing is now of great interest in organizational studies and the main concern for organizations (Grant et al., 2007). Different variables/HR practices that affect employee wellbeing at work, such as job insecurity, working hours, control at work, and managerial style, have been researched (Sparks et al., 2001). On the basis of these studies, employers have designed policies and programs with the ultimate goal of improving the performance of employees, as well as the performance of the organization. But this is not a simple task. Sometimes, human resource (HR) practices improve one dimension of employee wellbeing and undermine another. We call this a wellbeing tradeoff. For example, offering high targets makes the job challenging and increases job satisfaction, on the one hand, but also increases stress and physical strain for employees (Grant et al., 2007). Managerial approaches frequently result in wellbeing tradeoffs by improving one component of wellbeing, such as psychological wellbeing, while reducing another, such as physical wellbeing. Employee wellbeing, according to Grant et al. (2007), comprises three dimensions: psychological happiness, physical health, and interpersonal relationships (social).

i- Happiness: Psychological wellbeing

The study of psychological well-being⁸ has occupied researchers for decades. Psychological wellbeing, according to R. M. Ryan and Deci (2001), comprises two components. The first is

⁸ Psychological wellbeing refers to how people evaluate their lives (Kundi et al., 2020).

concerned with subjective pleasure experiences or the employee's own assessment of his/her own level of satisfaction; this component of wellbeing is primarily concerned with happiness and defines pleasure and pain avoidance. The degree to which a person is completely functioning is the second component of psychological wellbeing.

ii- Health: Physical wellbeing

This aspect of wellbeing is mainly studied by social and natural sciences and is more focused on subjective experiences of bodily health (Testa & Simonson, 1996). It refers to the actual physical health of workers (Danna & Griffin, 1999). Researchers in the social sciences investigate the relationship between employment and employee physical health, assuming that labor is a possible source of damage or disease (Danna & Griffin, 1999; Frone et al., 1997). It (paid work) may be a source of stress (Theorell et al., 1990). All employees have experiences when they are in the workplace; these experiences are physical, emotional, mental, and social in nature. They are either good or bad and may also “spillover” into other domains of life and directly affect the health wellbeing of the employee (Danna & Griffin, 1999).

iii- Relationships: Social wellbeing

The quality of a worker's relationships with other workers and communities, as well as how well they feel socially integrated, close to, and comforted by others, is referred to as social wellbeing (Keyes, 1998). Social wellbeing is primarily concerned with the relationships that take place between coworkers (Bradbury & Lichtenstein, 2000). An example of high social wellbeing is an employee who is more connected to society and has positive interpersonal relationships. Social wellbeing is studied by organizational scholars in terms of trust, social support, cooperation, coordination, and integration (Bradbury & Lichtenstein, 2000; Gerstner & Day, 1997).

According to Zheng et al. (2015), subjective wellbeing and psychological wellbeing are linked with the individual's well-being.⁹ They define the three aspects of the general well-being of

⁹ Subjective wellbeing refers to the individual's overall assessment of their quality of life, while psychological wellbeing is the fulfillment of personal potential involving self-acceptance, personal growth, purpose in life, positive relation with others, and autonomy.

an individual: life, psychological, and workplace wellbeing. As work is a significant part of our lives today, its environment dramatically influences our wellbeing. Employee wellbeing is about one's own perception regarding work satisfaction, family satisfaction, and life satisfaction. Wellbeing in the workplace is then more concerned about employees' satisfaction with their workplace conditions¹⁰ (Zheng et al., 2015).

1.4.2 Bad-being and stress as the outcome of work-life interference

Work-family conflicts and role strain cause psychological symptoms, such as stress (Chapman et al., 1994), lower quality of family life (Higgins et al., 1992), increased pain or fatigue (Burke, 1988), life dissatisfaction (Adams et al., 1996; Aryee, 1992), and physical disorder (Frone et al., 1997).

Many of the same strain outcomes used as dependent variables in stress research are associated with role conflict: tension, work-related satisfaction, intent to turnover, and job performance (Fisher & Gitelson, 1983); emotional exhaustion (Jackson & Warr, 1984), and depression and somatic complaints (Ganster et al., 1986).¹¹ An unwanted response of the body or brain to any event or stimulus is defined as stress (Kavanagh, 2005). Increased working hours and working from home cause more interference of the work domain with the non-work life domain, potentially leading to more stress among individuals and affecting their wellbeing. A study by Opie and Henn (2013) conducted on South African mothers working in different organizations reveals that the mothers who experienced more work-life interference were less engaged in their work assignments. Similarly, employees make more sacrifices in their lives to control the damage because of more work-life interference, for example, sacrificing job flexibility in exchange for a promotion (Mennino & Brayfield, 2002). Work-family conflicts are linked to depression, poor health, and hypertension (Frone et al., 1997).

¹⁰ Work satisfaction is defined as a good emotional and pleasurable state perceived by an employee resulting from the appraisal of his own job (Locke, 1976).

¹¹ According to Halpern (2005b), work-related stress results in a number of negative physiological and behavioral consequences, including sleep deprivation, high blood pressure, and increased levels of metabolic hormones that cause fat deposits in the body. Furthermore, work stress also disturbs the functioning of the immune system, thereby, increasing healing time for wounds.

In Japan, the problem of karoshi (work to death) and the severity of work-holism and its outcomes of depression and hypertension has been a point of discussion since the early 1980s.¹²

More broadly, employees' "bad-being" at work as a cost is an important topic of study today. For example, the European commission reveals that 66% of causes of work stress are long working hours and a heavy workload (Pan-European opinion poll on occupational safety and health 2013). The employee who is experiencing bad-being in the workplace may be less productive, be more prone to be absent from work, make lower-quality decisions (Boyd, 1997), and make fewer contributions to the organization (Price & Hooijberg, 1992). As a result, the increased elevated stress leads to poor health, especially when a person lacks coping tools (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). So, work-life interference generates stress, which leads to ill-being in the long run. Carvalho and Chambel (2016a), in their study, gathered data from 218 employees of a Portuguese city council to explain the relationship between work-life interference and burnout, as well as subjective wellbeing. The results of the study revealed that the employees who perceived high work-life interference significantly faced more burnout-like situations, which reduced the subjective wellbeing of the employees. A longitudinal study by Van Der Heijden et al. (2008), which collected data from 753 registered nurses working in hospitals, nursing homes, and home care organizations, found that high job demands lead to higher WFI and ultimately to poor health.

One research finding revealed that multiple roles often have benefits and do not always have detrimental effects on the role performer (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). A study by Barnett and Baruch (1985) found that, among working women, there was no correlation between work-family interference and anxiety, and role overload and anxiety were significant but weak.

To conclude, the existing literature suggests that job stress is predictive of both affective and psychological symptoms of bad-being. Theories and empirical evidence (role stress theory) support the idea that combining work and non-work responsibilities frequently creates more demands than one can handle, resulting in overburdening and stress. As a result, there's a high

¹² Karoshi is one of the consequences of work-life interference, deteriorating an employee's health (Kanai, 2009). The Council for Karoshi Victims (1989) defines karoshi as a fatal condition in which the living rhythm of a human being collapses due to excessive fatigue and high stress generated from the work environment. As a result, the life maintenance function is ruined. These are all consequences of work and family conflict leading to the poor wellbeing of an employee in the workplace.

chance of inter-role conflicts or work-life conflicts. This imbalance in all domains of life can lead to stress, psychiatric illness and affect general health in the long run (Babic et al., 2019; Carvalho & Chambel, 2016a; Haar et al., 2014; Van Der Heijden et al., 2008). Accordingly, based on role stress theory (Kahn et al., 1964), we hypothesize the following:

HYPOTHESIS 1: Work-life interference negatively relates to employee wellbeing in the workplace.

In conclusion, the wellbeing of employees in the workplace is the point of concern (Kundi et al., 2020). To date, there is no consensus among researchers about the definition of employee wellbeing, as it consists of different dimensions, i.e., psychological, physical, and social. However, the widely used definition of wellbeing was defined by War (1987) as the perceptions of employees regarding the satisfaction level of their own experience and functioning at work. **Hence, our model is based on the assumption that work-life interference might have adverse consequences on employee wellbeing in the workplace.** This is because employees make more sacrifices in their lives when they are faced with high job demands.

1.5 Intention to turnover: Expected consequences

Keeping the employee is a real challenge for human resource management (Branham, 2000). However, little research has been done in the past to determine the links between work-life interference and employee intention to leave their jobs (Syed et al., 2018). There is evidence that an employer's desire to reduce employee work-life interference has an impact on employee retention (Farivar & Cameron, 2015). Indeed, occupational stressors are associated with psychological strain, which is allied with turnover (Schwarzkopf et al., 2017). To understand this more in-depth, we need to define the intention to job turnover before stating our second hypothesis of job turnover as a consequence of work-life interference.

1.5.1 What is the intention to job turnover?

Intention to job turnover is the situation when an employee starts thinking about changing or switching their jobs within a particular period (Kerdpitak & Jermstiparsert, 2020).¹³ According to Syed et al. (2018), it is an employee's desire or plan to leave their current employment for whatever cause.¹⁴ In meta-analysis research, Mor et al. (2001) have defined it as seriously considering leaving one's current job. Dess and Shaw (2001) explain two types of turnover: when an employee leaves the job of their own free will, it is called voluntary turnover, and when an employer fires an employee, it is called involuntary turnover.

Turnover or intention to turnover?

Some studies in the literature looked at whether employees were currently considering leaving their current job (Mowday et al., 1984), while others looked at whether they (the employees) had considered leaving their jobs in the past (e.g., the past three months) or if they are planning to leave the current job within that time frame (Munn et al., 1996; Watty-Benjamin & Udechukwu, 2014).

Thus, according to Mowday et al. (1984), withdrawal cognition is a two-step process that starts with the employee's desire to leave the job. The second step is when the employee begins to search for a new job in another organization. He/she also makes a distinction between the intention to and turnover. According to Carlson et al. (2017), turnover is the permanent withdrawal, either voluntary or involuntary, from an organization. To explain this, Mobley et al. (1978) describe the employee

¹³ Mor et al. (2001), in a study based on a meta-analysis of 25 articles, found that high intention to job turnover in the organization is the result of burnout, job dissatisfaction, low commitment, lack of social support available at work, and higher stress level amongst employees. The same study categorized the antecedents of intention to job turnover into three levels (1) demographic factors, (2) professional perceptions, and (3) organizational conditions. The demographic factors included personal and work-related factors, the professional perceptions including organizational commitment, and job satisfaction as a significant antecedent of intention to job turnover. Finally, the organizational conditions included HR practices, such as fairness with respect to compensation organizational culture.

¹⁴ Linking intention to job turnover only because of an interest in switching jobs or to avail oneself of another opportunity gives a limited view of the definition. The above definition in terms of South Asian culture, i.e., Pakistan, is limited in that employees (female) may think about leaving a job not necessarily to take another job (switching) or for another good opportunity, but to stay at home. For example, high job demand at work can make it difficult for a female employee to manage home care responsibilities and she will create a situation for her to leave the job and stay at home. Similarly, after marriage, female employees' home care demands or even increased child care responsibilities may put pressure on them to stay at home and cause an increase in intention to job turnover.

process of decision making to leave the job: 1) Job dissatisfaction motivates the employee to think about leaving the organization; 2) Thought about leaving the organization motivates the employee to think about searching for a new job; 3) The probability of finding an acceptable alternative job also increases his/her intention to search for the job; 4) Intention to search for the job factor leads towards the intention to quit the job; and 5) Intention to quit the job leads to turnover.

Boamah and Laschinger (2016) have stressed that turnover intention is positively related to the actual turnover, which means the intention to leave the job is the representation for actual turnover. Deery and Jago (2015) also share a similar understanding that it is worth focusing on turnover intention because before the actual turnover occurs, corrective actions can be taken to avoid it. Turnover research has also shown that employees' self-expressed intentions to leave their jobs are the best predictors of actual turnover (Beecroft et al., 2008). However, researchers and practitioners are more interested in studying employee behavior for job turnover intention rather than turnover because, for employers, it is only possible to control the turnover if they take corrective measures at the stage when employees begin to think about switching their jobs.

The costs of intention to turnover

Technological advancement and increase in knowledge work require highly technical workers in a competitive market. This is why the attraction and retention of these highly trained employees are more critical today than ever before (Holtom et al., 2008). This study area, i.e., turnover intention, has been widely studied by researchers in the past decades (Kerdpitak & Jermittiparsert, 2020). Today, organizations critically analyze the issues that contribute to high turnover and that ultimately affect organizational objectives (Imtiaz & Ahmad, 2009). Another reason for critically analyzing this issue is that the demand for technical labor is so high around the globe that it creates a shortage of quality labor in critical industries, which also emphasizes the importance of retaining the labor force in a competitive market (Holtom et al., 2008).

When an employee leaves an organization, it adds direct costs to the financial books, i.e., separation and new recruitment costs, loss incurred by employee training, and the new training costs of the incoming employee (Boles et al., 2001; Syed et al., 2018). There are also some indirect costs that organizations bear when a quality employee leaves the organization, i.e., it decreases the

trust and morale of surviving employees as well as clients associated with the organization, resulting in a loss of production and quality (Kerdpitak & Jermstiparsert, 2020). Because firms invest in employee overtime, turnover can diminish organizational performance and employee productivity. In addition, the indirect costs related to employee intention turnover are more problematic because determining the exact cost is difficult, i.e., It is difficult to quantify the loss of efficiency of employees before they leave the company, as well as the loss of productivity while a new employee learns the job completely (Mor et al., 2001).

1.5.2 Intention to turnover as an outcome of work-life interference

High job demands, such as workload, number of hours worked, shift work, and over time, are associated with work-life interference and generate an imbalance between different life spheres (Van Der Heijden et al., 2008). A lack of balance between an employee's work and personal life is frequently linked to lower psychological and physical wellbeing, which can lead to unhappiness and negative health consequences, forcing him/her to reconsider their decision to stay on the job (Grzywacz et al., 2006). A detailed study conducted by Boamah and Laschinger (2016), in which data was collected through a cross-sectional survey of 215 registered nurses working in hospitals in Ontario, examined the role of work-life interference amongst new nurses and intention to job turnover. The findings revealed a highly significant indirect association between work-life interference and intention to change jobs based on nurses' burnout experiences. The authors concluded that job turnover was a reoccurring issue that might be avoided by enhancing nurses' working conditions and establishing a positive work atmosphere.

The literature shows mixed results, some positive, others negative when measuring the specific relation between different variables and employee intention to turnover; therefore, additional research is required in this area (Mowday et al., 1984). For example, according to Mor et al. (2001), the biggest determinants of intention to leave the job are organizational or job-based, rather than personal or related to work-family balance. However, previous studies support that work-life interference is a major antecedent of job dissatisfaction. For example, Munn et al. (1996) found a highly positive correlation between inter-role conflicts with the intention to job turnover. Syed et al. (2018), conducted a study in Pakistan and collected primary data from 270 female doctors who were working in hospitals and found a positive link between work-life interference

and female doctors' intentions to leave their employment, but stress did not play a role in mediating the association between work-life interference and intention to job turnover.

Although the findings of earlier studies show that work stress is a significant contributor to organizational issues, such as excessive turnover, the mixed results regarding the impact of work-life interference in different cultures create a gap in the research that can be filled by studying this link in different nations.

In our research, the basis of the study is role stress theory (Kahn et al., 1964). As a result, we devised the following hypothesis to investigate the link between work-life interference and employee intention to leave their employment:

HYPOTHESIS 2: Work-life interference positively relates to employee intention to job turnover.

In conclusion, the extant literature shows that employee intention to job turnover is a two-step process that begins with the employee's desire to leave the job and, in the second step, the search for a new job. The significance of intention to job turnover is vital since it leads to actual turnover (Boamah & Laschinger, 2016) that causes financial costs to organizations, as well as decreases the trust and morale of surviving employees (Kerdpitak & Jermittiparsert, 2020). Hence, in this section, we delineated the relationship between work-life interference and intention to job turnover.

Conclusion

To deal with our research objective, i.e., to understand whether work-life interference influences the wellbeing of the employee at the workplace and his/her intention to leave the job, this chapter has put in perspective and defined the concepts of work-life interference and work-life balance and highlighted the debates about their consequences before formulating two hypotheses, which are the building blocks of this thesis.

To begin with, we included a literature review about the concept of ‘work-life interference’ (WLI), defining it as “Work-life interference is a form of inter-role conflict in which the demands of work and family roles are incompatible in some respect so that participation in one role makes it difficult for the individual to participate in the other roles”. The chapter also defined some related phrases, i.e., work-life enrichment and work-life balance. Work-life balance (WLB) is an ever-emerging issue which has no clear definition in the literature. After a review of major definitions used in previous studies, we agree with Grzywacz and Carlson's (2007) definition of work-life balance as an individual’s ability to fulfill socially negotiated role responsibilities at work and in the family, as well as the accomplishments of role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between an individual and his/her role-related partners in the work and family domains.

The literature review also shows that the major challenge of work-life balance is the conflict between work-life and non-work life, as work-life interference has deteriorating effects on the individual as well as on society. To deal with this challenge, we choose to ground our research in Kahn et al.'s (1964) role stress theory. We also put in evidence the two main deteriorating effects of WLI, which are the building blocks of the formulation of two hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1 - WLI negatively relates to employee wellbeing in the workplace.

Hypothesis 2 - WLI positively relates to employee intention to job turnover.

Technological developments and long working hours make WLI a topic of interest in Pakistan nowadays. The country is characterized as a collective society where women are still considered responsible for home care, but due to high inflation rates, women also participate in the labor force to support their families, which also highlights the issue of WLI as a challenge for human resource management. In developing countries, organizations pay the high cost of employee bad-being and turnover, and even the mixed results amongst wellbeing and turnover intention motivate us to re-study this relationship.

We reviewed this literature to show how WLI makes the situation challenging for human resource professionals, and, in order to concentrate on the above, they divert their efforts to focus more on the work, family, and social issues of employees. Consequently, this chapter opens the

door to new challenges faced by human resource management, i.e., what actions HR needs to take to achieve sustainable competitive advantage. The next chapter will be focused on HR practices, i.e., perceived high-performance human resource practices and family-friendly work practices. We will propose a literature review that addresses how these HR practices may influence employee wellbeing and their intention to job turnover through employee work-life interference. Taken together, chapter 1 and chapter 2 build a new theoretical approach, wherein we will examine how HR practices (i.e., HPHRP and FFWP) influence employee wellbeing and intention to turnover via work-life interference.

CHAPTER 2



CHAPTER 2: WORK-LIFE INTERFERENCE AND HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICES

Introduction

In the previous chapter, we discussed the “balance between work and life spheres” and the costs involved due to interference between these two spheres. To continue our research objective in this chapter, we will discuss the effect of human resource practices (i.e., HPHRP and FFWP) on work-life interference along with the impact of moderators, i.e., perceived manager support and perceived family/friends support. The chapter reviews the relationship between how employees perceive high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP), family-friendly work practices (FFWP) with work-life interference (WLI), employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB), and employee intention to job turnover (IJT). Although FFWP are part of HPHRP, to open the black box, we have separated family-friendly work practices from high-performance human resource practices. The current chapter is an effort to explain family-friendly work practices and good practices, i.e., high-performance human resource practices. Do these practices work as mutual gains for both employees and employers or as buffers in the labor process, causing the bad-being of employees. Our intent is to explain the role of work-life interference as a mediating variable between perceived HPHRP, FFWP, and employee wellbeing in the workplace and turnover intentions. We further intend to review how employees perceive the support received in the workplace and non-workplace, i.e., the support received from the manager (MS) and support from family and friends (FFS), and how these supportive actions moderate the relation between high-performance human resource practices and work-life interference.

We have divided this chapter into four parts. In the first part, we define the theoretical framework, i.e., social exchange theory, conservation of resource theory, and job demand resource model, to explain how HR practices are perceived by employees. In the second part, we define family-friendly work practices and the outcomes expected from these practices. In the third part,

we intend to define the myth of high-performance human resource practices and try to look inside of a black box. In part four, we intend to review the support received by employees, i.e., managers' support and the support received from family and friends.

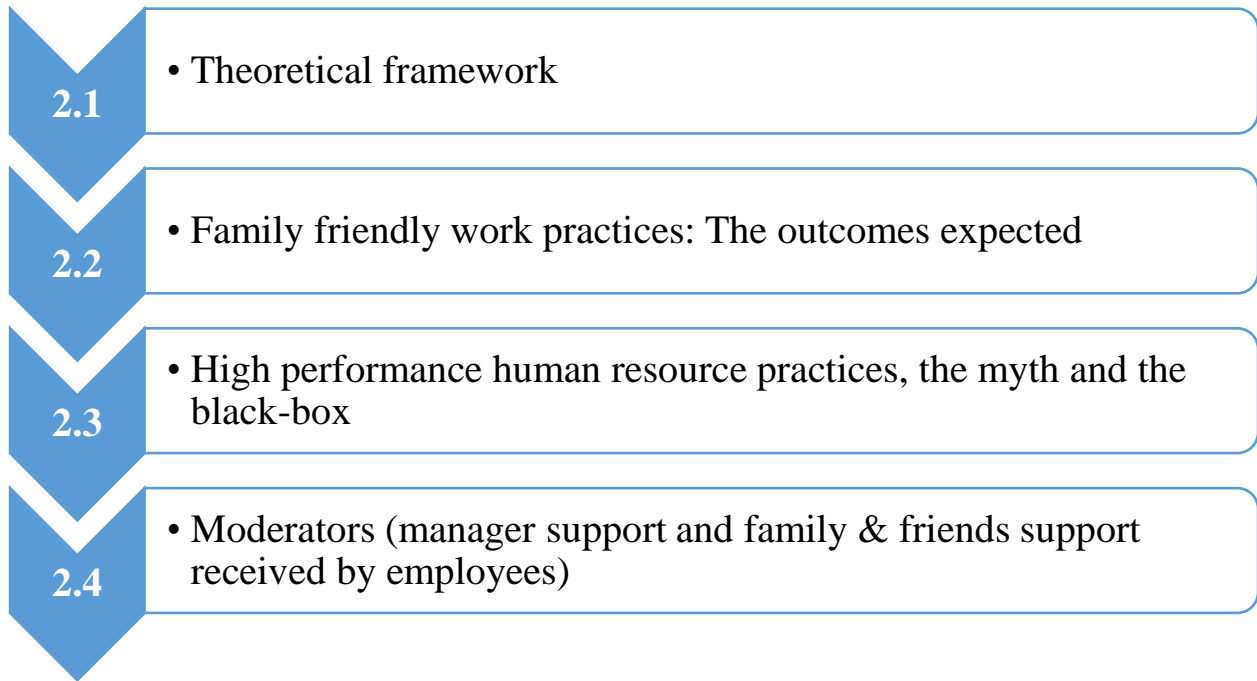


Figure 2-1 Chapter 2 outlines

2.1 Theoretical framework

Loyalty capturing (reducing intention to turnover) and increasing the performance of hundreds of employees can be enormously difficult (Skinner, 1981). Therefore, organizations design human resource practices as a competitive advantage with the ultimate goal of increasing the performance of the employee. All such programs designed to elicit superior performance from employees, as well as from organizations, are called high-performance human resource practices (Huselid, 1995). How employees perceive these practices and react is a myth and a black box. The theory supports that if employees perceive these practices as resources/good practices, then ultimately as social exchange behavior, they, in return, have a positive attitude towards the organization (Blau, 1964). Family-friendly work practices are also implemented with the aim of helping employees achieve a balance between the different spheres. As the literature suggests, implementation of FFWP also increases organization performance (Konrad & Mangel, 2000); therefore, FFWP are also part of HPHRP.

The current chapter explains why we separate FFWP from HPHRP. However, prior to that, we discuss the theories that support our research model. A theory is a system consisting of constructs/variables, which are related to each other by propositions/hypotheses (Bacharach, 1989). Researchers in the field of strategic human resource management implement theory to link HRM and its output to answer how and why they are linked (Savaneviciene & Stankeviciute, 2010). Good theory-building needs conceptualization and the integration of concepts into a logically coherent framework (Bacharach, 1989).

2.1.1 Social exchange theory

There is evidence that employers' concern with reducing employee work-life interference can have a positive impact on motivating, recruiting, and retaining employees (Farivar & Cameron, 2015) and on employee attitudes, such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Kim, 2014; Shanafelt et al., 2012). This positive impact on performance has been explained by the use of social exchange and gift exchange theories, where it is argued that employees respond to opportunities to tailor their working arrangements to fit their non-work lives with, for example, enhanced effort or commitment (Kelliher & Anderson, 2010). Likewise, gift exchange proposes

that a “gift” of flexibility that manages the work-life interface above the market norm stimulates better performance (Konrad & Mangel, 2000).

The extant literature has tended to fall into four main lines of inquiry. First, a body of research is concerned with individual outcomes of employees achieving (or otherwise) a satisfactory work-life balance. This work has mainly indicated the positive effects of work-life balance on individual wellbeing (Lingard & Sublet, 2002; Lunau et al., 2014; McGinnity & Russell, 2015), resulting from a “buffering effect”, which protects individuals from negative experiences in either domain and which may reduce stress caused by tension between roles. Second, considerable research has examined the outcomes of employer policies designed to help employees achieve a more satisfactory work-life balance, such as providing flexible work options (Farivar & Cameron, 2015; Lero & Lewis, 2008). Indeed, helping employees achieve a satisfactory work-life balance has been advocated as good practice by many policy organizations (e.g., Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, European Union, and International Labour Organisation).

The theory supports the relationship between high-performance human resources programs and work-life interference. Social exchange theory reflects individuals' reactions to what they receive from others (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Gould-Williams, 2007; Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005). Based on the social exchange theory, employees have a positive attitude and better moods because they assume that human resources practices support them, create a better working environment, and help them achieve their goals.

2.1.2 The conservation of resource theory

The conservation of resource theory (COR) (Hobfoll, 1989) is widely used in the study of organizational stress and explains its relationship with work-life interference (Neto et al., 2016). According to Butts et al. (2013), future research might draw from COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) to examine how employees perceive HR practices and their health outcomes relationship. It has been employed to explain the spiral effect of the relationship between work-family interference and job resources on the basis of the assumption that work-family interference evokes a situation of loss of resources, i.e., time and energy (Demerouti et al., 2004) that has negative spillover impact on

employee wellbeing, which, in turn, results in the draining of resources for confronting the next threat or loss and consequently results in more inter role conflict.

The theory based on three points (Nauman et al., 2020) addresses the following:

- i- Employees with more resources tend to gain more resources.
- ii- Employees with fewer resources are more likely to experience resource losses.
- iii- Employees with a lack of resources will set up defensive attempts to conserve their remaining resources.

Employees with high job demands are likely to pay physiological and psychological costs that could affect their ability to conserve their valuable resources at work.

More often, higher job demands are also associated with more work pressures, which may hamper normal functioning in different spheres of life. This could be a reason for a higher level of work-life interference and stress (Hall et al., 2010). With the help of this theory, we tried to explore how WLI and stress further result in a spiral effect.

2.1.3 Job demand resource model (Demerouti et al., 2001)

The organization provides resources to increase employee control over schedules and substantially reduce work-family conflict (Chou & Cheung, 2013). The JDR model identifies two main job characteristics: job demands and job resources (Häusser et al., 2010). According to (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), job demands are the “things that have to be done”. Job demands are used in terms of workload, time pressure, physical and emotional demands (Karasek et al., 1998), and job demands exhaust employees’ mental and physical resources, i.e., time and energy, and cause inter-role conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) leading to a deterioration of their psychological or physiological health (Patel et al., 2013). Job demands are not always necessarily negative. They are only negative and cause work stress, depression, anxiety, and burnout when these high job demands require high physical and psychological effort associated with high costs (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

The second job characteristic, job resources, refers to those aspects of the job that help in achieving organizational goals and reducing high job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). According to Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), more job resources in the workplace lead to more job engagement and only because of their intrinsic and extrinsic motivational role. Employees who process more resources are more able to cope with stress-like situations, and they probably experience fewer negative outcomes (Hobfoll, 2002). Maslach et al. (1986) hypothesize that individuals expect more negative outcomes, i.e., bad-being, turnover, absenteeism, and less commitment to the organization if they perceive more workload, inter-role conflicts (job demands) and less social support and autonomy (job resources).

According to Butts et al. (2013), future research might draw from the job demands-resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001) to examine the relationship among HR practices, health outcomes, and work attitude.

The model hypothesizes that increased resources for workers reduce psychological strain and enable them to cope better with higher job demands. Working from home, flexible working hours, paid leaves on short notice, and good management practices, i.e., high-performance human resource practices, are useful resources for employees to manage their high job demands from work as well as from non-work life. So, we assume that such family-friendly work practices basically help the employee to control stress situations that occur due to high job demands at work.

2.2 Family-friendly work practices (FFWP)

Globalization, information technology, economic conditions, and family structure have amalgamated the boundaries between work and non-work spheres and caused inter-role conflicts (Shah, 2017). This work-home interference affects employee wellbeing (Van Der Heijden et al., 2008). Such an environment brings several challenges to the human resource department in its goal for a sustainable competitive advantage (Fareed et al., 2016).

In this context, employers should take a proactive approach to cope with these challenges and implement various human resource practices, i.e., family-friendly work practices (FFWP), to help employees achieve a good balance between their work and family lives (Benito-Osorio et al., 2014; Vadivukkarasi & Ganesan, 2015). According to Syed et al. (2018), the previous studies suggest that family-friendly work practices significantly reduce job stress and turnover intentions among employees.

In this research, we focus on assessing how family-friendly work practices in the workplace can alleviate work-family conflict and how other human resource practices can act as remedies to reduce work-life interference. In our research, we have separated family-friendly work practices from high-performance human resource practices to emphasize the true impact of such practices on work-life interference.

In the first part, we gave a detailed discussion of family-friendly work practices. In the second part, we discuss why companies/organizations invest in family-friendly work practices. In the third section, we discuss the research gap and links between family-friendly work practices with work-life interference, employee wellbeing in the workplace, and employee intention to leave the job.

2.2.1 What are we talking about?

According to Lazar et al. (2010), programs and policies designed to help employees to balance as well as manage their work and non-work times are called family-friendly work policies.

Family-friendly work practices are provided by the employer to assist employees in balancing the demands of their work and family commitments (Bagraim, 2007).

Some FFWP implemented by organizations are flexi-time, telecommuting, compressed workweeks, part-time work, and job sharing. According to Benito-Osorio et al. (2014), many organizations today, coping with the challenges of social, cultural, ethical, and political changes, implement programs that focus on corporate social responsibility (CSR). Within their CSR

programs, firms also include family-friendly work practices with the idea that these help to encourage a good relationship between the organization and employees.

The provision of FFWP in any organization depends on different factors, i.e., the nature of the industry, size of the organization, the proportion of female workers in the organization, and the HR system (Davis & Kalleberg, 2006; Ingram & Simons, 1995), and the perception of senior management regarding FFWP (Ngo et al., 2009). Some work-family policies implemented by the organization include:

Flexitime:

This policy allows workers to decide or be involved in deciding the starting and end times of their job, providing them with the ability to meet family or personal obligations (McNall et al., 2009). In such Flexi arrangements, the organization gives its employees the autonomy of flexible working hours. The employee must be present during a core period of the day, and the rest is flexitime. Organizations get more benefits from such arrangements by increasing the morale of employees, reducing the stress and turnover of the staff, and ultimately making an employee more efficient in the workplace. On the other side, employees also benefit from such arrangements as they get more control over their work and non-work roles and can adjust their day-to-day activities, which helps them reduce work-family conflicts (Tariq et al., 2012).

Telecommuting:

Telecommuting is a type of Flexi place arrangement that allows workers to do at least some of their regular work from home instead of coming to the office. This program gives employees the opportunity to manage their working day around their personal and family needs and to work in a less stressful and disruptive environment. In the literature, we find mixed results of such arrangements in terms of relation to work-family interference. For instance, Irawanto et al. (2021) conducted a quantitative study on 472 workers who were forced to work from home all over Indonesia during the pandemic situation and found that working from home leads to a decreased level of job satisfaction and a significant and negative effect on work-life balance. Their conclusions suggested leaving work at the workplace. Similar results were also found in the study

conducted by Hyman et al. (2003), which concluded that working at home affected the health of employees, as well as fostered a level of stress and emotional exhaustion.

Compressed work weeks:

This is a program that allows the employee to work longer shifts in exchange for additional holidays (longer weekends allow “mini-vacations”). This program is an opportunity for employees who wish to reduce the number of days per week spent at work but who cannot financially afford to decrease their working hours. In compressed workweeks, employees complete their assigned jobs in fewer working days (Tariq et al., 2012). The main aim of the compressed workweeks arrangement is to create a flexible system in which employees have more time to pursue education, cope with eldercare, commuting, childcare, etc. The most popular types of compressed workweek arrangements are working for longer days per week instead of 5 regular days (McNall et al., 2009).

Part-time work:

Part-time arrangements program is an opportunity for those workers who have important responsibilities at home, i.e., health problems with family members, or limited time, i.e., students. This program is also an opportunity for mothers or fathers who have stayed at home to raise their children. From the employer’s point of view, this program is an opportunity to maximize the use of human resources during peak periods.

Job sharing:

This program gives two or sometimes more employees the opportunity to jointly fill one full-time job, with responsibilities and working time shared. When one of the partners is on sick leave or on holiday, the other will fill in.

Paid leave on short notice:

Being at work when the employee needs to be at home with a sick child or spouse causes work stress. In such a situation, paid leave on short notice is a big relief for employees who have

to manage their non-work activities (Halpern, 2005b). Employees are entitled to such leave if they need a day off at short notice due to child-care or parent care problems (Bloom et al., 2009)

2.2.1.1 Why do companies invest in FFWP?

Today, family-friendly work programs initiated by employers are considered important for balancing employees' work lives and social lives (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 1999). However, at the same time as implementing FFWP in organizations, employers expect less turnover, a decrease in absenteeism, high commitment from employees, and an increase in employee efficiency and organizational performance (Frye & Breugh, 2004). However, when we explored the research work in this area, we found the mixed results of FFWP reported regarding their effects.

Researchers have studied the relationships between FFWP and several important work-related attitudes and behaviors. Some empirical studies have reported positive relationships (Aryee et al., 1998; Halpern, 2005a). Other empirical studies and meta-analytic reviews have also reported modest to no relationships between work-family programs and employee attitudes and behaviors (Preece & Filbeck, 1999).

Researchers such as Frye and Breugh (2004) and Grandey and Cropanzano (1999) also have studied the impact of family-friendly work practices with the perception that these programs are expected to reduce work-family interference, increased job satisfaction, and individual and firm performance. Some scholars, e.g., Konrad and Managel (2000) and Perry-Smith and Blum (2000), have viewed that these FFWP have a positive impact on the productivity of the firm, which is why organizations introduce such programs. Another view is that, as the unemployment rate has fallen in the U.S. and the UK, organizations have become more focused on the quality of jobs rather than the number of jobs and have raised the issue of FFWP as the main agenda (Bloom et al., 2009). This may be the reason that in developing countries, due to high rates of unemployment, these FFWP are less in practice.

In a research-based study, Bloom et al. (2009) reached a very strong conclusion that FFWP have no direct or indirect impact on the profitability of the organization. The organizations only implement these programs as corporate social responsibility (CSR). McWilliams and Siegel (2000),

define corporate social responsibility as all actions of the organizations that contribute toward social welfare beyond the perspective of what is required for profit maximization.

Davis and Kalleberg (2006), state three core reasons to define why organizations use family-friendly work programs:

- i- Internal economic pressures
- ii- External economic pressures
- iii- External institutional pressures

Most organizations invest in their workers, i.e., provide extensive training to create and sharpen special technical skills. Turnovers in such a situation increase the financial pressures on the budget, and new recruitment and training costs add losses to an organization. Thus, firms use FFWP to increase the loyalty of employees towards the organization and increase the opportunity cost for an employee to leave the firm. This pressure on the firm is called internal economic pressure.

The organization, which depends on a highly technical labor force, offers more FFWP to attract a well-trained labor force and retain it in the organization. This is called external economic pressure. Organizations also adopt FFWP due to legal obligations (coercive pressures), or sometimes human resource professionals encourage their organizations to adopt such programs as a part of corporate social reforms (normative pressure). Similarly, some organizations adopt these FFWP to copy prestigious organizations that implement such programs and have positive results with productivity (mimetic pressures). These coercive, normative, and mimetic pressures that influence organizations to adopt the FFWP are called external institutional pressures.

Other scholars explain different demographic characteristics of organizations, which may be the reason they are forced to adopt FFWP. Hypotheses measured by different researchers with independent and dependent variables are mentioned below:

- 1- Organizations with more skilled workers offer more FFWP.

The research of Konrad and Mangel (2000) supports this hypothesis, but Bloom et al.'s (2009) results deny this hypothesis.

- 2- Organizations with more female workers than males are likely to adopt more FFWP.

The research of Konrad and Managel (2000), Perry-Smith and Blum (2000), and Osterman (1995) support this hypothesis, but Ingram and Simons' (1995) and Bloom et al. (2009) results refute this hypothesis.

- 3- Organizations offer more FFWP when the ratio of female managers is higher compared to male managers.

The results of studies by Bloom et al. (2009) and Ingram and Simons (1995) support this hypothesis.

- 4- In larger-size firms, the FFWP are more significant to firm performance compared to small ones.

The results of research by Perry-Smith and Blum (2000) and Ingram and Simons (1995) do not support this hypothesis. However, according to Yamamoto and Matsura (2014), there is a positive relationship between productivity and WLB practices in large-sized manufacturing firms employing more than 300 workers.

- 5- In older firms, the FFWP are positively significant to firm performance compared to younger firms. The results of research by Perry-Smith and Blum (2000) do not support the above results.
- 6- Public sector organizations are more inclined to adopt the FFWP than single-owned businesses. The results of Ingram and Simons (1995) support this hypothesis.

Bloom et al. (2011) describe three main reasons that some organizations offer FFWP. i) - Good management practices and family-friendly work programs are positively related, and FFWP have a positive impact on the productivity of those firms where good management practices are followed. This is why firms with good management practices offer more FFWP. ii) - Organizations that employ more technical jobs/skilled workers, as well as have good management practices, offer more FFWP. iii) Organizations that employ more female managers, as well as have good management practices, also offer more FFWP.

2.2.1.2 Why don't all organizations offer FFWP?

Employees are entitled to FFWP, but, actually, not all employees use these programs to keep their work and lives in balance. Thus, the impact of FFWP cannot be reflected in the productivity of the firm, or the productivity remains the same because the other variables are taken

as constant. In a survey of 732 medium-sized manufacturing firms in the U.S., France, Germany, and the UK, it was found that firms in the United States of America have a high score in good management practices, but the worst score in FFWP and French firms have a high score in FFWP and low score in good management practices (Bloom et al., 2009) These results contradict the first conclusion mentioned above that organizations with good management practices offer more family-friendly work programs.

International comparisons of within-country firms have very opposite results, thereby opening the door for further research for researchers (Bloom & Van Reenan, 2009). Furthermore, U.S. firms, when they open their offices in Europe, adopt the European FFWP and bring over their best management practices. This begs the question, and is a potential subject for researchers, why do these firms not offer the same FFWP in their parent offices in the US (Bloom et al., 2011). So, in our study, we separate family-friendly work practices from high-performance human resource practices to see whether the consequences of these practices are the same or different in the case of various employee outcomes.

According to Ollier-Malaterre and Andrade (2016), the impact of family-friendly work programs is not reflected in productivity because of the following reasons: i) family-friendly work programs are available but not utilized by employees, ii) the impact of family-friendly work programs is offset due to unfavorable tradeoffs, iii) cost-benefit analysis is not clear.

- FFWP offered by the firm but not utilized by the employee:

The first assumption is that employees' work and life are in balance, and there is no work-family conflict and family-to-work conflict in their lives. Thus, they do not use FFWP, and the impact on productivity is zero.

The second assumption is that family-friendly work programs are available, but employees do not have information about such programs or do not have access to such programs. Thus, the impact is not reflected in productivity. Ollier-Malaterre and Andrade (2016) conducted research on two European multinational firms to investigate to what extent employees are aware of and have access to the family-friendly work programs. They found that 41% of employees in the first multinational firm and 39% in the second never had access to the family-friendly work programs and, simultaneously, that 53% and 57%

of employees in both firms, respectively, were not aware of all the family-friendly work programs offered by the company. So, under such conditions, it is difficult for researchers to ascertain the real impact of FFWP on the wellbeing or performance of employees, as well as on the productivity of the firm.

Third, according to Nord et al. (2002) and Beauregard and Henry (2009), many employees are hesitant to use FFWP because they think that if they benefit from FFWP, then they will be perceived to be non-committed to the organization, which will be harmful to their career growth. In such a case, the norms and values of the organization do not favor the use of FFWP. According to Lewis (1997), employees who work for long hours are considered more productive and committed to the organization compared to those who do not work extra hours. In such cases, the FFWP offered by the firms cannot help reduce the level of work-family conflict and neither influence the productivity of the firm because the impact of FFWP can only be visible if employees use such programs. So even if organizations offer more FFWP, employees may hesitate to take advantage of these friendly HR practices. Due to this, the impact of such programs cannot be reflected in organizational performance or productivity. If employees do not use the family-friendly programs, then they make adjustments and compromises in their family lives, called family tradeoffs. The compensation model will also support the employee in this case.

The fourth assumption is employees resolve their work-family conflict through their own resources. Work-life balance is not the division of equal time between work and family, according to Clark (2000). Work-life balance is defined as “satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home, with a minimum of role conflict”. The accepted principle is that FFWP helps to balance these two spheres of life. But in countries where the poverty level and rate of inflation are high, the major cause behind WFC is financial problems/low salary, not long working hours. In such cases, high salaries offered by firms and more overtime pay (for longer work hours) can help to balance work and life and minimize family conflicts, i.e., employees can afford to pay for child daycare. In such cases, employees will not use FFWP to resolve family conflicts. Instead, they will choose to work longer hours. Similarly, many organizations as part of FFWP provide child care facilities near the office areas to support working mothers and to boost their commitment to the organization, but some societies are collectivist in nature, and mothers prefer to leave their children at home

with grandparents based on the combined family system. In such societies, this form of FFWP may not be very attractive and thus will not add to the productivity of the firm.

- FFWP can be utilized by employees, but the impact may be offset because of unfavorable trade-offs:

Different unfavorable tradeoffs are also very important to study because they offset the impact of FFWP on firm productivity, i.e., if a female employee avails herself of maternity leave of three months, but her annual sales targets are the same as other employees, then the unrealistic target may cause hindrance in career growth or a reason for less year-end performance bonus. In this case, the results offset the positive impact of FFWP (maternity leave).

- Cost-benefit analysis is difficult:

Although different research studies, i.e., Zedeck and Mosier (1990), conclude that a decline in absenteeism and reduction in turnover are some benefits seen in organizations that implement family-friendly work practices, the direct cost and benefits of programs may not be readily apparent. It is easier to assess profits from new equipment installed than to measure the gain (in terms of finance) from the work-family programs implemented, i.e., programs that allow the mother to stay at home with a sick child, take maternity leave, or work from home. The bottom line is that some employers do not offer FFWP in their organizations because they are unsure about the benefits of these practices with respect to productivity, retention, and morale (Chou & Cheung, 2013).

There have been some inconsistent findings on the effects of formal policies, such as on-site childcare (Berg et al., 2003). Some studies have identified that the use of resources, such as on-site childcare, have increased perceived work-family balance (Ezra & Deckman, 1996) and job satisfaction (Salzstein et al., 2001). The positive findings on family-friendly policies from these studies have served as catalysts to initiate visible policies, such as workplace childcare centers in individual companies. However, some researchers, i.e., Jacobs and Gerson (2004) and Runté and Mills (2004), have expressed concerns about formal policies, such as on-site child daycare support, because they see them as likely to be adopted by employers to maximize productivity while, in fact, they may reinforce the integration of the domains of work and family. Bruegel and Gray (2005) point out that family-friendly policies are expected to loosen the constraints on further involvement with their children's care. Another study by Mennino et al. (2005) studied wage and salaried

workers ($N = 2,877$), using the 1997 National Study of Changing Workforce (NSCW), and found that the availability of company policies, such as dependent care benefits and flextime, were less effective in reducing negative spillover than improvements in the atmosphere of the workplace. Similarly, Berg et al. (2003), found that such formal policies were less effective than employee participation and workplace atmosphere in increasing employees' perceptions that the company helped them balance their work and family responsibilities.

2.2.1.3 FFWP: Still a hot debate

The importance of family-friendly work practices and their impact on our society can be shown in the policy statements issued by the heads of states from time to time. Some of them are quoted here:

In 2014, Ex-President USA Barack Obama, in his first White House Summit on working families, stated that "Family leave, childcare, flexibility and a decent wage aren't frills. They are basic needs. They should not be bonuses - they should be the bottom line".

In 2005, Ex-PM UK Tony Blair gave a statement on BBC Radio 4's Woman's Hour that "the future is one in which it is incredibly difficult for people to juggle work and family life ... we need to be extending the ability of people to get help with that situation, both in respect of childcare and in respect of extending maternity pay and maternity leave."

In 2016, Myriam El Khomri, the French Minister of Labour, while discussing the need for laws regarding work-life balance, stated that "the boundary between professional and personal life has become tenuous". As of January 1, 2017, France has enacted a law that gives its workers a legal right to ignore emails and digital correspondence from coworkers and bosses when out of the office.

In Japan, long working hours, arduous over time, and few holidays have given rise to "karoshi," the term for death by overwork and are believed to be a significant factor behind Japan's declining birth rate. Tokyo's Governor Yuriko Koike has ordered municipal employees to finish

work by 8 pm and that anyone still at their desks will be subjected to “strict monitoring” by overtime prevention teams (*The Telegraph News*, September 16, 2016).¹⁵

Below are statistics that show how it becomes difficult to maintain a work-life balance in the absence of family-friendly work practices:

- 1- 60% of working adults in the U.S. report difficulty balancing work and family (Keene & Quadagno, 2004).
- 2- According to Garner (2016), in a survey of 2000 women (a project of ILO)¹⁶ in the UK, the following findings were found:
 - a- 18% of working mothers have been forced to leave their jobs because a flexible working request has been turned down.
 - b- 60% of women said they changed jobs after maternity leave.
 - c- 38% pay no childcare costs, as they use family/friends to cover pick-ups or work school-friendly hours.
 - d- 46% use grandparents to reduce childcare costs.
- 3- A report published on July 24, 2015, by the Equality and Human Rights Commission, after a survey done¹⁷ in the UK, found that around 54,000 new mothers were forced out of their jobs in Britain each year. The results of the survey also revealed that of the mothers who were allowed to work flexibly amongst them, 50% reported negative consequences, such as receiving fewer opportunities at work or feeling that their opinion was less valued.
- 4- According to the OECD economic survey done in March 2015,¹⁸ in France, around 8% of employees work very long hours, less than the OECD average of 13%. The OECD economic survey rated WLB in France at 9 out of 10 scores. The situation in Pakistan is much worse, as working hours in Pakistan have been left completely unregulated by the government. Officially, banking hours in Pakistan are from 9 am to 5 pm for customers, but

¹⁵ <https://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/2016/09/16/tokyo-workers-ordered-to-leave-desks-by-8pm-in-overtime-crackdown/>

¹⁶ <https://www.workingmums.co.uk/mums-forced-due-lack-flexible-jobs/>

¹⁷ <https://www.equalityhumanrights.com/en/our-work/managing-pregnancy-and-maternity-workplace>

¹⁸ https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/economics/how-s-life-2015/employees-working-very-long-hours_how_life-2015-graph28-en

the closing of banking transactions takes time and, on average, they require two to three hours of overtime (un-paid) which is not documented.

Family-friendly work practices are expected to reduce work-family interference and increase job satisfaction and individual and firm performance. Social organizations and political bodies continuously discuss the importance of family-friendly work practices, but the literature shows that all organizations are not implementing such practices in their workplace and that some employees are reluctant to utilize such programs.

2.2.2 FFWP: What outcome is expected? A gap in research?

According to Lazar et al. (2010), reduction in absenteeism, reduction in staff turnover, improvement in productivity, increase in employee loyalty and commitment, and improvement in organization image are some benefits to those organizations that implement family-friendly work practices. Those organizations that offer FFWP can expect more productivity and commitment from employees and have an edge in attracting quality employees (Halpern, 2005b). This idea is consistent with social exchange theory (Homans, 1958). The theory proposes that social behavior is the result of an exchange process, i.e., the “gift” of flexibility to manage the work-life interface above the market norm results in better performance (Konrad & Mangel, 2000). The award-winning companies offering FFWP to their employees provide higher returns on investment than other industry-matched companies (Cascio & Young, 2005).

However, on the other side, Bloom et al. (2011) raise the question that if the output of FFWP is so beneficial for employers as well as for employees, and if these FFWP have a significant impact on productivity, then why do not all organizations offer such programs to their employees? After many decades of research, the relationship between FFWP and the performance of the organization is still not clear (Ngo et al., 2009).

In a research-based study by Bloom et al. (2009), the data collected from 732 manufacturing firms in the U.S., UK, France, and Germany offers a very different and newer perspective: that FFWP have no direct and indirect impacts on the profitability of organizations but offer these programs only as corporate social responsibility. McWilliams and Siegel (2000) define corporate

social responsibility as all actions of organizations that contribute towards social welfare beyond the perspective of what is required for profit maximization. This view is supported by signaling theory (Spence, 1973), that posits that employees respond positively to signals that their employer is concerned about them, leading to the greater organizational attachment. The signaling theory has been used to argue that employees respond positively to signals that their employer is concerned about their work-life balance, leading to greater organizational attachment (Casper & Harris, 2008). Furthermore, based on notions of the psychological contract, flexibility and ideals negotiated in pursuit of work-life balance are seen to create mutual benefit (Rousseau et al., 2006).

The results of Bloom et al. (2009) study lays a base for the emergence of the second school of thought that states that FFWP have no significant relation with a high proportion of the female workforce and no positive correlation with firm productivity.

A study by Chou and Cheung (2013) in Hong Kong analyzed the bundle of nine FFWP and reported that of the nine, only three friendly HR practices, namely “availability of flexible work time”, “a five-day workweek”, and “career breaks” were significantly and negatively related to work-life interference. Therefore, the availability of all family-friendly work practices might not all necessarily have the same desired outcome.

We examine the effects of FFWP on employee outcomes in order to address the call by Bloom et al. (2011) for the need to investigate the role of FFWP and whether it has positive consequences on employee work-related outcomes. Accordingly, to study the detailed implications of family-friendly work practices, we base our work on theories that define the relation of family-friendly work practices, i.e., the job demand resource model, conservation of resource theory, and social exchange theory, discussed in section 2.1.

2.2.2.1 FFWP: A remedy for work-life interference

The availability of FFWP alone has only a small impact on reducing employee perception of work-life interference (Allen, 2001). In a study, Frye and Breugh (2004) found that family-friendly policies were predictive of less work-family interference. However, mixed results of FFWP and WLI suggested that such programs designed to help keep employees lives in balance do not necessarily reduce work-family interference (Wang et al., 2011).

In this research study, **our basic hypothesis is that “family-friendly work practices” reduce “work-life interference” by increasing employee resources at the workplace to meet the work demands.** Such arrangements are also expected to reduce work pressures by easing time pressures generally. The practices we considered are flextime or flexible working hours, compressed workweeks, i.e., employees often work more hours per day but fewer days per week (McNall et al., 2009), and paid leaves on short notice. We expected that, by easing time pressures, flexible working times would reduce work pressures. The rationale for focusing on flexible work hours is that flextime may be more effective than flex-place (i.e., working from home) (Byron, 2005; Shockley & Allen, 2007).

Working from home (taking work home) sometimes has a negative impact and increases work-life interference, so it has been suggested that work should be left at the workplace (Hyman et al., 2003). But, on the other hand, in another study by Glass and Estes (1997), evidence from the U.S. suggests that flexible working hours reduce work-family interference. Therefore, according to the literature review, there are two schools of thought on this issue mentioned above.

There has been longstanding interest in identifying basic causes behind work and non-work life interference. Job-related factors such as long working hours, short work deadlines, and unsupportive supervisors have all been shown to influence perceptions of work and non-work-life balance among employees (Allen & Finkelstein, 2014). Research also shows that different types of working arrangements are effective in balancing these two spheres of life, i.e., flexible working practices. Organizations need to show respect for their employees' other life engagement and create an atmosphere that allows them to fully participate in non-work-life activities. Therefore, our

hypothesis is based on the viewpoint that such friendly HR practices help employees balance their different spheres of life.

Hypothesis 3: Family-friendly work practices negatively relate to work-life interference.

A simple definition of work-life interference from the literature is when it becomes difficult to meet the requirements of one sphere of life due to high demands from another sphere of life; the result is high stress which affects the health of employees (Kahn et al., 1964). So, in the next step, we identify whether FFWP helps to reduce this stress and improves wellbeing in the workplace.

2.2.2.2 FFWP supports employee wellbeing in the workplace

Mixed results of the relationship between FFWP and WLI may point to the existence of some unidentifiable variables that need to be studied to better understand the relationships between FFWP and different work-related outcomes, i.e., employee wellbeing in the workplace (Wang et al., 2011).

Being at work when the employee needs to be at home with a sick child or spouse causes work stress. Therefore, in such a situation, if paid leaves are given to employees on short notice, this can help avoid stress and positively impact their wellbeing in the workplace.

Family-friendly work practices, i.e., flexible work practices, compressed weeks, and paid availability of paid leave in emergencies, tend to reduce stress for all employees (Clark, 2001). This idea is consistent with the role stress theory (Kahn et al., 1964) that defines the relationship between work-life interference and stress. We expect that offering more family-friendly work practices works as supportive resources and helps to reduce work stress due to high job demand.

Hypothesis 4: Family-friendly work practices positively relate to employee wellbeing in the workplace.

If poor conditions in an organization cause bad-being in employees, then the most immediate effect of poor health will be the employee's desire to find a new job. This can lead to employees beginning to search for new jobs in other organizations. Organizations can expect that, when offering FFWP, they will help employees maintain good wellbeing in the workplace and ultimately retain their employees in the organization to reduce job turnover.

2.2.2.3 FFWP and employee intention to job turnover

According to Chou and Cheung (2013), more and better intervention studies are needed to demonstrate how family-friendly policies can reduce turnover. Social exchange and gift exchange theories reflect the reaction of individuals to what they receive from others (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Based on the social exchange theory, employees have a positive attitude and better moods because they assume that human resource practices support them, create a better working environment, and help them achieve their goals. The availability of family-friendly work practices gives a sense of organizational support to employees and raises their commitment and motivation to the firm, tying them to the organization for the long term. Our hypothesis is built on this theory, and we expect to find a negative relation between the availability of family-friendly work practices and intention to job turnover.

Hypothesis 5: Family-friendly work practices negatively relate to employee intention to job turnover.

2.2.2.4 FFWP and role of WLI as mediators

The job demand resource model, in particular, in relation to work-family interference, is often conceptualized as a mediator between work stressors and strain (Butler et al., 2005).

According to Chou and Cheung (2013), many researchers have studied family-friendly work practices because such practices help employees recover from health issues and reduce stress resulting from inter-role conflicts. Therefore, researchers consider work-life interference as a mediator between family-friendly work practices and desirable outcomes (good-being, employee retention) (Hammer et al., 2003; Frye & Breaugh, 2004). On the basis of the literature reviewed above, we propose the following hypotheses

Hypothesis 6: Work-life interference mediates the relationship between family-friendly work practices and employee wellbeing in the workplace.

Hypothesis 7: Work-life interference mediates the relationship between family-friendly work practices and employee intention to job turnover.

To conclude, it is argued in the literature that offering FFWP as part of corporate social responsibility in an organization in an effort to retain good employees and reward hard-working employees is still highly debatable. The literature also suggests that organizations must design and implement benefits, practices, and policies to help their employees reduce work-life interference. However, organizations can only get the desired results from FFWP if these programs are supported by workplace culture and by revisiting the current work processes, systems, structures, and practices which lead to unnecessary stress and workload (Thompson & Prottas, 2005). According to Chou and Cheung (2013), family-friendly work practices may not be helpful if they are not linked to other human resource policies, such as core work hours, job security, and pay & promotion, or, specifically, high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP). Otherwise, these FFWP may either be underutilized or result in a negative consequence for their users.

2.3 Perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP)

Since the mid-90s, the literature has focused on establishing human resource management (HRM) perspectives leading to improved organizational performance. In the field of strategic human resources management it is still a topic of active research (Han et al., 2019). The term high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP) constitutes a claim that there exists a system of work practices that leads in some way to superior organizational performance (Boxall et al., 2019).

The role of high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP) is acknowledged by contemporary research for achieving and sustaining the competitive advantage of organizations (Albrecht et al., 2015)

2.3.1 What are we talking about?

Human resource management (HRM) systems have different labels for these practices, i.e., High-Performance Work Systems (HPWS) (Han et al., 2020), High Involvement Work Practices (Lawler, 1986; Macky & Boxall, 2008;), and High Commitment Work Practices (Agarwala 2003; Wood & Albanese, 1995; Xiao & Bjorkman, 2006). Several researchers have used these conceptualizations interchangeably (Wood & Menezes, 1998; Zacharatos et al., 2005), but based on Bryson et al. (2005) arguments, “High involvement and High commitment are less loaded terms than the notion of high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP)”¹⁹. According to Boxall and Macky (2009), these are companion terminologies as commitment and involvement are directly linked to the performance of the employee in the organization. High commitment is achieved through policies, i.e., improved merit system, trust development, and creating a sense of security in the organization, while high involvement is achieved through redesigning the job, i.e., through empowerment and participation in decision making. The organizations that implement high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP) benefit from more productivity by enhancing the skills of their employees, increasing their motivation, and raising their participation in decision-

¹⁹ Despite the different labels, i.e., high involvement and high commitment programs, their common thread is that organizations can achieve high performance (Boxall & Macky, 2014) by adopting practices that recognize and leverage employees’ ability to create value (Gittell et al., 2010)

making (Appelbaum et al., 2000), and such practices provide those firms with a competitive advantage. Many employers remain reluctant to adopt high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP) in their organization for reasons that may include institutional resistance to change, threats from the environment, and the lack of a clear and coherent taxonomy that identifies the range of available practices and their relationship to performance outcomes (Posthuma et al., 2013).

2.3.1.1 What are HPHRP?

Huselid (1995) defines HPHRP as a collection of individual, interrelated HR practices that increase the performance of employees and organizations by means of improving the competence, attitudes, and the motivation of the workforce and contribute to the competitive advantage of organizations. Those practices include comprehensive employee recruitment and selection procedures, incentive compensation and performance management systems, and extensive employee involvement and training.

High-performance human resource practices are bundles of programs that enhance “AMO”, i.e., i- employee ability, ii- motivation, and iii- opportunities²⁰ (Applebaum et al., 2000). Cooke (2001) defined HPHRP as a bundle of key HR techniques essential for high performance to take place. These systems include practices such as incentive compensation, high levels of training, employee participation, rigorous selection procedures, promotion from within, flexible work arrangements, stability in employment, and information sharing. Similarly, Way (2002) defined HPHRP as a set of interrelated practices which together select, develop, and motivate workers with higher skills. Moreover, motivated workers apply these skills to work, leading to better performance and consequently improving the performance of the whole workforce of the company. He concluded that ‘HRM practices to be included as HPHRP must be linked to selecting, developing, retaining, and/or motivating (gaining access to) a workforce that produces superior employee output’.

Evan and Davis (2005) define HPHRP ‘as an integrated system of HR practices that is internally consistent (alignment among HR practices) and externally consistent (alignment to

²⁰ i- employees ability, i.e., training and skill development, ii- motivation, i.e., high pay, career development and information sharing, and iii- opportunities, i.e., employee involvement and teamwork.

organizational strategy) that include selective staffing, self-managed teams, decentralized decision making, extensive training, flexible job assignments, open communication, and performance-contingent compensation. Kramar and De Cieri (2008) suggest that HPHRP are the policies and practices involved in carrying out the ‘HR’ aspects of a management position; these policies and practices include human resource planning, job analysis, recruitment, selection, orientation, compensation, performance appraisal, training and development, and labor relations. According to Snell et al. (2015), high-performance human resource practices are a specific combination of practices, work structures, and processes that maximize employee knowledge, skill, commitment, and flexibility.

In this current dissertation, we consider Huselid’s (1995) definition of HPHRP for the following reasons. First, Huselid considers HR practices to be a collection of an individual but interrelated HR practices. Second, he focuses on how these practices affect employee attitudes and behaviors (in our case, work-life interference, work-life balance, and turnover intentions).

2.3.1.2 Looking into the black box: The myth about HPHRP

According to Savaneviciene and Stankeviciute (2010), the “black box” in human resource management refers to the unanswered issues in the HRM-performance field. The black box refers to unclear processes that occur when inputs are converted into useful output (Purcell, 2003). A black box is a mysterious relationship with no explanation of how inputs are translated into outputs and what goes on in between (Fleetwood & Hesketh, 2008). Although these practices are called high-performance human resource practices because of their link between HR practices and performance, the great dilemma is that there is still little knowledge available about how the mechanism of high-performance human resource practices works, and this is due to the lack of understanding of mediating variables and their effect. This gap is referred to as the black box (Mihail & Kloutsiniotis, 2016; Savaneviciene & Stankeviciute, 2010). Table 2.1 demonstrates the overview of researchers who argue that HPHRP are still a black box.

The most important part of the debate related to HPHRP is its linkage with performance; some researchers state that there is a direct relationship between HR practices and performance (Schuler & Jackson, 1987), and others are more focused on the indirect relationship between HR

practices and performance link (Wright & Gardner, 2000). So, in relation to the second research path, it is important to open the black box to identify the mechanism of how HPHRP work with mediating variables.

Table 2-1 The Black box and HPHRP

Author	Viewpoint
(Messersmith et al., 2011)	There are blind spots in the literature with respect to the mediating mechanisms that HPWS operates through to affect performance outcomes.
(Karadas & Karatepe, 2019)	The issue pertaining to the mechanism linking HPWS to the attitudinal and behavioral outcomes of employees still remains unresolved.
(Takeuchi et al., 2007)	When specifically discussing HPWS, the mechanisms by which HR practices operate are less clear.
(Úbeda-García et al., 2018)	It is necessary to incorporate additional intermediate variables to improve our understanding of the processes through which HPWSs influence an organization's results.
(Sun et al., 2007)	In spite of the documented relationship between high-performance human resource practices and organizational performance, the mechanism underlying this relationship remains a black box.
(Guest, 2011)	Although significant progress is evident, the how and why human resource practices influence outcomes still remains elusive.
(Purcell, 2003)	'How' and 'why' questions regarding HR practices' impacts on performance is a black box problem.
Note: The table is designed by the author.	

Many studies have concluded that high-performance human resource practices improve the value, uniqueness, and inimitability of employees' knowledge and ability (Lawler III, 1986), which ultimately results in employee positive behavior and improved organizational performance (Huselid, 1995; Pak & Kim, 2018). Some researchers have doubts regarding theoretical

explanations for the positive effects of high-performance human resource practices, as well as the consistency of their outcomes, i.e., the disagreement on which practices to include in the bundle of practices called HPHRP and the negative spillover of these practices on employees' lives (Carvalho & Chambel, 2016a; Han et al., 2020). Critical scholars, for example, Armstrong (2006), argue that high-performance work systems are little more than a “wolf in sheep’s clothing, and these practices implement as a form of covert exploitation, designed for greater levels of participation and effort from employees”. A similar viewpoint by Harley (1999) is that such practices (HPHRP) are only “window dressing” with no significant positive and negative spillover effects. Different studies using different sets of data in a different context support one perspective or another, so there is a need for more research work to unlock the mechanism of how high-performance human resource practices work and to answer the questions of how and why related to these practices.

2.3.1.3 What constitutes high-performance human resource practices?

High-performance human resource practices are mainly bundles of human resource practices with the assumption that these practices create positive spillover effects if matched with organizational strategies and objectives. However, what practices are included in that bundle is still an unresolved question, and researchers still disagree on what HPHRP consist of (Han et al., 2020; Posthuma et al., 2013). Which practices included in a basket of high-performance human resource practices are questionable? (Becker & Huselid, 1998; Huselid, 1995) Although specific HR practices together form high-performance HR systems, these bundles vary across studies. Table 2.2 represents the common practices included in the HPHRP bundle:

Table 2-2 HPHRP and its dimensions

Author	High-performance human resource practices (bundle of HR practices)
Delaney (1989)	HPHRP include ten practices: selection, performance appraisal, incentive compensation, job design, grievance procedure, information sharing, attitude assessment, and labor management participation.
Huselid (1995)	HPHRP include 13 practices: selection ratio, personnel selection, the average number of hours of training per employee per year, performance appraisal, incentive compensation, job design, grievance procedure, information sharing, attitude assessment, labor management participation, and promotion criteria.
Appelbaum et al. (2000)	HPHRP comprise a bundle of HR practices like ability-enhancing practices (training and skill development), motivation enhancing practices (high pay, career development and information sharing), and opportunity enhancing practices (employee involvement and teamwork).
White et al. (2003)	HPHRP sub-grouped in appraisal-based practices, group working practices, and performance-related pay.
Sun et al. (2007)	HPHRP include staffing, training, mobility, job security, appraisal, rewards, job design, and employee participation in decision making.
Posthuma et al. (2013)	Compensation and benefits, job and work design, recruiting and selection, employee relations, communication, performance management, and appraisal, promotions.
Kehoe and Wright (2013)	A list of 15 HR practices reflecting high-performance HR programs are formal selection tests, structured interviews, hiring selectivity, high pay, training opportunities, rewards based on individual and group performance outcomes, formal performance evaluation mechanisms, merit-based promotion systems, formal participation processes, regular communication and information-sharing efforts, and autonomy in work-related decision making.
Note: The table is designed by the author.	

Combs et al. (2006) found that high-performance human resource practices have stronger performance effects than individual HR practices. Therefore, we examine a bundle of such HR practices, which are considered to result in increased performance, as wellbeing in high demand.

According to White et al. (2003), there are three dimensions of high-performance human resource practices: i) Appraisal based practices, ii) Group-working practices, and iii) performance-related pay practices.

Appraisal-based practices are often represented in human resource management as relating to personal development and motivation. These HR practices establish whether the individual takes part in an appraisal system; the surveys ask whether appraisals help to plan training; whether appraisals affect promotion; whether appraisals affect pay; and whether appraisals influence how hard the individual works.

Group-working practices are here represented by four items: whether or not the individual works in a group; whether co-workers influence how hard the individual works; whether the person takes part in a work improvement group or quality circle; and whether pay depends in part on the performance of the workgroup.

Performance-related pay (PRP). Other items representing this element are whether part of the salary depends on the individual's own performance; whether part of the pay depends upon the performance of the workplace or organization; whether the organization has a profit-sharing or share scheme; whether pay incentives influence how hard the individual works; and whether pay increases are given to those people who work hard and performed well ('merit pay').

2.3.1.4 HPHRP v/s family-friendly work practices (FFWP)

The most focused point today of every organization is to generate more and more revenue; they need a competitive and dedicated labor force to achieve the set goals that meet the challenges of the 21st century and, for this, they need to align their human resource practices with the strategic targets and higher performance (Tariq et al., 2012).

A meta-analysis study findings reveal that family-friendly work practices are important for the organization, as well as for its employees. It helps the organization to improve its productivity, competitiveness, efficiency, and morale and hence gain a competitive edge. For employees, it helps for work and life balance, increases commitment, involvement, and their performance at work (Tariq et al., 2012). Similarly, high-performance human resource practices, from their description,

show that the human resource arrangement has a linkage with performance (Schuler & Jackson, 1987). A detailed study conducted by Huselid (1995), comprised of data collected from one thousand firms, reveals the results that high-performance human resource practices significantly impact employee turnover. The author further explains that investment in such practices creates assets that provide an annual return, as well as increases the annual cash flow. The bottom line is that such practices are financially meaningful for the organizations.

According to Cooke (2001), flexible work arrangements are part of high-performance human resource practices. Flexible work practices and high-performance practices both increase work satisfaction. In this current research, we have separately studied the HPHRP and FFWP link with work-life interference and employee wellbeing in the workplace, along with employee intention to job turnover. There are two reasons behind this:

1- In previous studies, the high-performance work system included family-friendly work programs with the understanding that organizations used them as a human resource strategy (Osterman, 1995). This approach led to difficulties in knowing the true outcome of the family-friendly work practices and high-performance work practices on work-life interference. Therefore, in this study, we have separated both practices.

2- When we talk about these practices affecting work-life balance and productivity, we find in the literature that family-friendly work practices increase work-life balance, i.e., flexible schedules, but in terms of high-performance practices, we find mixed results, i.e., high-performance practices are more high job demand practices (required to work for long working hours) resulting in more work-life interference (Ronda et al., 2016; White et al., 2003). However, according to Babic et al. (2019), high-performance practices reduce work-life interference and increase work-life enrichment. In terms of the impact of HPHRP and FFWP on productivity then, we again find some contradictory results, i.e., Bloom et al. (2009) study reveals results that family-friendly work practices improve work-life balance, but the work-life balance has no significant impact on the productivity of the organization. Benito-Osorio et al.'s (2014) findings provide support for the idea, i.e., introducing family-friendly work practices has a positive impact on productivity, cost, and business results. Therefore, due to mixed outcomes in the literature, we separated family-friendly work practices from high-performance human resource practices in the current study.

2.3.2 HPHRP: What consequences are expected

Different schools of thought provide different outcomes, some arguing that HPHRP enhances employee and business outcomes (Carvalho & Chambel, 2014), others demonstrating that HPHRP may lead to more stress amongst employees due to work intensification and adverse employee wellbeing outcomes (White et al., 2003).

2.3.2.1 How do employees perceive HPHRP? (Job demands or job resources)

There are two main theoretical perspectives related to high-performance human resource practices. One explains the positive impact of HPHRP on employees, as well as the organization, i.e., the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), resource-based perspective, and behavioral perspective explain how HPHRP causes invaluable employee behavior and is used to explain the positive spillover of HPHRP. The second perspective explains the negative effects on employees, i.e., job demand. The theory of sociotechnical systems (STS) posits that employee autonomy and capability to control the work environment and manage job demands foster an individual sense of accountability for job outcomes and employee wellbeing (Boxall et al., 2015). Performance outcomes are enhanced when employees have greater control over job decisions, task delegation, and autonomy to manage job demands through their effect on task ownership and wellbeing (Boxall et al., 2015; Topcic et al., 2016). The extant evidence consistently suggests a significant association of high-involvement work practices with job involvement, employee wellbeing, affective commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, job satisfaction, and increased work-life balance (Huang et al., 2016; Macky & Boxall, 2008).

According to Hobfoll (2002), employees who perceive human resource practices as resources are better able to face stressful situations and less likely to experience negative outcomes, i.e., job strain. This is called a resource-based view.²¹

²¹ Resources are those aspects of life that may help individuals to meet the demands of the role they are performing in any sphere of life (Demerouti et al., 2012).

The job demand²² view is more defined by the concept of Greenhaus and Beutell (1985). If one role demands more time and at the same time produces strain, then it makes it difficult for the individual to perform another role in life. Therefore, human resource practices that demand more time, involvement, and energy from employees cause stress amongst them and result in affecting their work-life balance. When we go through the literature review, we find very interesting outcomes; i.e., White et al. (2003) argue that HPHRP have negative spill-overs on the work-life interface and causes more conflict between two spheres of life, i.e., work and non-work life since employees have to work longer hours. Furthermore, HPHRP have a negative impact causing increased employee workloads and workplace stress (Danford et al., 2004) and negative consequence on employee performance (Danford et al., 2008). Kroon et al. (2009) argue that HPHRP leads to stress and negatively influences work-related wellbeing due to high job demand. The above studies view high-performance human resource practices as high job demand practices.

Some researchers associate high-performance work systems not with the demand or control elements of Karasek's model but consider these practices as job resources, i.e., Wood and De Menezes (2011) have found a positive effect of HPHRP on employee wellbeing considering that these practices create job satisfaction through an organizational climate which shows a helpful concern for employees, i.e., concentrating on motivational or skill acquisition practices, which raise a sense in employees that the organization is more caring about its employees' success and wellbeing.

According to Boxall and Macky (2014), HPHRP provides employees with more autonomy and participation in decision making and, therefore, the result reveals a positive relation between HPHRP with quality of working life. A detailed study by Fan et al. (2014) conducted in the Chinese healthcare sector (the sample collected from public hospitals) reveals that HPWS is found to increase employees' subjective wellbeing and decrease burnout.

Macky and Boxall (2008) and Appelbaum et al. (2000) argue that high-performance work systems may reduce stress but may "place greater demands on employees by encouraging them to

²² Job demand, i.e., high work pressure due to tight deadlines, is associated with certain physiological and psychological costs (Demerouti et al., 2012).

put forth discretionary effort to help their team and organization succeed” and thus may also increase stress. Essentially, the link between high-performance work systems and stress can go either way: the negative effects of increased demands may outweigh the positive effects of increased control or vice versa.

2.3.2.2 Perceived HPHRP and work-life interference

The dubious role of high-performance human resource practices makes it a black box that needs to be opened. Few studies have investigated the impact of HPHRP on work-life interference, and from those that have mixed findings are reported (Babic et al., 2019). In a study by Carvalho and Chambel (2016a) and White et al. (2003), it is argued that high-performance human resource practices cause high job demand and put pressure on employees to work longer hours. According to the conflict model of work-life theory, due to the high level of demands from all spheres of life, conflicts appear as resources are limited, i.e., time and energy. If we spend more time in one sphere of life to get a high return, then it means we are spending less time in other spheres of life. Therefore, satisfaction or success in one environment entails sacrifices in the other. Ultimately, this area of life is sacrificed and causes work-life interference or negative job to home spillover (Benito-Osorio et al., 2014).

Some scholars reported a negative relationship between HPHRP and work-family interference (Babic et al., 2019). For example, a sample of 726 employees from 277 banks in South Punjab, Pakistan, was collected with the purpose of identifying the role of high-performance work practices of banks on employee work-life balance. The results of the above-mentioned study revealed a positive relationship between high-performance human resource practices and work-life balance (Zahoor et al., 2021). A similar result also was reported by Babic et al.’s (2019) data collected from 170 employees of a Belgian company. According to the results of the study, employees perceived less work-life interference in the organizations where HPHRP were applied. Further, this study explained that organizations that tend to implement HPHRP also offer more FFWP to increase their workers’ commitment and allow workers to better manage their work and non-work roles leading to the perception of less work-life interference.

Therefore, in our study, we take HPHRP as job resources and expect that employees perceive these practices to be good practices that help them to manage their work and life balance and lead to a negative relationship with work-life interference.

Hypothesis 8: Perceived HPHRP negatively relates to employee work-life interference.

2.3.2.3 Perceived HPHRP and consequences on employee wellbeing in the workplace

The impact of high-performance human resource practices on employee wellbeing is an emerging issue in research, but the underlying theory remains weak (Boxall, 2012). This research is an attempt to find the effects of three dimensions of high-performance human resource practices, i.e., appraisal systems, group-working practices, and performance-related pay (PRP), on employee wellbeing in the workplace.

The employee's general wellbeing involves three basic aspects: life, work, and psychological need (Zheng et al., 2015). We propose here that high-performance human resource practices impact only one aspect, i.e., employee wellbeing in the workplace. Our aim is to measure the true and real impact of organizational HR practices on the work-related wellbeing of the employee.²³ The debate is ongoing regarding whether high-performance human resource practices have a positive or negative influence on employee wellbeing (Kilroy et al., 2014).

The majority of researchers argue that HPHRP leads to mutually beneficial, win-win outcomes for both employers and employees (Fan et al., 2014).

The second school of thought argues that HPHRP have a positive influence on employee outcomes, i.e., it benefits employees through higher skills, more meaningful work, better income, greater task discretion, improved communication channels, more secure jobs, and it is unlikely that HPHRP will lead to high job stress (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Kroon et al., 2009). Therefore, HPHRP

²³ In previous studies, i.e., Carvalho and Chambel (2014), high-performance practices were studied with relation to general wellbeing, which provides a gap in the research to find the real impact on employee wellbeing in the workplace.

creates highly-skilled, engaged and empowered workers who feel valued and enjoy higher job satisfaction (Appelbaum et al., 2000).

According to Karasek Jr. (1979), it is possible that HPHRP may increase job demands; however, high job demand does not necessarily lead to stress. If employees with high job demands have high job latitude, then HPHRP even leads to higher job satisfaction. The majority of the researchers argue that HPHRP leads to mutually beneficial, win-win outcomes for both employers and employees (Fan et al., 2014).

Following this line of thinking, this study hypothesizes the following:

Hypothesis 9: Perceived HPHRP positively relates to employee wellbeing in the workplace.

How employees perceive performance increasing human resource practices further needs to be explored. If employees perceive these practices as good for them, then they are motivated and more loyal to the organization. But if HPHRP causes more job demands, then such practices make it difficult to participate in other spheres of life, causing demotivation and resulting in employees searching for other jobs. Let's study this in detail below.

2.3.2.4 Perceived HPHRP and consequences on employee intention to job turnover

Social exchange theory recognizes those conditions under which individuals reciprocate when they personally benefit from another's actions (Lambert, 2000). Social exchanges include relationships of mutually tangible and intangible exchanges, i.e., family-friendly work practices and good infrastructure are tangible, while organizational culture and manager support are intangible resources.

Social exchange theory has been used extensively as a framework by human resource management (Kehoe & Wright, 2013). Based on the social exchange theory, employees reciprocate with a positive attitude and express their enjoyment of the work because they consider human resources practices as supporting activities that help them have a better working environment and achieve their goals.

According to Kehoe and Wright (2013), the employer and employee relationship is based on social and economic exchanges, relationships in which unspecified bidirectional transactions occur. When organizations invest in HPHRP, employees perceive this as being a resource, an indication of the appreciation of their work, and a desire to engage in a long-term relationship. In exchange, employees show their affective commitment (employees' emotional attachment) to the organization and will stay with their organization for a long time (Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Luna-Arocas & Camps, 2008; Mostafa et al., 2015).

Based on the social exchange theory, we assume that if employees perceive HPHRP as good practices, they will offer more commitment and be attached to the organization for the long run.

Hypothesis 10: Perceived HPHRP negatively relates to employee intention to job turnover.

In all the situations, performance increasing human resource practices are considered to be good, but if such practices demand more time, i.e., if the salary is linked to more sale of units, then this raises the competition amongst employees and to achieve more financial return they spend more time achieving the high targets, which ultimately causes work interference with other spheres of life.

2.3.2.5 HPHRP and role of work-life interference as a mediator

We have an assumption that high-performance human resource practices are good practices, and employees perceive them as resource-based views (Saks, 2006). Indeed HPHRP allows employees to learn from their colleagues and performance-related pay systems create a sense of a merit system in the organization, while training programs help the employees acquire new skills or be involved in more meaningful jobs (Loughlin et al., 2014). By providing more job resources through HPHRP, organizations help employees manage work and family responsibilities (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), resulting in less work-life interference and improving work-life quality (wellbeing) by reducing job strain (Macky & Boxall, 2008) and increasing employee intention to attach to the organization on a social exchange basis.

To our knowledge, only one study in the literature (Babic et al., 2019) reported the partial mediation of work-life interference between HPHRP and employee work-life quality by decreasing job strain and increasing job engagement.

On the basis of role stress theory (Kehoe & Wright, 2013), we expect that work-life interference mediates between HPHRP and EWB and IJT.

Hypothesis 11: Work-life interference mediates the relationship between perceived high-performance HR practices and employee wellbeing in the workplace.

Hypothesis 12: Work-life interference mediates the relationship between perceived high-performance HR practices and employee intention to job turnover.

To conclude this part, we argued that employees perceive HPHRP either as job demands or job resources, making the bundle of such practices a black box that needs to be opened. To open this black box, in the first step, we separated FFWP from HPHRP. In the next step, we used White et al.'s (2003) approach and categorized high performance human resource practices into three dimensions, i.e., appraisal base practices, group-working practices, and performance-related pay practices. In our research, in accordance with Saks (2006), we assumed that HPHRP are good practices, which can be assumed to be resource-based views. Hence, our model is based on the positive outcomes of perceived HPHRP on employees, i.e., reducing work-life interference, promoting wellbeing in the workplace, and minimizing the intention to job turnover.

The HPHRP hypothesis is based on the resource-based view. To further explain the relationship between HPHRP and their outcomes on employees, we examined the moderating roles of perceived manager support and family/friends support on the above-mentioned relationship in the next step.

2.4 “Moderators” and “job demand resource model”

Less is known about the factors that lead to work-family interface (Wayne et al., 2006); in particular, whether and how manager support influences work-family interference and its antecedents require further investigation (Byron, 2005). Hence, keeping in mind the question that if family-friendly work practices are good practices and help employees manage both work and life balance, raising their performance in the workplace and improving quality of life, then why do not all organizations implement these practices? In our model, we add moderators, i.e., manager support and family/friend support, to check how they help employees manage work and life interface. If the gain from such support is enough for a good work-life balance, then that makes family-friendly work practices less weighty and meaningless in the organization.

The job demand-resource model assumes that employee work-life balance, health, and wellbeing result from a balance between positive (resources) and negative (demands) job characteristics (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). A high level of job demands (D) will lead to stress, and this relationship will be offset when there are high job resources (R) (Dollard et al., 2012). According to Voydanoff (2004), this underlines supervisor support and friend support, important resources for work-family facilitation.

2.4.1 Perceived manager support (MS): A job resource

Manager support is an important resource for work-life balance. According to Greenhaus and Powell (2006) and Grzywacz and Marks (2000), resource gains at work or the non-workplace ultimately promote a positive work-life interface. The domain of support is likely a primary antecedent in reducing work-life interference (Wayne et al., 2006). It has been argued that supervisor support is very important for successfully implementing family-friendly work practices policies. It makes a significant difference if supervisors encourage and support employees who seek to use a specific policy. In fact, supervisor support itself is associated with lower levels of work-life conflict (Chou & Cheung, 2013).

Perceived manager support is defined as the extent to which workers feel they can count on their managers/supervisors (Carvalho & Chambel, 2014). It is a relation of mutual trust, openness,

more verbal communication, and bi-directional feedback between manager and subordinates (House & Shamir, 1993). Perceived manager support refers to employees' general views concerning the degree to which the manager cares about their wellbeing and values their contribution. In return, the manager earns employee trust and a bonding relationship (Eisenberger et al., 2002). Further, this supporting attitude can be transferred to the family domain to manage family needs and problems, which ultimately helps in reducing work-family interference (Carvalho & Chambel, 2014).

Thompson et al. (2004) argue that employees might not reciprocate with improved work-related attitudes and behaviors if they perceive that the organization is not supportive of their work-life needs. We perceive that an unsupportive organizational culture might undermine the effects of good management practice, i.e., HPHRP on work-related attitudes and work-life interference.

If we go through the literature, we find that perceptions of manager support have been linked to low work-family interference, burnout, depression, intentions to quit the job, absenteeism, and higher levels of affective commitment, health, organizational citizenship behavior, and job satisfaction (Boxall & Macky, 2014; Carvalho & Chambel, 2014; Frone et al., 1997).

In a study by Carvalho and Chambel (2014), data was collected from 1390 employees at a Portuguese bank and found a positive relationship between HPHRP and supervisor support in the workplace and also found a positive relationship between supervisor support and positive work-life enrichment.

Most of the existing literature studies the moderating effect of supportive programs between FFWP and their outcomes (Ko et al., 2013). Our model is based on the perception that the perceived support from the supervisor also moderates the HPHRP and work-life interference relationship.

This study explores the moderating effects of supervisor and managerial support on a family-supportive workplace environment, i.e., helping to reduce work-life interference.

Hypothesis 13: Perceived manager support moderates the relationship between perceived HPHRP and WLI.

2.4.2 Perceived family and friend support (FFS) helps to reduce high job demand

Perceived family and friend support and work-life interference relationships have been ignored for a long time, although the two factors have the same source, that is, family/friend (Zhou et al., 2020). According to the job demand-resources model, several resources can reduce employees' excessive job stress caused by high job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Social support is one of these resources that allow employees to cope with job stress effectively (Ju et al., 2015). Family/ friend support is one of the types of social support received from outside the workplace (Lambert et al., 2016). Family and friend support does not always have a positive impact; sometimes, it may also be a source of stress (Ray & Miller, 1994). Employees experience more work-life interference if their family and friends do not understand their work situation. In such a scenario, employees perceive that they are getting little support from social relations (Zhou et al., 2020). The mixed outcomes of relationships between work-life interference and family/friend support open the doors for further research.

According to border theory, employees daily cross the border between work and family domains to perform work and family roles. In such a situation, the support (i.e., from a co-worker, supervisor, family/friends) received from inside the border can help to minimize the risk of interference between work and non-work spheres (Frone et al., 1997). Flexibility is the main characteristic of the border between the work and family domain. If an employee is facing high job demands at work, then if family or friends are willing to take over responsibilities in the family sphere (e.g., child care, sharing housework), the employee can easily manage the pressures from the workplace by saving time and energy normally expended in the non-work domain. Therefore, the support received from family and friends helps to reduce the interference between work and family domains (Zhou et al., 2020).

In this research, we are assuming that family and friend support plays a positive buffering role between perceived high-performance human resource practices (if they cause high job demands) and work-life interference, thereby producing stress at work.

Hypothesis 14: Family and friend support moderates the relationship between perceived HPHRP and WLI.

2.5 Research framework

Figure 2-2 demonstrates the research framework of our dissertation, while Table 2-3 demonstrates the proposed hypotheses of the study. As can be seen in Figure 2-2, both perceived high-performance HR practices and family-friendly work practices are hypothesized to predict work-life interference and to employee outcomes, namely employee wellbeing. To open the black box of HPHRP and observe the true impact of FFWP, we separated both the HR practices and checked how these practices are associated with the employee outcome. Based on the social exchange theory, we hypothesize that employees reciprocate with a positive attitude and express their enjoyment of the work because they consider human resources practices as supporting activities that help them have a better working environment and achieve their goals.

Furthermore, employee work-life interference is proposed to mediate the relationship between (i) perceived high performance HR practices and employee outcomes, namely employee wellbeing and intention to job turnover, and (ii) perceived family-friendly work practices and employee outcomes, namely employee wellbeing and intention to job turnover. The mediating or indirect paths can be seen by the dotted lines. To check whether HPHRP increases job demand, we link the HR practices with work-life interference (negative spillover). According to Hobfoll (2002), employees who perceive human resource practices as resources are better able to face stressful situations and less likely to experience negative outcomes, i.e., job strain. Finally, we hypothesized manager support and family and friend support as boundary conditions between perceived high

performance HR practices and work-life interference. In particular, we hypothesized that manager support and family and friend support will moderate the effects of perceived high performance HR practices on employee work-life interference. Employees might not reciprocate with improved work-related attitudes and behaviors if they perceive that the organization is not supportive of their work-life needs. We perceive that an unsupportive organizational culture might undermine the effects of good management practice, i.e., HPHRP on work-related attitudes and work-life interference. Our model is also based on border theory, as employees daily cross the border between work and family domains to perform work and family roles. In such a situation, the support (i.e., from a co-worker, supervisor, family/friends) received from inside the border can help to minimize the risk of interference between work and non-work spheres (Frone et al., 1997); therefore, we examine the true moderation impact of how employee perceive social support received from the boss as well as from family and friends circle on the association between HPHRP and work-life interference.

Table 2-3 Summary of proposed hypotheses

No	Hypothesis
1	Work-life interference negatively relates to employee wellbeing in the workplace.
2	Work-life interference positively relates to employee intention to job turnover.
3	Family-friendly work practices negatively relate to work-life interference.
4	Family-friendly work practices positively relate to employee wellbeing in the workplace.
5	Family-friendly work practices negatively relate to employee intention to job turnover.
6	Work-life interference mediates the relationship between family-friendly work practices and employee wellbeing in the workplace.
7	Work-life interference mediates the relationship between family-friendly work practices and employee intention to job turnover.
8	Perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP) negatively relate to employee work-life interference.
9	HPHRP positively relate to employee wellbeing in the workplace.
10	HPHRP negatively relate to employee intention to job turnover.
11	Work-life interference mediates the relationship between HPHRP and employee wellbeing in the workplace.
12	Work-life interference mediates the relationship between HPHRP and employee intention to job turnover.
13	Perceived manager support moderates the relationship between HPHRP and work-life interference.
14	Perceived family and friend support moderates the relationship between HPHRP and work-life interference.

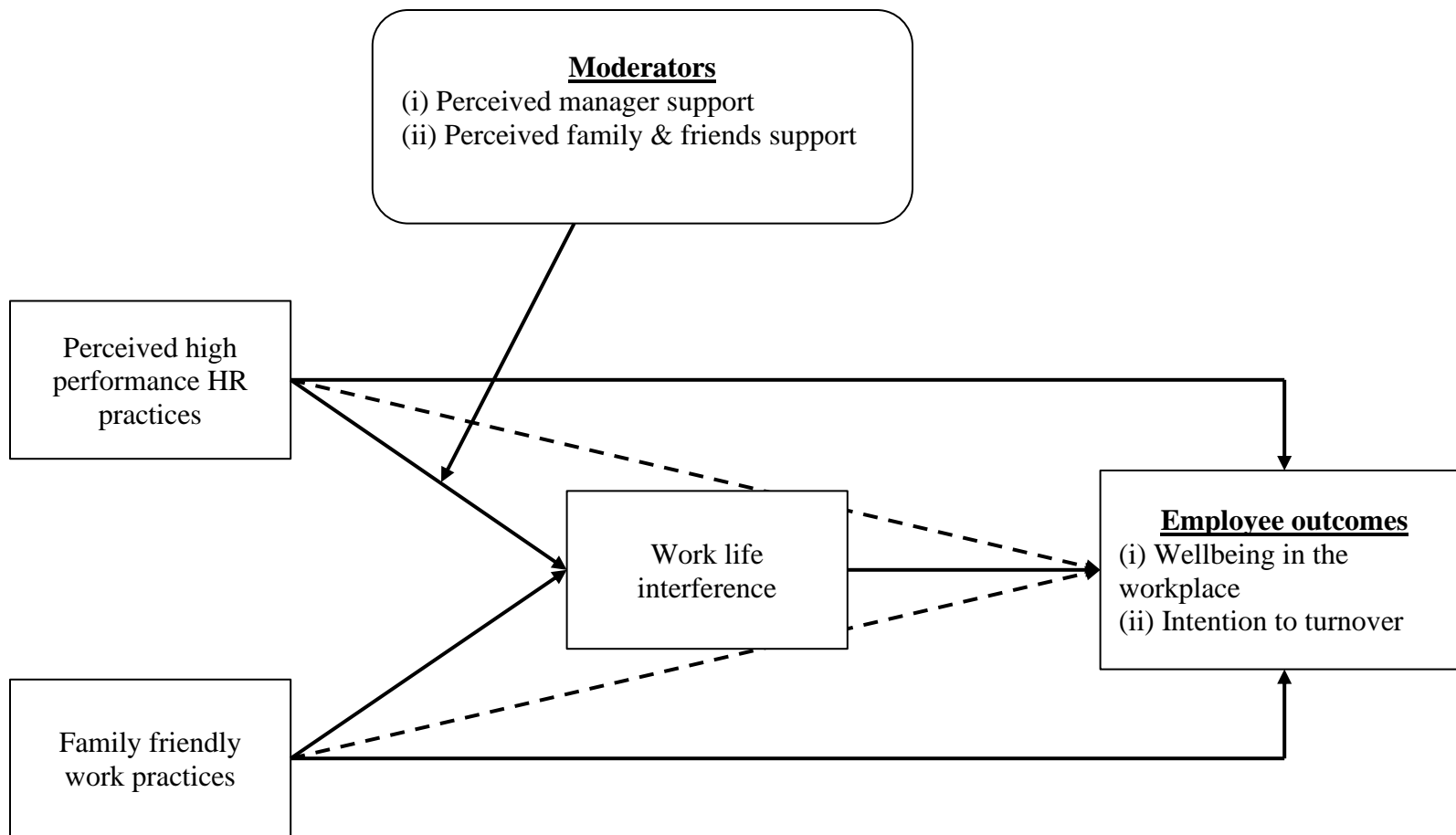


Figure 2-2 Hypothesized research framework.

Note: Dotted lines represent indirect paths.

Conclusion

This chapter highlighted the importance of family-friendly work practices and high-performance human resource practices on employee outcomes. Moreover, we also highlighted how and when high-performance human resource practices influence employee wellbeing and turnover intention. Furthermore, this chapter provided a review and discussion of the literature for the theoretical foundation of human resource practices. The review contended several points. First, we presented a detailed review of family-friendly work practices, including the major question of why these are not implemented by organizations and the outcomes expected due to the absence of such practices, i.e., wellbeing in the workplace and employee turnover intentions. The second part of this chapter was an effort to open the black box of high-performance human resource practices, including the consequences of employees' efforts to keep their lives in balance with fewer inter-role conflicts. Our model is supported by the resource-based view that employees perceive HPHRP and FFWP as organizational resources. Based on the social exchange theory, employees reciprocate with a positive attitude and express their enjoyment of the work because they consider human resources practices as supporting activities that help them have a better working environment and achieve their goals. Literature reveals that there is relatively little understanding of how HPHRP work, especially as there are mixed results of outcomes that create a gap in the research. Finally, this chapter presented a theoretical framework of the relationships between HR practices and their outcomes, i.e., work-life interference, workplace wellbeing, and employee intention to job turnover. The framework serves as a basis for answering the research question developed in the problem statement. In addition, hypotheses that will be tested in the study were listed. In the following chapter, the research design and data collection will be presented.

CHAPTER 3

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In a competitive environment, the role of human resource management is to devise strategies, linking family-friendly work practices with high-performance human resource programs to reduce work-life interference, enhance the wellbeing of employees in the workplace and reduce the brain drain. These efforts make human resource practices a source of competitive advantage (Coff, 1997). Over the last few decades, many research studies on work-life balance, work-life interference, and work-life enrichment have been conducted to enhance organizational effectiveness (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Bloom et al., 2009) and employee performance (Ansari et al., 2015; Soomro et al., 2018). Today, when we regard our lives, we find that the balance is lost somewhere and still, there is a gap in our in-depth knowledge about antecedents and outcomes of the work-life interface (Carvalho & Chambel, 2016b).

This chapter outlines the methodology used in this dissertation. It discusses the research methodology employed, the conceptual framework concerning the study's objectives, and data collection methods. The choice of appropriate research methodology is tricky for most researchers (Opoku et al., 2016). Actual access to family-friendly work practices instead of availability of such practices in organizations was important for measuring the actual effectiveness of such HR programs (Ollier-Malaterre & Andrade, 2016). We designed the methodology in such a way to measure how employees perceived available HR practices in their organizations and how much they were affected by such programs, i.e., balancing work and life spheres, wellbeing in the workplace, and their intention to leave the organization.

For this research study, the data were collected using the LimeSurvey website (Online data collection). The sample for this dissertation was selected using well-established scales and sampling techniques. As well, the data were analyzed using partial least square (PLS), a structural equation modeling (SEM) technique.

In sum, this dissertation gives insight into how predictors influence employee workplace wellbeing and intention to turnover and shows which theories explain these relationships. This chapter describes the research methodology and research design of this empirical study step-by-step. First, the choice of a research design, the banking industry, sample, and the rationale for choosing quantitative methods are described. Next, the instruments used to collect the data are explained. Then, we explain the data collection procedure. Finally, we describe the analytical strategy carried out to achieve the research objectives. The details of each of the above-mentioned sections are provided below. The chapter outline is given in Fig 3.1.

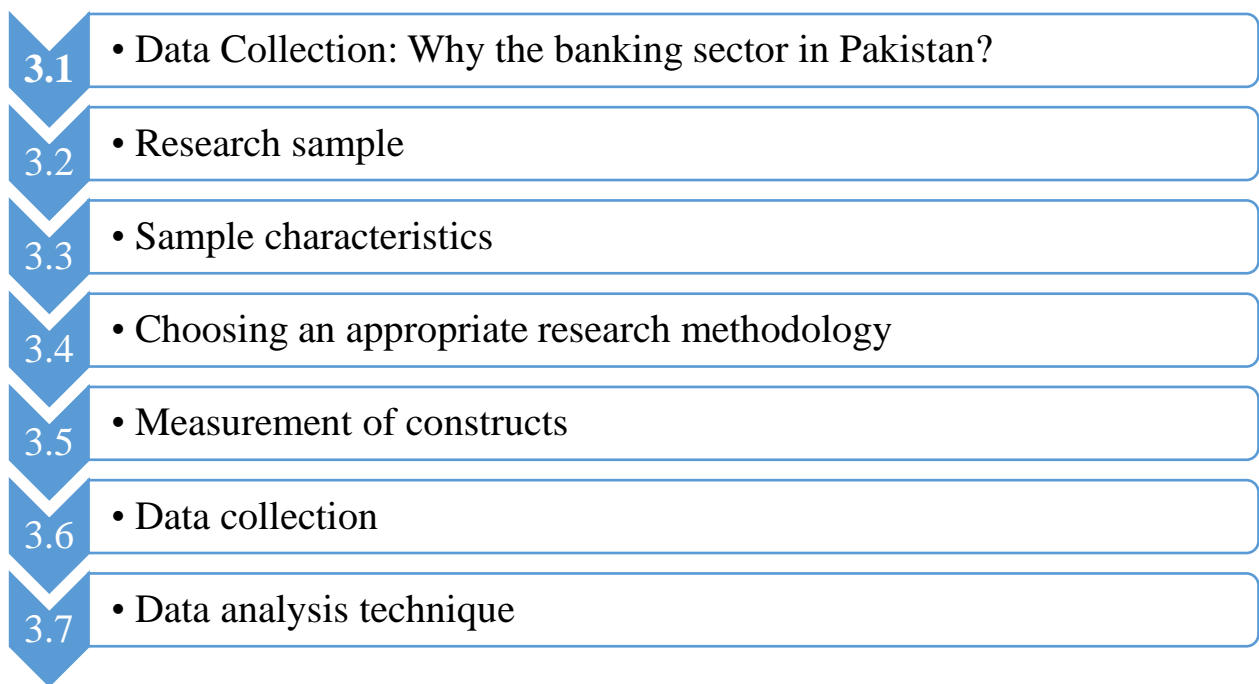


Figure 3-1 Chapter 3 outline

3.1 Data collection: Why the banking sector of Pakistan?

For this dissertation, only bank officers who work in five specific banks were selected as participants. The five big banks were chosen because i)- there was a time limitation in which to study all the banks, ii)- the five big banks represent the different bank types, i.e., commercial banks, government-owned banks, and microfinance banking sector. iii) - these five banks have branches all over Pakistan, including rural and urban areas of the country.

Why the banking sector?: The financial sector is recognized for its long working hours, intensely stressful working environment and has become notorious for its poor work-life balance in recent times (Talukder et al., 2018). This study was conducted in the banking sector operating in Pakistan. The rationale behind selecting the bank sector is the dynamic work environment of these organizations (high competition, adopting new technologies, and continually changing objectives, procedures, and goals). In such an environment, human resource management is more focused on achieving goals and, in line with their human resource practices, organizational goals. The human resource practices are designed to achieve maximum human output in terms of performance. The competitive environment in the banking sector has forced banks to offer the best customer service in the market, which can cause high job demands for employees working in banks, which lead to work-life interference. Pakistan has a fast-growing banking sector with 45 banks operating in December 2018 and 15252 branches (a list is provided in Annex-III). The dynamics of the banking sector are extremely suitable for our study.

According to Powell et al. (2019), there is a considerable gap in our knowledge regarding work-family issues cross-nationally, and it is impossible to come to definitive conclusions about the influence of societal culture in order to test work-life theories. In some regions of the world, i.e., the Middle East, Africa, and South Asia, there is little research conducted on work-life issues compared to Europe and America (Allen et al., 2015). In Pakistan, the situation in terms of work-life balance is different, and researchers are still struggling to highlight work-life balance as a problem. However, in some organizations, steps are being taken to help employees maintain a better work-life balance. Much research is required to study these variables with the unique lens of culture we inherit in this subcontinent. Increasing female participation in the workforce over the last few years may create pressure to establish such policies (Amir et al., 2018; Syed et al., 2018). For example, women may prefer

to seek an employer with generous work-life policies, and women may advocate for new benefits within their current organizations (Baek et al., 2012). Like in the rest of the world, in Pakistan, female participation in the labor force raises the issue of work-life interference (Rehman & Roomi, 2012).

Why is work-life balance a topic of importance in Pakistan? There are many reasons behind this.

- 1- Employees not only have to deal with changing workplaces but also, at the household level, there have been changes taking place as well. The increase in women's labor force participation is among the most visible (Syed et al., 2018). Over the last three decades, labor force participation among women in Western societies has increased and, in some countries, has even doubled. (Commission, 2017; Van Dijk & Van Der Lippe, 2001). The situation in Pakistan is no different. The average annual rate of female work participation rose slightly in Pakistan, from 15.9% in 2003-04 to 25% in 2014-15, according to the Pakistan Bureau of Statistics (Employment Trend Report – 2018).²⁴ But, in actuality, the number of women in the labor force is much higher, as most of them are involved in the informal economy (72.9%)²⁵ and with non-paid jobs; thus, data is not available (Mujahid, 2014). Kamal (1997) argues that the actual share of female participation in Pakistan's labor force is much higher than the data available because their involvement in the family and other household affairs is perceived to be a social duty rather than an economic contribution. According to Amir et al. (2018), a world bank group reported that even though the female participation in the labor force is increasing, i.e., Fig 3-2, the total amount of women's work, such as “unpaid household care and services”, is typically excluded from economic accounting and thus the full nature of women's economic contribution is under-estimated. The available data represent that female numbers in formal work jobs are rising year to year. Therefore, the household responsibilities on females' shoulders are much more than in the past. These responsibilities raise the issue of work-life balance in Pakistan.

²⁴<https://pbs.gov.pk/sites/default/files/Pakistan%20Employment%20Trend%20%20Reprt%202018%20Final.pdf>

²⁵ Data taken from Pakistan Bureau of Statistics (Employment Trends Report – 2018)

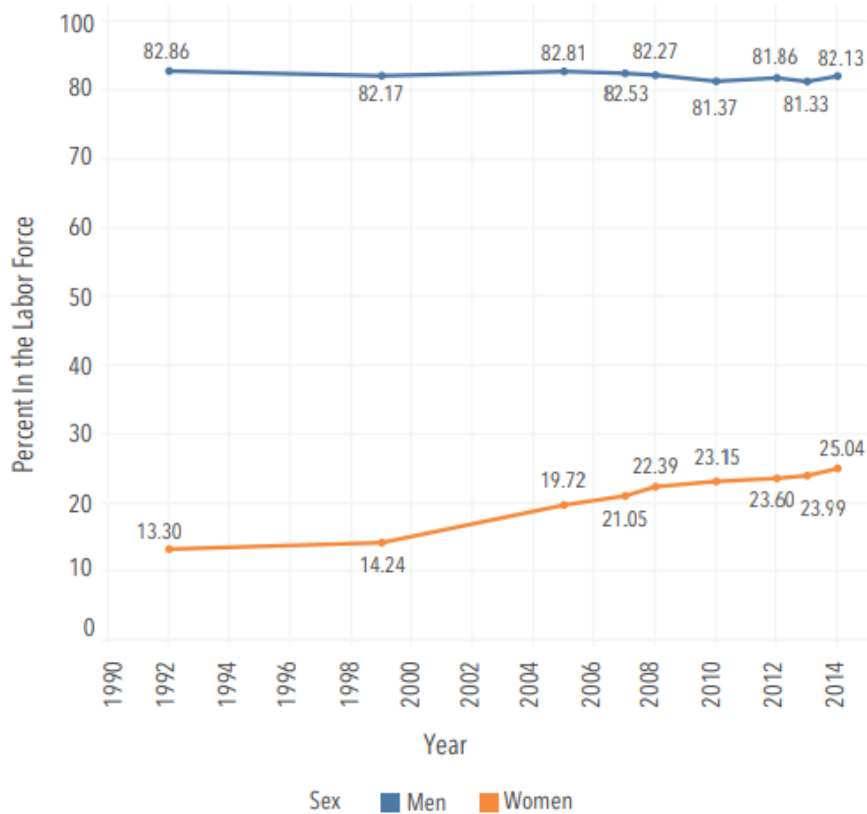


Figure 3-2 Labor force participation in Pakistan (1992-2014)

2- **Pakistan is a highly collectivist society** and has a very low score of 14/100 on individualism compared to France’s 71/100 (Hofstede’s cultural ranking 2020).²⁶ Pakistan is a country where the family structure is based on a joint family system. The average household size is 6.8 members (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2009).²⁷ It is essential to mention that the average size of the household in OECD countries is 2.63 and, in France, it is 2.38 (OECD, 2011).²⁸ A joint family system means a couple; a woman apart from her husband and children lives with her in-laws comprising of her husband’s parents, grandparents, brothers, sisters and sometimes some other family members (Aamir, 2004). South Asian countries, i.e., Pakistan and India, have been observed as being family-centric societies, which is not common in the western context, where a nuclear family consists of a married couple and their unmarried children (Mishra, 2015). This structure puts more responsibilities on men and women

²⁶ <https://www.hofstede-insights.com/product/compare-countries/>

²⁷ <https://www.un.org/en/development/desa/publications/2009.html>

²⁸ <https://www.oecd.org/dac/developmentco-operationreport2011.htm>

to take care of the whole family and means more time and energy is required, making it difficult for a working couple to balance their life between the two spheres, i.e., family and work. With more family responsibilities, females face difficulties in balancing work and life spheres; therefore, most of the time, they sacrifice their careers over home responsibilities.

- 3- **Increasing female participation in higher education:** In Pakistan, increasing female (older than 15 years) participation in higher education was reported at 46.47 % in 2017, compared to 39% in 2006 (Statista Report 2020).²⁹ This has contributed to changing female aspirations regarding labor market participation in Pakistan, like in many OECD countries (OECD, 2011). So, the increase in female education motivates women to utilize their skills and knowledge professionally in all areas of economic activities. In such situations, women's responsibilities as home carers and as employees at the workplace are growing. Similarly, men's roles have also increased as they share home care responsibilities, which ultimately causes an imbalance in family and work life.
- 4- **Increase in cost of living:** In Pakistan, inflation with a new base year (2015-16) increased by 14.56% in January 2020 (Pakistan Bureau of Statistics PBS)³⁰, which put pressure on common people to work extra hours or at some part-time job to earn more money to fulfill the economic needs of the family. According to Nadeem and Abbas (2009), monthly expenditures increased because of the higher rate of inflation and to maintain the standard of living, both husbands and wives now have to work to generate more income. This results in spending less time with family and causes an imbalance between work and lives of people in Pakistan.
- 5- **Globalization and technological development:** Due to the global extension of business, employees need to be in touch with relevant people in various time zones, and thus work is not only limited to the workplace. Extended working hours and working from home cause more interference between the work domain and the life domain (WLI), potentially leading to more stress among individuals. In a competitive environment, some organizations want an employee to be accessible at all times, even answering emails late at night from bosses; it is hard for people to find a healthy work-life balance. Extended working hours and a highly stressful job hamper a person's ability to harmonize work and family time and are associated with health risks.

²⁹ <https://www.statista.com/search/?q=Statista+report+2020&Search=&qKat=search>

³⁰ <https://www.pbs.gov.pk/>

- 6- **Long working hours:** It is observed that, in Pakistan, where the unemployment rate is very high and longer working hours are essential, employees fear that if they do not work for longer hours, they may get a low appraisal, and there will be a risk of losing their jobs. In such circumstances, any type of work-life conflict is inevitable (Ratnesh et al., 2019). Malik and Khalid (2008) conducted a qualitative study that included interviewing employees from 17 different banks in Pakistan and reported that women desire a reduction in work hours more than men because of dual responsibilities at work as well as at home. Further, the study indicated that long working hours are significantly responsible for work-life interference.

From the discussion, we conclude here that a competitive environment and privatization in Pakistan's banking sector have caused the emergence of a system in which employees perceive their jobs to be insecure, which further motivates them to seek new employment (turnover intention). The competitive environment of the industry is also challenging for the management of consumer banking in Pakistan to retain employees (*Dawn Newspaper* report, 2006)³¹. The dynamic work environment (high competition after privatization, adoption of new technologies, and constantly changing objectives, procedures, and goals), as well as work-life balance difficulties and current HRM challenges, are the reasons for choosing the bank sector as the population for this study.

3.2 Research sample

A sample is referred to in research as a group of individuals from whom information is gathered, while sampling explains the process of selecting these individuals (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). To collect the data, we selected five big banks operating in Pakistan. The total population is as follows:

³¹ <https://www.dawn.com/news/177448/newspaper/newspaper/column>

Table 3-1 Total population

Name of Banks	Total Number of		
	Employees	Male	Female
National Bank of Pakistan	15738	93%	7%
The Bank of Punjab	8675	87%	13%
United Bank Limited	11421	84%	16%
Allied Bank Limited	11206	83.50%	16.50%
Khushhali Bank Limited	4614	88%	12%
Total	51,654	87%	13%

Note: data taken from banks' annual financial statements 2018

Why only five banks for sample collection:

The data of physical existence shows that these five banks are the largest banks in Pakistan; therefore, we selected these banks for our data collection.

Table 3-2 Bank Selection

Name of Banks	Total Number of Branches	Position
National Bank of Pakistan	1508	The largest bank in Pakistan
The Bank of Punjab	563	Largest provincial bank
United Bank Limited	1362	3 rd largest bank
Allied Bank Limited	1339	4 th largest bank
Khushhali Bank Limited	197*	Largest microfinance bank

Note: Data taken from State Bank of Pakistan (Regulator Bank) Report 2018.

*Data taken from financial report for the year 2018

Management was restricted from providing details of their HR practices, i.e., high-performance human resource practices and family-friendly work practices. Therefore, in our research, we only relied on how employees perceived HR practices and the availability of such practices in their workplace. Employees working in five banks at different managerial levels (lower, middle, and top) were selected for data collection through an online questionnaire. For this purpose, an

online survey was posted for bank employees to answer whenever they had free time. During banking hours, it was difficult for employees to fill out the questionnaire; the online questionnaire was available for them when they were free.

For our sample, 322 respondents were selected from lower, middle, and top-level management. Out of these 322, respondents were further divided into two sub-sectors according to their genders, male and female. The distribution of the sample selected for this study is explained in the table below:

Table 3-3 Distribution of participants selected as sample of study

	Total	Male	Female	Male %	Female %
Sample	322	266	56	82.60%	17.40%

We used Daniel Soper’s sample size calculation tool based on Westland (2010) statistical algorithm to compute the absolute minimum sample size. Our model is based on seven latent variables (including moderators) and 45 indicator variables with a statistical power of 0.80 and a significance of 0.05. According to this algorithm, the minimum sample size requirement for the model structure is 274. Therefore, our sample size of 322 matched the minimum sample size requirement for the structure model.

3.3 Sample characteristics

In Table 3-4, below are the characteristics of the sample. As described earlier, a total of 565 questionnaires were received, from which 322 were completely filled. Two hundred forty-three responses were excluded from the analysis due to a large number of missing values. We divide our sample characteristics according to gender, age, marital status, employment status of spouse, and family structure.

Table 3-4 Sample characteristics

Variables	Categories	Frequency	Percent %
Gender	Female	56	17.39
	Male	266	82.61
	Total	322	100.00
Age	Bellow 25 years	33	10.25
	26-30 years	84	26.09
	31-35 years	71	22.05
	36-40 years	89	27.64
	41-45 years	28	8.70
	46-50 years	12	3.73
	51-60 years	5	1.55
	Total	322	100.00
Marital status	Single	83	25.78
	Married	238	73.91
	Divorced	1	0.31
	Total	322	100.00
Employment status of spouse	No	257	79.81
	yes	65	20.19
	Total	322	100.00
Family structure	Living alone	17	5.28
	Nuclear family	112	34.78
	Joint family	193	59.94
	Total	322	100.00

3.4 Choosing the appropriate research methodology

In our dissertation, we opted for a positivist approach, which refers to a "systematic, controlled, empirical, and critical investigation of natural phenomena guided by theory and hypotheses about the presumed relations among such phenomena" (Kerlinger & Lee, 1973) because our aim was to measure employees' perceptions of different HR practices and their effect on their work-life interference, workplace wellbeing, and intentions to turnover.

3.4.1 Research philosophy

Researchers are continuously engaged in a long-standing epistemological debate about how to conduct effective research (Hayati et al., 2006). The epistemological debate is centered on two types of approaches, i) positivist approach (quantitative studies) and ii) interpretive or phenomenological approach (qualitative studies). We used a hypothetical-deductive approach, wherein we formulated hypotheses in a form that can be falsifiable and used observable data to test and interpret the findings. Furthermore, we adopted a quantitative research methodology because it has been largely underpinned by positivist principles, and they have contributed to the over-simplification of human experience and the objectification of the human person within social research (Ryan, 2006).

3.4.2 Rationale for using a quantitative method

We used quantitative research methodology to examine the associations and underlying mechanisms linking HPHRP and FFWP with employee work-life interference and subsequent wellbeing in the workplace and intention to turnover. Our conceptual model demonstrated that our research was primarily deductive (i.e., we developed hypotheses based on existing theory and then designed a research strategy to test these hypotheses), quantitative, and multivariate (having a complex set of data). Hence, a cross-sectional research design, which includes a survey of a specific sample at a single point in time to detect any ‘patterns of association’, was employed for two basic reasons. First, to better understand phenomena in the specific group being studied. Second, to make inferences about broader groups beyond those being studied (Holton & Burnett, 2005)

The choice of appropriate research methodology is tricky for most researchers (Opoku et al., 2016). Actual access to family-friendly work practices,³² instead of the availability of such practices in organizations, matters when measuring the actual effectiveness of such HR programs (Ollier-Malaterre & Andrade, 2016). We designed the methodology in such a way to measure how employees perceived HR practices available in their organizations and how much

³² Access to a policy refers to the ability to use it (Ollier-Malaterre & Andrade, 2016).

they were affected by such programs, i.e., balancing work and life sphere, wellbeing in the workplace, and their intention to leave the organization.

How employees perceive HR practices is more linked with their reciprocal behavior rather than the availability of resources. For example, which FFWP to offer and which not to offer to employees is the availability of resources. Sometimes, though organizations offer such FFWP to their employees, employees perceive that these policies are not accessible to them individually; this is the perceived accessibility level (Budd & Mumford, 2006). In our research, we asked employees whether such HR practices were accessible in their organizations and how they perceived such practices.

For this research study, data was collected using the LimeSurvey website (Online data collection from a population). The sample for this dissertation was selected using well-established scales and sampling techniques. The data were analyzed using partial least square (PLS), a structural equation modeling (SEM) technique. The following sections then examine the data analysis approach (i.e., PLS-SEM, partial least squares-structural equation model) and the research analysis software (i.e., SmartPLS-3.2). This chapter also discusses the steps taken to adopt the research instrument. We aim to detail the processes this research study undertook to answer the research questions. To answer the research questions, there was a need to select the method most likely to meet our research objectives.

Although qualitative research gives a detailed view of feedback and provides the opportunity to counter-question the authenticity of data, in quantitative research,³³ we get larger feedback from the sample population. Moreover, in this research, data were collected from Karachi, Lahore, and Islamabad (three big cities), which was only feasible using a quantitative survey. There are two common research methodologies adopted by researchers in quantitative research, “survey research³⁴” and “experimental research³⁵” (Creswell, 2009). An online survey research methodology was adopted in this dissertation, as this approach provides standardized information to describe variables and examine relationships between variables of the study

³³ Quantitative research is the numerical representation and manipulation of observations for the purpose of describing and explaining the phenomena that those observations reflect (Sukamolson, 2007).

³⁴ Survey research uses scientific sampling (respondents are "randomly" sampled) and questionnaire design to measure characteristics of the population with statistical precision (Sukamolson, 2007).

³⁵ Experimental research is completed in a controlled environment (Sukamolson, 2007).

(Malhotra & Grover, 1998). In this online survey research, the bank employees had no fear of showing their identities, and this helped us to get unbiased data.

3.4.3 The choice of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

This research was confirmatory research in which all the hypotheses derived from previous studies and theories were tested. The study was based on a quantitative research design that relied on deductive reasoning in order to assess the model adopted for the study. A cross-sectional survey method was used, keeping in mind the nature of the study. Furthermore, in this study, we tested the hypothesis/relationship between observed variables and their underlying latent constructs; that is why we used confirmatory factor analysis. The main reasons for using CFA instead of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) are the following:

1. All the measures used in this study are well-established instruments for measuring the constructs conceptualized in this study.
2. We used CFA as our study is descriptive in nature.
3. CFA requires a strong empirical foundation for evaluation of the factor model; further, CFA also assists in the determination of how a test should be scored (Brown & Moore, 2012).
4. CFA was used in the study as it allowed the researcher to test the hypothesis that a relationship between observed variables and their underlying latent constructs exists.

3.5. Measurement of constructs

In this dissertation, the research instrument was developed using measurement scales identified from previous studies. Necessary adaptations were made to make sure items fit into the context of the current research. The research instrument's validity and reliability were assessed using data from online surveys. As suggested by (Straub, 1989), it is advisable to reuse previously validated instruments when employing survey methods. An advantage of using existing measures is that the reliability and validity testing of the measures has already taken place, giving the researcher confidence in the measurement qualities of the existing measures without evaluating the measures (Bryman et al., 2007). Further, the construct's homological validity can

be established when tested and validated with a variety of samples, in different settings, across time (Straub et al., 2004).

The main variables in our model were family-friendly work practices (FFWP) and perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP) as independent variables. Work-life interference (WLI), employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB), and employee intention to job turnover (IJT) were dependent variables. In this study, we also used some variables as moderators, i.e., family/friend support available to employees (FFS) and manager support available to employees (MS). We used some control variables in our research, i.e., gender, age, marital status, spouse working status, and family structure. The measurement scales were adopted from previous research studies published in well-known business journals.

Variables in a cause-and-effect relationship are called independent and dependent variables.

3.5.1 Dependent variables

The dependent variable is the effect. Its value depends on changes in the independent variable. In our study, our model was comprised of three dependent variables in which work-life interference is also a mediating variable. While measuring correlation with HPHRP and FFWP, the variable work-life interference behaved as a dependent variable, but when measuring the correlation with EWB and IJT, it behaved as an independent variable. In the complete model, we also checked the role of WLI as a mediator.

The dependent variables in our model were:

- 1- Employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB)
- 2- Employee intention to job turnover (IJT)
- 3- Work-life interference (WLI)

Employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB)

Among the organizations, the term work wellbeing is prevalent. According to Zheng et al. (2015), general wellbeing and wellbeing at work are not the same. Wellbeing in the workplace is far different from general life situations. Zheng et al. (2015) developed a measure of workplace wellbeing in the context of Eastern culture and demonstrated desirable reliability

and validity. Their main viewpoint was that due to the East's and West's different cultures, researchers think differently about wellbeing. Western cultures emphasize the importance of environmental mastery, autonomy, and personal emotions in wellbeing. In contrast, Eastern culture places greater emphasis on harmony and social values in achieving a higher level of wellbeing.

Therefore, Zheng et al.'s (2015) scale measured target employees' work wellbeing in their work areas with the six-item subscale of employee wellbeing since it illustrates individuals' perceptions of their wellbeing in the workplace. Items were scored on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). There are 6-items on this scale.

- 1- "I am satisfied with my work responsibilities."
- 2- "In general, I feel fairly satisfied with my present job."
- 3- "I find real enjoyment in my work."
- 4- "I can always find ways to enrich my work."
- 5- "Work is a meaningful experience for me."
- 6- "I feel satisfied with my work achievements in my current job."

Many researchers have adopted this scale, i.e., Karapinar et al. (2019); Miao and Cao (2019). Zheng et al. (2015) reported Cronbach's alpha values of **0.87 of EWB** scales. We found similar Cronbach alpha 0.725 in our studies measuring employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB).

Employee intention to job turnover (IJT)

One of the dependent variables in this research was employee turnover intentions. This refers to the extent to which a worker intends to leave the organization and discontinue his services (Faragher, 2008). Many scholars used the variable intention to leave rather than actual turnover, e.g., Mor et al. (2001) and Mowday et al. (1984).

In this research, we adopted the scale of Mowday et al. (1984) to measure turnover intentions. There were two questions regarding whether participants had thought about quitting their jobs (the first question was about the intention to search for jobs, and the second question measured the intention to leave the job).

- 1- "I will look for a new job soon."
- 2- "Presently, I am actively searching for a job in a different organization."

Items were assessed on a 5-point Likert scale, 1 - representing “strongly disagree” to 5 - representing “strongly agree”. We found Cronbach’s alpha of 0.79 in our study measuring employee intention to job turnover (IJT). The original study by Mowday et al. (1984) reported Cronbach's alpha values of **$\alpha = 0.70$** .

Work-life interference (WLI)

Work-life interference (WLI) denotes the negative spillover from work to the life domain and was assessed on a six-item scale developed by Shah (2017), [ENREF 33](#) which was more suitable for the Indian continent culture. Items were evaluated on a 5-point Likert scale, 1 - representing "strongly disagree" to 5 - representing "strongly agree". We found Cronbach alpha 0.844 in our studies measuring employee work-life interference (WLI). The original study by Shah (2017) [ENREF 33](#) reported Cronbach's alpha values of **$\alpha = 0.804$** .

The six-item instrument to measure work-life interference (WLI) was as follows:

- 1- "My work leaves me with little energy to do any other non-work activity."
- 2- "Tension and stress from work often adversely affect the rest of my life."
- 3- "I do not have enough time to pursue other interests because of the time spent at work."
- 4- "I miss out on important personal life events because of my work."
- 5- "My work makes it difficult for me to schedule personal time-off."
- 6- "Due to work strain, I ignore my personal life needs."

3.5.2 Independent variables

The independent variable is the cause. The value of it is independent of other variables in the study.

Our model consisted of two independent variables :

- 1- Perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP)
- 2- Perceived family-friendly work practices (FFWP)

Perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP)

High-performance practices supporters believe that employers adopt these practices to increase employees performance by raising their skills, motivation, and empowerment (Appelbaum & Berg, 2001). We adopted a questionnaire measuring perceived high-performance human resource practices developed by White et al. (2003). Items were scored on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Not at all, 5 = Always). These bundles of practices³⁶ were divided into three subscales, according to the literature.

A- Appraisal systems based on high-performance human resource practices (ApHPHRP)

- 1- Do your appraisals help to plan your training?
- 2- Do your appraisals affect your promotion?
- 3- Do your appraisals affect your pay?
- 4- Is your appraisal influenced by how hard you work?

B- Group working based high-performance human resource practices (GrHPHRP)

- 1- Do you work in a group? (Combine tasks)
- 2- Do your coworkers influence "how hard you work"?
- 3- Do you take part in a "work improvement group" or "quality circle"?
- 4- Does your pay depend partly on the "performance of the workgroup"?

C- Performance-related pay based high-performance human resource (PrHPHRP)

- 1- Does part of your pay depend on your own performance?
- 2- Does part of your pay depend on the performance of the workplace or organization?
- 3- Your organization has a profit-sharing or share scheme.
- 4- Are your pay incentives influenced by how hard you work?
- 5- In your organization, pay increases are given to the employees who work hard and perform well? (Merit pay).

We found Cronbach's alpha of 0.69 in our studies measuring perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP). The original study by White et al. (2003) reported Cronbach's alpha values of **$\alpha = 0.70$** .

³⁶ As a primary unit of analysis when examining the impact of HR systems, researchers argue for a focus on the bundles of human resource (HR) practices rather than individual practices (Huselid, 1995)

Perceived family-friendly work practices (FFWP)

Which FFWP to offer and which not to offer employees depends on the availability of resources. Sometimes, even when organizations offer FFWP, their employees may not understand that these policies are put in place for them. This is the perceived accessibility level (Budd & Mumford, 2006). In our research, we asked employees whether such flexible work arrangements were accessible in their organizations and how they perceived such practices.

We measured flexible work arrangements using two items (McNall et al., 2009). We asked participants,

- 1- Does your company offer flexibility when you start or end your workday (also known as flextime)?
- 2- Does your company allow you to work four longer days per week instead of five regular days (also known as a compressed workweek)?

Another question was added from the questionnaire (Bloom et al., 2011), which best suits the Asian organization culture.

- 3- Paid leave allowed for personal and family reasons on short notice.

We assigned 1 to participants who answered “Never” and 5 to participants who answered “always” to these items. Consistent with a previous study by McNall et al. (2009), we measured access to benefits rather than usage because we were interested in the availability of work-family programs as a symbol of organizational concern for work and family issues. We found a Cronbach alpha of 0.780 in our studies measuring perceived family-friendly work practices (FFWP).

The original study by McNall et al. (2009) reported Cronbach’s alpha values of **$\alpha = 0.852$** .

3.5.3 Moderating variables

The moderator variable affects the relationship between predictor and criterion variables. It commonly affects the strength of the relationship between dependent and independent variables.

In our study model, we had two moderators:

- 1- Perceived manager support in the workplace (MS)
- 2- Perceived family and friend support (FFS)

Perceived manager support in the workplace

Perceived manager/supervisor support (MS) was measured using eight modified items (Boxall & Macky, 2014; Eisenberger et al., 2002). These items were modified from the perceived organizational support scale developed by Kottke and Sharafinski (1988), where the original item referred to “organization”, the word “manager” was substituted. A 5-point Likert type scale was used with 1 - representing “strongly disagree” to 5 - representing “strongly agree.” In order to control the bias, two statements were negatively worded, thus reverse coded.

- 1- My manager/supervisor really cares about my wellbeing.
- 2- My manager/supervisor considers my goals and values.
- 3- My manager/supervisor shows little concern for me. (R)
- 4- My manager/supervisor cares about my opinion.
- 5- My manager/supervisor is willing to help if I need a special favor.
- 6- Help is available from my manager/supervisor when I have a problem.
- 7- Your manager would forgive an honest mistake on your part.
- 8- If given the opportunity, your manager would take advantage of you. (R)

Note: (R) indicated the item is reverse scored.

We found Cronbach alpha 0.910 in our studies measuring perceived manager support (MS).

The original study by Kottke and Sharafinski (1988) reported Cronbach's alpha values of $\alpha = 0.97$.

Perceived family/friend support (FFS)

The perceived family/friend support scale is a measure of how a person views their family/friend support in the workplace. Perceived family/friend support (FFS) was measured using a 4-item scale developed by Baruch-Feldman et al. (2002). A 5-point Likert type scale was used with 1 - representing “strongly disagree” to 5 - representing “strongly agree.” The higher the score, the higher the perceived family support.

- 1- When something goes wrong at work, I can talk it over with my friends or family.
- 2- My friends/family care about how I feel about my job.
- 3- My friends/family help me feel better when I've had a hard day at work.
- 4- My friends/family are interested and proud when something good happens at work.

We found a Cronbach alpha of 0.678 in our studies measuring perceived family and friend support (FFS). The original study by Baruch-Feldman et al. (2002) reported Cronbach's alpha values of $\alpha = 0.91$.

3.5.4 Control variables

Control variables were included in the analysis to rule out the other possible explanations for the significant relationships. Respondents were required to indicate their sex, age, marital status, family structure, and spouse’s job status. The sex of the respondents was categorized as (1) Male and (0) Female. Age groups were formed based on the mean score of the participants. A single item asked each respondent to report their age using categories of (1) less than 25 years, (2) 26–30 years, (3) 31–35 years, (4) 36-40 years, (5) 41-45 years, (6) 46-50 years, (7) 51-60 years. Marital status categories were formed using types (1) Single, (2) Married, (3) Divorced, and Widowed. Finally, the family structure was categorized as (1) Living alone, (2) Nuclear family, and (3) Joint family. All these variables are essential and have been used in various previous studies. We controlled for sex, age, marital status, family structure, and spouse job status, as these might influence exposure to employee wellbeing in the workplace and intention to job turnover.

3.6 Data collection

Once all the measurement scales were selected, then a final version of the questionnaire and cover letter were then administered (see Annex - IV). The survey was administered in English because English is the official language of business communication in Pakistan (Aboramadan et al., 2021).

This final version of the questionnaire and cover letter were then administered online on the website "LimeSurvey" (<https://jumani.limequery.com/882528?lang=en>) for final data collection. LimeSurvey is a German-based online survey software company with its headquarters in Hamburg. The key advantages of using online surveys are

- 1- Using online surveys significantly reduces set-up and administration costs.
- 2- Online surveys save a lot of time and effort to quickly create, administer, collect, and analyze surveys.
- 3- They are straightforward and convenient for respondents to complete surveys online. Participants can fill out questionnaires when they choose to and start and stop a survey at their leisure.
- 4- Administering surveys through an online system increases accessibility. You can send a link to the survey via email and set up subsequent reminders through the online feedback management system. Respondents then have various ways to access the questionnaire, including mobile devices, tablets, laptops, desktop computers, etc.
- 5- You can send a survey to thousands of people as quickly as you can send a survey to one participant.
- 6- An advantage of using online surveys is that they provide respondent anonymity. Once confidentiality is assured, participants feel more comfortable providing open and honest feedback. It positively impacts response and completion rates, which are vital to the survey's success.

Although the online survey has many advantages, the same method has some disadvantages, i.e., i) - if the online survey is long, then there might be a chance that fake answers are obtained. The chance of a respondent just hitting buttons or leaving answers unfilled to finish are high; ii) - if the online survey is confusing or respondents do not understand the question,

then they may put down fake answers; iii) - as the respondent is away from the researcher, there might be a high chance that the respondent could ignore or delete online survey requests.

As the researcher has good references in the banking sector, we opted for the online survey method by sending the link through email. We followed up from time to time with respondents to ensure that they filled the survey without any difficulty.

The data were collected from the banking sector of Pakistan from different cities. The respondents were selected from lower, middle, and top-level management to ensure a thorough understanding of the survey questionnaire; because the questionnaire was administered in the English language (which is the official language). The questionnaire was administered online on the LimeSurvey website. The link was distributed among bank employees when visiting the branches. I worked in the banking sector for six years (2003-2009) and have good references in different cities and used those connections to collect data. To ensure the respondents' complete anonymity, a cover letter was also attached online, which is placed in Appendix (IV). This step reduces common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Anonymity in a survey appears to promote greater disclosure and motivates the respondent accurately to disclose sensitive or stigmatizing information compared to non-anonymity methods.

Once the data was collected, then it needed screening of data properly. Our online data collection through the LimeSurvey website helped us to sort the complete submitted surveys and incomplete unfilled surveys. Similarly, it helped collect data from different cities where physical traveling was not possible due to time constraints and was straightforward and convenient for respondents to complete surveys online. Participants filled out questionnaires when they chose to and started and stopped the survey at their leisure.

3.7 Data Analysis Technique

Structural equation modeling is a part of multivariate statistical techniques employed to examine direct and indirect relationships between one or more independent latent variables and one or more dependent latent variables (Gefen et al., 2000). Structural equation modeling allows researchers to assess a model's overall fit and test the structural model altogether (Chin, 1998;

Gefen et al., 2000). SEM evaluates the hypothesized structural linkages among constructs and the linkages between a construct and its respective measures (Hair Jr. et al., 2016).

3.7.1 Why partial least square (PLS) - structural equation modeling (SEM)?

Among variance-based SEM methods, partial least squares (PLS) path modeling is regarded as the "most fully developed" (Henseler et al., 2016). Partial least squares is widely used in strategic management (Hair et al., 2012). Partial least square (PLS) originated with an econometrician named Herman Wold in the 1970s (Chin, 1998). This dissertation employs established analytic criteria, adapting a partial least square (PLS-SEM) approach as the statistical method to assess the research model. Specifically, the following reasons guided this decision:

- a) According to Henseler et al. (2009), PLS is appropriate for large complex models with many latent variables. This dissertation employs many LVs (seven) and has a relatively complex research model with moderation and mediation.
- b) This dissertation intends to examine the relationships according to prior theoretical knowledge. PLS-SEM can estimate the correlations between residuals and assess their effects on the model.
- c) PLS can be used for prediction and theory testing. This means both kinds of research are possible with PLS (Sander & Teh, 2014).

The conclusion is that PLS is an important statistical tool for management and organizational research and other social science disciplines (Henseler et al., 2014).

We used PLS-SEM in our study because

- 1- Our sample size of data was small, and PLS-SEM is more suitable for small data studies (Wong, 2019).
- 2- The PLS-SEM provides the opportunity to explore the relationship between the latent variable and manifest variable in both formative and reflective ways (Wong, 2019). Our model was higher-order reflective-reflective; therefore, we used PLS-SEM.

- 3- Our model was complex, with many constructs, indicators, and structural paths. The model included mediation and moderation with some constants. According to Hair et al. (2019), PLS-SEM is better and more appealing for estimating complex models. Therefore, we used PLS-SEM.
- 4- To avoid the distribution and normality issue, we used PLS-SEM in our study.

Therefore, the research model was assessed using a three-step process (Hair Jr. et al., 2014).

- 1) Model specification
- 2) The assessment of the measurement model; and,
- 3) The assessment of the structural model.

In this dissertation, the research model was assessed using a two-step process: (1) The assessment of the measurement model; and (2) The assessment of the structural model. Overall, model validation aims to determine whether both the measurement and the structural model meet the quality criteria for empirical research (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010). The following subsections discuss the guidelines used in this dissertation to assess both measurement and the structural model.

There are two sub-models in SEM, i.e., the inner model and the outer model.

- 1- Inner model: This model specifies the relationship between the independent and dependent latent variables.³⁷ This model is called a structural model.
- 2- Outer Model: This model specifies the relationship between the observed indicators³⁸ and latent variables. This model is called the measurement model.

³⁷ Latent variables that cannot be observed directly and known as constructs.

³⁸ The observed variable is measured directly from the respondent; they are the indicators of the latent variable.

Model specification

In SEM, the variables are either exogenous³⁹ or endogenous.⁴⁰ In the second step, we needed to identify whether the outer model was reflective or formative (for this, we performed confirmatory tetrad analysis CTA-PLS)

The assessment of the measurement model

According to Hair Jr. et al. (2016), a reflective measurement model is assessed on the following criteria: 1) Indicator reliability; 2) Convergent validity (average variance extract); 3) Construct reliability, and 4) Discriminant validity.

The assessment of the structural model

When the measurement model assessment indicated satisfactory quality, we moved to assess the structural model (testing our hypothesized model).

According to Hair Jr. et al. (2016), a structural model is assessed on the following criteria: 1) Inner collinearity statistics (VIF); 2) Path coefficients (bootstrapping); 3) Coefficient of determination (R-square); 4) The effect size (f-square); 5) Cross-validated redundancy (Q-square); and 6) Moderation and mediation analysis.

3.7.2 Data analysis software

The smartPLS 3.2 software (Ringle, 2005) was used to execute all the PLS-SEM analyses in this thesis. SmartPLS is currently the most comprehensive software for conducting PLS-SEM analyses (Henseler, 2017). SEM has been used in many studies in the last decades as a statistical analysis technique by researchers with a model or a set of hypotheses to be tested based on sampled and collected data (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010). The most common reasons for choosing SEM are small sample sizes, non-normality, exploratory research objective/predictive purposes, analyzing formative and reflective constructs, number of interaction terms, and

³⁹ In an exogenous variable, the path has an arrow pointing outwards and non-leading to it.

⁴⁰ An endogenous variable has at least one path leading to it and represents the effects of other variable(s).

mediated models (Kante et al., 2018). Working with relatively smaller sample sizes and non-normal cases are the strong advantages of the technique.

SmartPLS is software created to test models. The software provides the opportunity to draw the path model between the variables and define the indicators (Sander & Teh, 2014). SmartPLS requires no distributional assumptions; other SEM assumes a normal distribution of data (Ringle et al., 2012; Sander & Teh, 2014).

The goodness-of-fit model (GOF) is not required in SmartPLS-3 (Hair Jr. et al., 2016). According to Memon et al. (2019), SmartPLS 3.2 has significant attention due to its built-in features that run all moderating approaches (e.g., product-indicator, two-stage) orthogonalizing) with a few simple clicks. SmartPLS3.2 makes multi-group analysis (MGA) easier to execute than other frequently used packages (e.g., IBM SPSS AMOS).

Missing data and data diversification

A total of 565 responses were received, from which 322 were completely filled and 243 responses were excluded from analysis due to a large number of missing values. Of the remaining, 266 (83%) respondents were male, and 56 (17%) were female. This percentage also represents the overall percentage of females working in the specified five large banks, as detailed in Table 3.1.

Common method bias

Common method variance must be examined when data are collected via self-reported questionnaires and, in particular, when both the dependent and independent variables are obtained from the same person (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Thus, we adopted multiple remedies to address this issue, as suggested in the literature.

Procedural Remedies

Through the cover letter attached with the survey, we clarified to the respondents that the questionnaire was anonymous.⁴¹ When using an anonymous survey, recipients are more

⁴¹ An anonymous survey is one that does not collect personal identifiable information or leave options for respondents to answer, such as their name or email address.

comfortable responding, response rates increase, the feedback is more honest, and it helps to avoid social desirability bias.

Furthermore, we added negatively worded (reverse-coded) items to minimize the cognitive pattern for the respondents. The items with reversed-scored indicated by (R). Finally, the questionnaire was structured such that the dependent variables were measured before the independent variables, reducing the likelihood of social desirability contributing to common-method variance (T.J. Kline et al., 2000).

Statistical Test to confirm CMB

We conducted Herman's Single-factor Test to check whether CMV had a significant influence on data or not. For this, we used IBM SPSS-20 for CMV (dimension-reduction factor analysis). If the newly introduced common latent factor explains more than 50% of the variance, then common method bias may be present. The results showed that the single factor explains 25.14% of the total variance, which is lower than the median amount of method variance (50%) reported in studies of self-reported perceptions at work (Eichhorn, 2014).

Conclusion

The privatization of the banking sector in Pakistan makes this sector more competitive and motivates us to collect data about work-life research from the banking sector. Even the contacts developed during past working experiences help to understand the environment and to collect the data. We used an online data collection source, i.e., LimeSurvey. We administered the questionnaire online on this website and shared the links with the employees to complete this survey. We ensured the data safety and anonymity of the survey with respondents. Using the smart PLS 3.2 software, we analyze the data in chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4

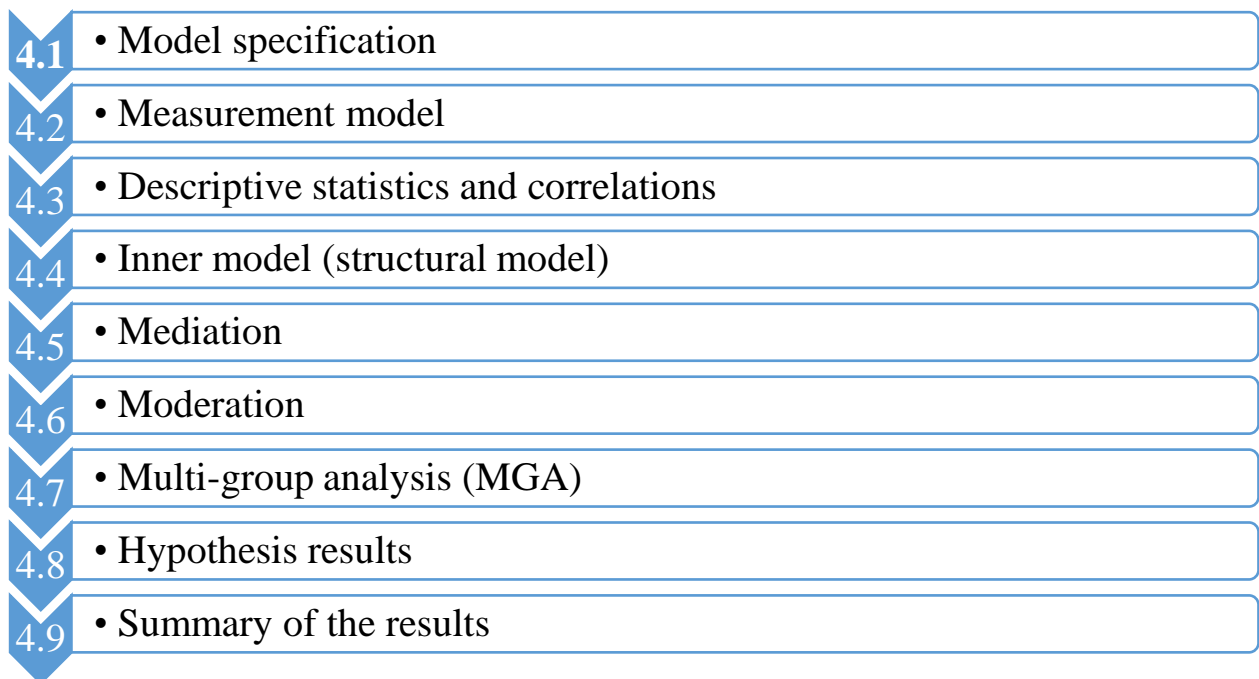


CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS & INTERPRETATION

Introduction:

We followed Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) guidelines. Accordingly, SEM was conducted in two stages. We conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to check our measurement model's fitness in the first stage. In the second stage, we hypothesized a structural model, measuring the relations between study variables.

The chapter outline is shown in Figure 4.1.



4.1	• Model specification
4.2	• Measurement model
4.3	• Descriptive statistics and correlations
4.4	• Inner model (structural model)
4.5	• Mediation
4.6	• Moderation
4.7	• Multi-group analysis (MGA)
4.8	• Hypothesis results
4.9	• Summary of the results

Figure 4-1 Chapter 4 outlines

Abbreviations used in the chapter

WLI (perceived work-life interference)

EWB (Employee perceived wellbeing in the workplace)

IJT (Employee intention to job turn over)

ApHPHRP (Appraisal systems based high-performance human resource practices)

GrHPHRP (Group working based high-performance human resource practices)

PrHPHRP (Performance-related pay based high-performance human resource)

4.1 Model specification

There are two sub-models in the structural equation model (Wong, 2019): the inner model, which defines the relationship between the dependent variable and independent variable, and the outer model, which defines the relationship between the latent variable and the observed indicators as mentioned in Fig 4.2.

The first step in using PLS-SEM involves creating a path model that connects variables and constructs based on theory and logic. It is important to distinguish the location of the constructs, as well as the relationships between them.

In SEM, a variable is either exogenous or endogenous. An exogenous variable has path arrows pointing outwards and none leading to it. An endogenous variable has at least one path leading to it and represents another variable (s) effects, as demonstrated in Fig 4.2.

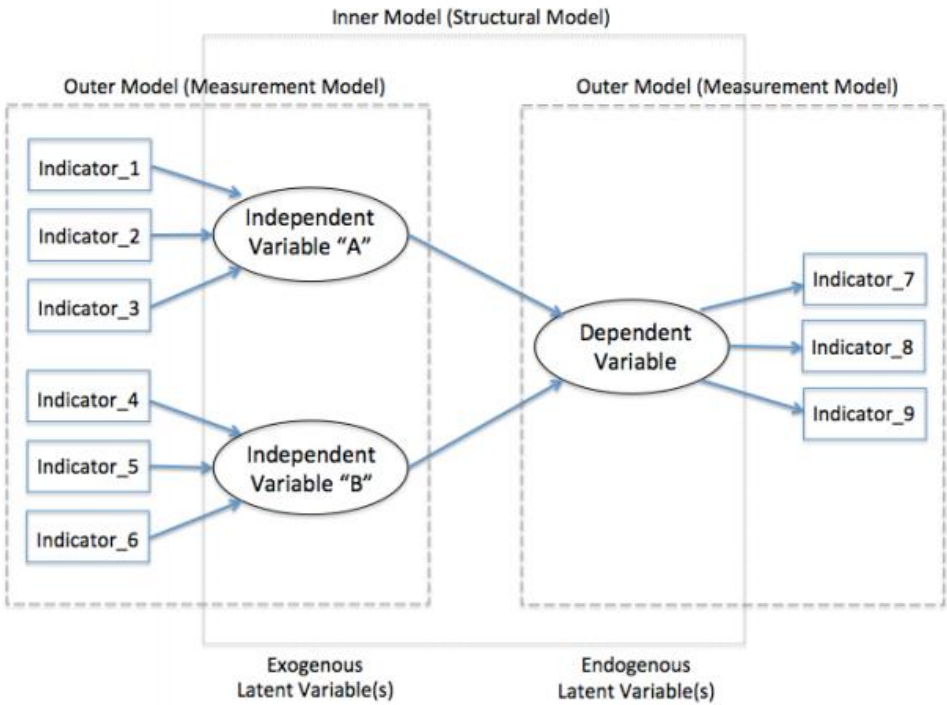


Figure 4-2 Inner vs outer model in an SEM

4.1.1 Reflective v/s formative model

The model specifies how to measure latent variables. The relationship's direction is either from the construct to the measures (reflective measurement) or from the measures to the construct (formative measurement). Does the model includes a reflective measured construct? As shown in Fig 4.3, we deal separately in each case.

As a rule of thumb (Table 4-1), if the indicators are non-highly correlated and not interchangeable, then it is a formative measurement model. However, if indicators are highly interchangeable among themselves, it is a reflective measurement model (Wong, 2019).

Table 4-1 Reflective/formative "rule of thumb" (Wong, 2019)

	CI Low	CI Up		
	adj.	adj		Measurement Model is
If all values are ...	-	-	Then	Formative
If all values are ...	+	+	Then	Formative
If one or more of the values are	-	+	Then	Reflective

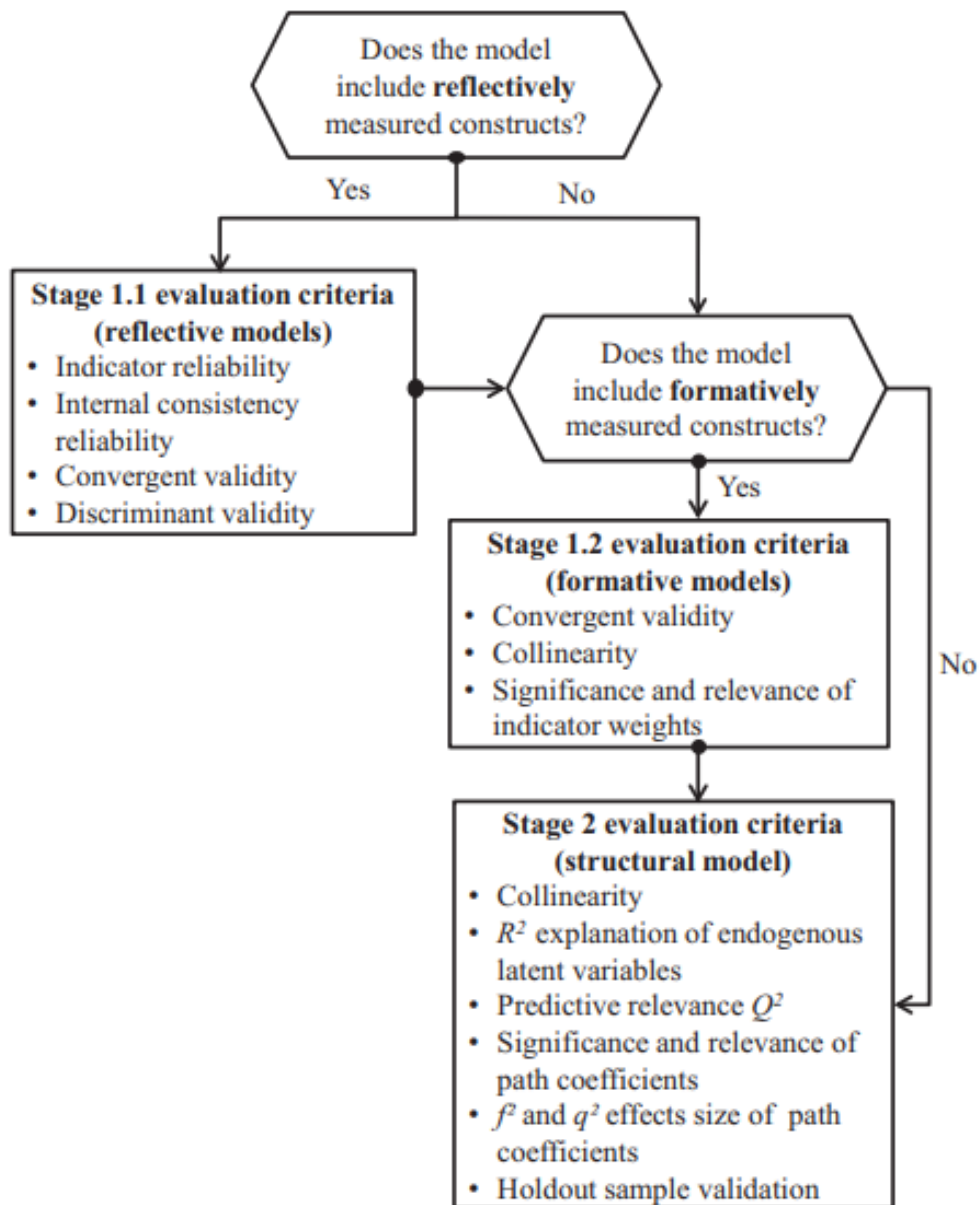


Figure 4-3 Reflective v/s formative model

Note: Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014)

Confirmatory tetrad analysis for PLS-SEM (CTA-PLS)

In smartPLS 3.2 software, CTA analysis is a statistical tool that allows us to test whether the measures should be specified reflectively or formatively, as detailed results demonstrate in Table 4.2 (Gudergan et al., 2008). As a rule of thumb, if in CTA-PLS output data, the value “1” lies between the low confidence adjustment (CI low Adj) and confidence adjustment Up (CI Up Adj), then it is the reflective model.

As in Table 4-2, our test results of CTA-PLS show the model is reflective.

Table 4-2 Results of confirmatory tetrad analysis

Construct	Scale
ApHPHRP (HPHRP1, HPHRP2, HPHRP3, HPHRP4)	Reflective
GrHPHRP (HPHRP5, HPHRP6, HPHRP7, HPHRP8)	Reflective
PrHPHRP (HPHRP9, HPHRP10, HPHRP11, HPHRP12, HPHRP13)	Reflective
HPHRP (2 nd order)	Reflective
FFWP	Reflective
WLI	Reflective
EWB	Reflective
IJT	Reflective
MS	Reflective
FFS	Reflective

Note: WLI = Perceived work-life interference, EWB = Employee perceived wellbeing in the workplace, IJT = Employee intention to job turn over, ApHPHRP = Appraisal systems based high-performance human resource practices, GrHPHRP = Group working based high-performance human resource practices, PrHPHRP = Performance-related pay based high-performance human resource.

4.1.2 High order reflective-reflective model

Our model is a high order reflective-reflective model. According to Lohmöller (1989), PLS-SEM can be designed as a hierarchical components model (HCM). In our model, high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP) is a high order component variable which includes the observable lower-order components (LOCs), i.e., ApHPHRP, GrHPHRP, PrHPHRP. The unobservable higher-order components (HOCs) reduce model complexity and make it more theoretically parsimonious. The use of a hierarchical component model can also reduce bias due to collinearity issues and eliminate potential discriminant validity problems (Hair et al., 2013).

We used the two-stage or sequential approach. We started by estimating the first-order construct scores in the first stage (Hair et al., 2013), as shown in Fig 4.4. In the first step, the repeated indicator approach was used to obtain the latent variable scores for the low order components, i.e., ApHPHRP, GrHPHRP and PrHPHRP. In the second step, these latent variables serve as manifest variables in the high order component measurement model (Fig 4.4 & Fig 4.5).

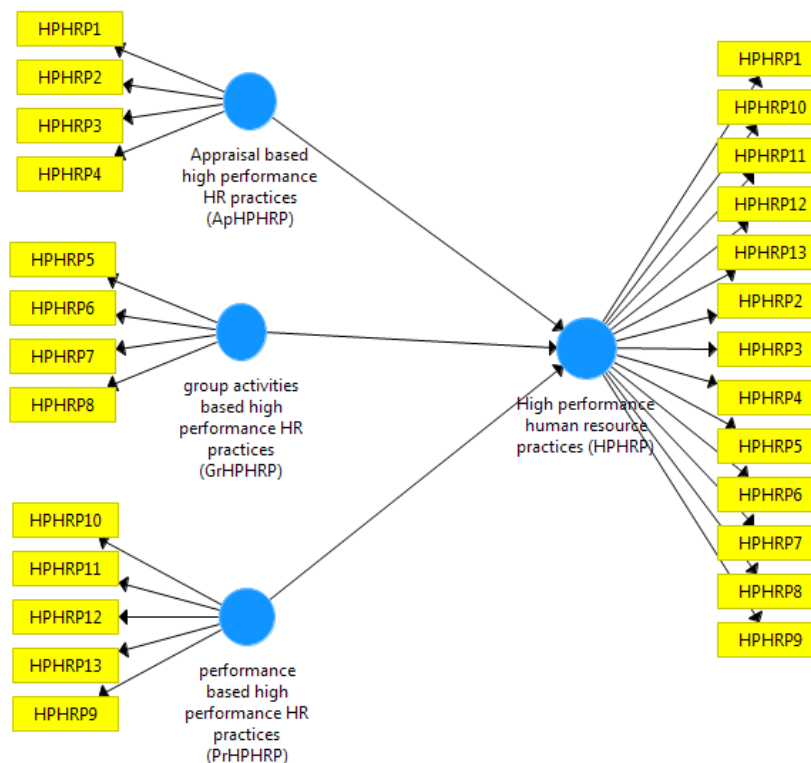


Figure 4-4 1st step (repeated indicator approach)

Note: Using repeated-indicators approach (Wold, 1982)

In the second stage, using a buildup approach (Ringle et al., 2012), the latent value obtained from the first stage was used as indicators for the second-order construct, as mentioned in Fig 4.5. At the same time, the path coefficients between other constructs were estimated (Hair et al., 2011).

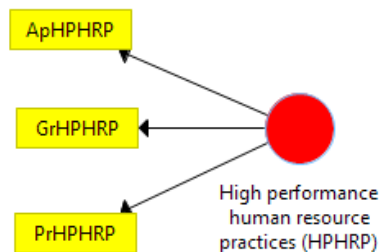


Figure 4-5 Using a build-up approach

Note: Build-up approach (Ringle et al., 2012)

Structural Equation Model

By using the two-stage approach, repeated indicator, and build-up approach, we formulated the higher-order components (HOC), i.e., HPhRP with three low order components with latent variables ApHPhRP, GrHPhRP and PrHPhRP, as mentioned in Fig 4.6. Thereby, the HOC was embedded in the nomological net in such a way that it allowed other latent variables as predecessors to explain some of the variance, which resulted in significant path relationships (Hair et al., 2013). We also added a moderator to our model, as explained in theory, to examine how employees perceived manager support (MS) and family and friend support (FFS) as a moderator between the HPhRP and WLI. The model with moderator is explained in Fig 4.7.

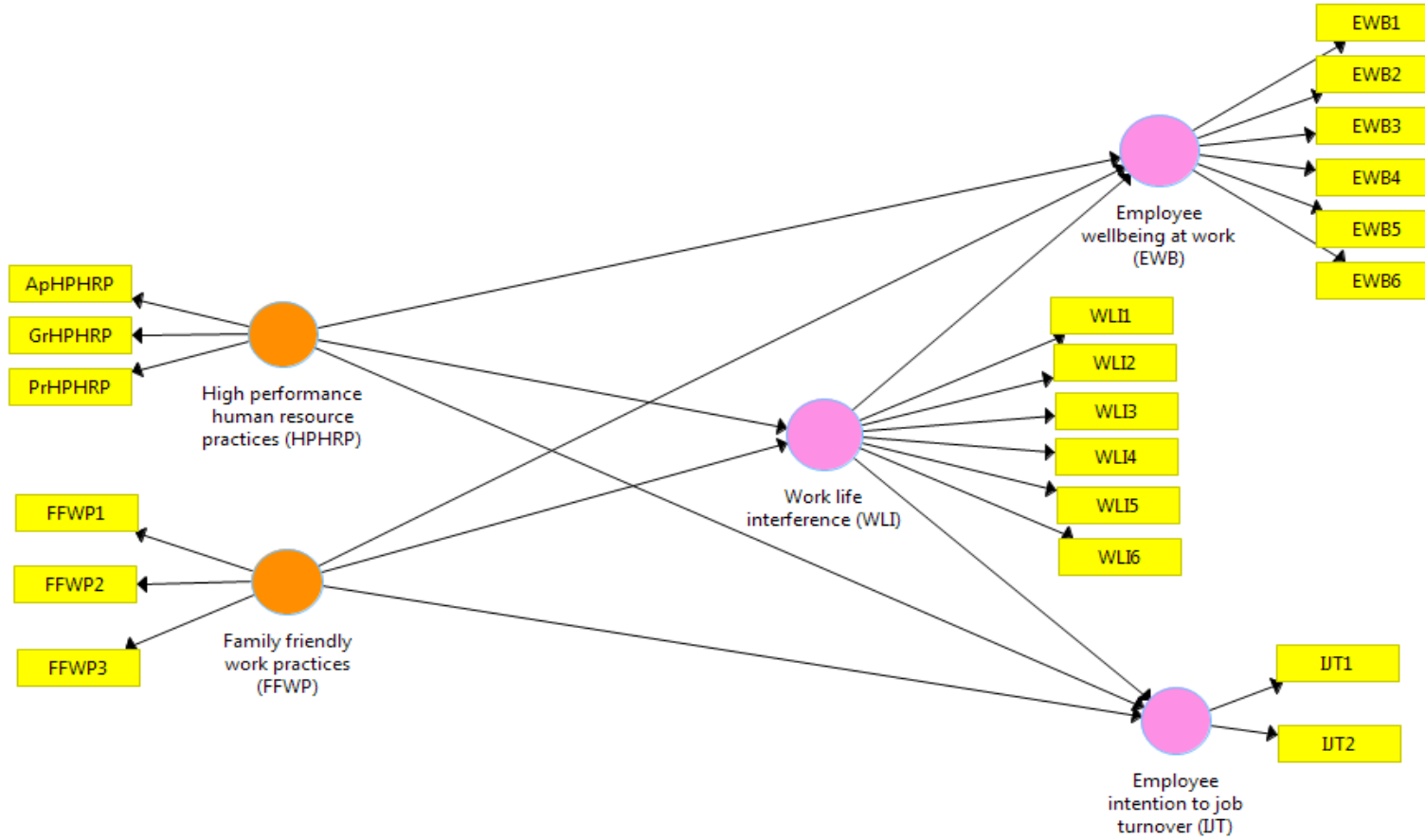


Figure 4-6 Results of SEM without moderating variables

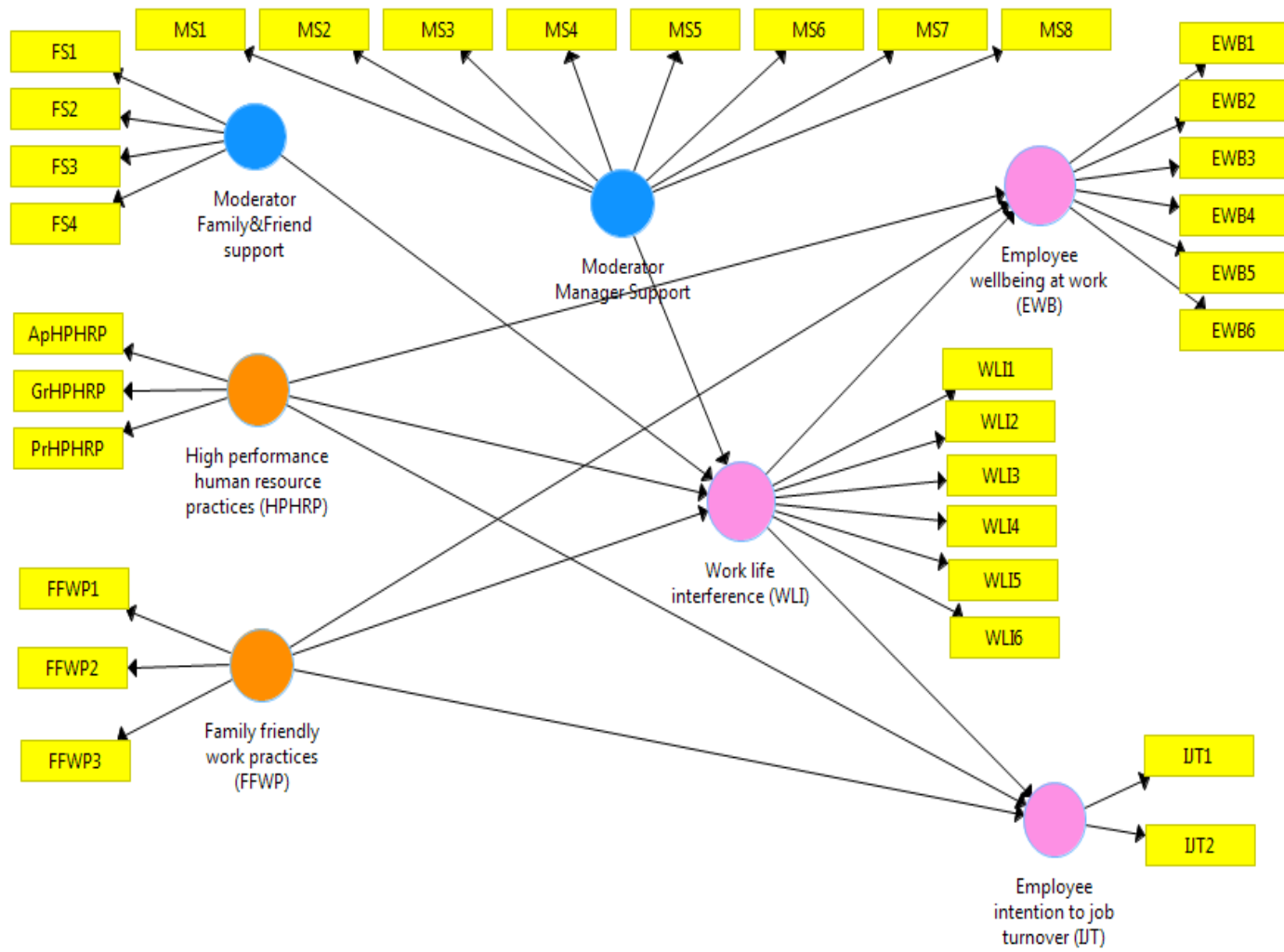


Figure 4-7 Results of SEM with moderating variables

4.2 Measurement model

The second step after the model specification was the assessment of the measurement model (Hair Jr. et al., 2014).

The reliability and validity of the measurement model (including all latent variables and moderators) were estimated using the PLS-SEM statistical technique with the Smart PLS 3.2 statistical software (Ringle et al., 2015).

According to Hair Jr. et al. (2016), a reflective measurement model is assessed on the following criteria: 1) Indicator reliability, 2) Convergent validity (average variance extract), 3) Construct Reliability, 4) and Discriminant validity.

4.2.1 Indicator reliability

The purpose of assessing indicator reliability is to evaluate the extent to which a variable or a set of variables is consistent with what it intends to measure (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010). Studies suggest that factor loadings should be greater than 0.5 for better results (Hulland, 1999), while other studies assert that a 0.5 cutoff is acceptable (Chen & Tsai, 2007). Using SmartPLS-3.2 software, we conducted an indicator reliability test and detailed the results mentioned in Table 4.3. While checking the factor loadings of all the items, it was observed that two indicators (WLI1 and MS3) that form employee and manager support at work, respectively, had factor loadings below 0.50. Following R. Kline (2011) recommendations, these indicators were removed because their outer loading was smaller than the 0.5 threshold level. Meanwhile, two indicators of employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB4, EWB5) and one indicator of latent variable family and friend support (FS1) were found to have loadings between 0.5 and 0.6. Therefore, a loading relevance test was performed for these three indicators to see if they should be retained in the model or not. As the elimination of the two indicators (EWB4, EWB5) would result in an increase of Average Variance Extracted (AVE) 0.445 (Table 4.3) to 0.548 (Table 4.4) of their respective latent construct, they were removed from the PLS model. The remaining indicator (FS1) was retained as the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) is 0.511 greater than the threshold of 5. Two indicators of manager support (MS7 and MS8) had a VIF more than the threshold of 5, so we removed the indicator MS7 with a high VIF. The initial results before eliminating the indicators with poor loadings are mentioned in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4-3 Results of factor loadings

Latent variable	Indicators	Indicator reliability		Convergent validity
		Loading (>0.5)	VIF < 5	Average variance Extracted
HPHRP	ApHPHRP	0.774	1.397	0.612
	GrHPHRP	0.685	1.264	
	PrHPHRP	0.876	1.415	
FFWP	FFWP 1	0.87	2.387	0.695
	FFWP 2	0.85	2.353	
	FFWP 3	0.778	1.281	
WLI	WLI1	0.433	1.124	0.539
	WLI2	0.679	1.429	
	WLI3	0.8	1.974	
	WLI4	0.807	2.045	
	WLI5	0.812	2.02	
	WLI6	0.798	1.956	
EWB	EWB1	0.788	1.592	0.445
	EWB2	0.7	1.402	
	EWB3	0.749	1.45	
	EWB4	0.53	1.22	
	EWB5	0.568	1.247	
	EWB6	0.628	1.336	
IJT	IJT1	0.923	1.741	0.825
	IJT2	0.893	1.741	
MS	MS1	0.795	2.753	0.618
	MS2	0.832	3.329	
	MS3	0.016	1.383	
	MS4	0.815	2.903	
	MS5	0.776	2.195	
	MS6	0.8	3.014	
	MS7	0.932	7.453	
	MS8	0.919	6.825	
FFS	FS1	0.593	1.131	0.511
	FS2	0.779	1.312	
	FS3	0.771	1.537	
	FS4	0.7	1.374	

4.2.2 Convergent validity

Convergent validity refers to the model's ability to explain the indicator's variance. Adequate convergent validity is achieved when the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) value of a construct is at least 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). According to results in Table 4.4, after removing the indicators, i.e., WLI1, EWB4, EWB5, MS3, and MS7, as detailed in Table 4.3, the AVE for the latent construct HPHRP, FFWP, WLI, EWB, ITO, MS, and FFS were well above the required minimum level of 0.50 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Therefore, all reflective construct measures can be said to have an adequate level of convergent validity.

Table 4-4 Results of Average Variance Extracted

Constructs	Average Variance Extracted (AVE > 0.5)
HPHRP	0.612
FFWP	0.696
WLI	0.619
EWB	0.548
IJT	0.825
MS	0.690
FFS	0.511

4.2.3 Construct reliability

The construct reliability was measured with the composite reliability (overall internal consistency). The result of this test typically should be between 0 and 1. Acceptable results are 0.6 or higher. Values above 0.95 are not desirable because they indicate that all variables measure the same phenomenon (Hair Jr. et al., 2017). The composite reliability of these constructs was also established as they had $CR > .80$, as detailed in Table 4.5. A further indicator for the construct reliability can be Cronbach's alpha. George and Mallery (2003) provide the following rules of thumb: “ $\alpha > 0.9$ – Excellent, $\alpha > 0.8$ – Good, $\alpha > 0.7$ – Acceptable, $\alpha > 0.6$ – Questionable, $\alpha > 0.5$ – Poor, and $\alpha < 0.5$ – Unacceptable”.

The Cronbach's alpha (Table 4.5) in our measurement model was greater than 0.70, except for the perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP 0.69) and perceived family and friend support (FFS 0.678), where the values were near to 0.70. Therefore, it was acceptable to proceed further to assess the measurement model.

Table 4-5 Construct reliability results

Constructs	Composite Reliability (CR)	Cronbach's alpha
HPHRP	0.824	0.690
FFWP	0.872	0.780
WLI	0.890	0.844
EWB	0.828	0.725
IJT	0.904	0.790
MS	0.930	0.910
FFS	0.806	0.678

4.2.4 Discriminant validity

According to Urbach and Ahlemann (2010), discriminant validity is used to differentiate a construct's measures from one another. It also measures the degree of difference between overlapping constructs (Hair Jr. et al., 2014). Unlike convergent validity, discriminant validity tests whether the items unintentionally measure something else besides the intended construct. In PLS, there are three measures of discriminant validity that are commonly used: (1) Fornell-Larcker's criterion (Fornell & Larcker, 1981); (2) cross-loading (Chin, 1998); and (3) the Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) technique.

Applying Fornell-Larcker's criterion requires a latent variable to share more variance with its assigned indicators than with any other latent variable. This method compares the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) with the correlation of latent constructs. A latent construct should better explain its own indicator variance than the variance of other latent

constructs. Therefore, each construct's AVE's square root should exceed the correlations with other latent constructs (Hair Jr. et al., 2014).

We examined our data's discriminant validity through Fornell-Larcker's criteria, and the results established the validity as the square root of the AVE of the LV, indicating the highest in any column or row as in Table 4.6.

Table 4-6 Discriminant validity (Fornell-Larcker criterion)

Latent variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
HPhRP	0.782						
FFWP	-0.005	0.834					
WLI	-0.287	-0.141	0.787				
EWB	0.356	0.105	-0.349	0.74			
IJT	-0.116	-0.156	0.365	-0.261	0.908		
MS	0.438	0.038	-0.279	0.513	-0.284	0.83	
FFS	0.161	0.047	-0.116	0.095	-0.013	0.199	0.715

Note: Square root of AVE > Latent variable correlation (LVC), the diagonal is the square root of the AVE of the latent variables and indicates the highest in any column or row.

To assess the discriminant validity, we also employed the indicators' cross-loadings (Hair Jr. et al., 2017). Cross-loading is obtained by correlating each latent variable's component scores with all other items. If each indicator's loading is higher for its designated construct compared to any other constructs, then it can be inferred that the different constructs' indicators are not interchangeable (Chin, 1998).

Table 4.7 displays the results of the discriminant validity assessment based on the cross-loading evaluation. We can see that discriminant validity was achieved from this result since each indicator of the latent variables loads more to their construct than others.

Table 4-7 Discriminant validity (cross-loading)

	HPhRP	FFWP	WLI	EWB	IJT	MS	FFS
ApHPhRP	0.764	0.005	-0.214	0.194	-0.102	0.328	0.141
GrHPhRP	0.697	0.03	-0.197	0.214	0.009	0.242	0.158
PrHPhRP	0.875	-0.03	-0.256	0.381	-0.145	0.425	0.103
FFWP1	-0.004	0.873	-0.158	0.051	-0.124	0.031	0.075
FFWP2	0.007	0.851	-0.103	0.079	-0.109	0.092	0.098
FFWP3	-0.014	0.774	-0.089	0.127	-0.152	-0.017	-0.041
WLI2	-0.264	-0.074	0.685	-0.242	0.265	-0.226	-0.058
WLI3	-0.221	-0.173	0.804	-0.247	0.262	-0.186	-0.097
WLI4	-0.125	-0.146	0.806	-0.25	0.35	-0.2	-0.046
WLI5	-0.264	-0.067	0.823	-0.337	0.273	-0.242	-0.167
WLI6	-0.246	-0.102	0.807	-0.284	0.289	-0.239	-0.08
EWB1	0.308	0.113	-0.282	0.817	-0.193	0.412	0.022
EWB2	0.246	0.098	-0.251	0.742	-0.217	0.325	0.086
EWB3	0.28	0.088	-0.3	0.769	-0.222	0.468	0.085
EWB6	0.209	-0.02	-0.182	0.618	-0.128	0.288	0.109
IJT1	-0.123	-0.141	0.361	-0.246	0.925	-0.281	-0.016
IJT2	-0.084	-0.143	0.297	-0.228	0.891	-0.231	-0.006
MS1	0.322	-0.017	-0.222	0.403	-0.215	0.822	0.125
MS2	0.408	0.042	-0.273	0.498	-0.25	0.855	0.106
MS4	0.333	0.141	-0.192	0.434	-0.267	0.82	0.224
MS5	0.267	-0.014	-0.22	0.416	-0.229	0.793	0.247
MS6	0.439	-0.002	-0.218	0.355	-0.214	0.797	0.172
MS8	0.401	0.047	-0.253	0.436	-0.241	0.892	0.142
FS1	0.102	-0.026	-0.077	0.094	0.079	0.044	0.604
FS2	0.059	0.074	-0.095	0.019	-0.024	0.19	0.758
FS3	0.138	-0.017	-0.074	0.028	-0.006	0.123	0.768
FS4	0.17	0.089	-0.083	0.136	-0.078	0.195	0.718

The Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) technique is the most up-to-date, safe, and effective way to examine discriminant validity (Hair Jr. et al., 2017). As presented in Table 4.8, every HTMT value's confidence interval did not include the value 1 for all levels of constructs, verifying that discriminant quality was established. Furthermore, the maximum value of 0.618 was below the 0.85 threshold, i.e., the most conservative HTMT value (Wong, 2019). It also confirms that discriminant validity was established in the model.

Table 4-8 Discriminant validity Hetrotrait-Monotrait (HTMT)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
HPHRP						
FFWP	0.056					
WLI	0.368	0.176				
EWB	0.467	0.154	0.435			
IJT	0.153	0.197	0.445	0.339		
Moderator MS	0.529	0.097	0.314	0.618	0.333	
Moderator FFS	0.254	0.123	0.152	0.164	0.091	0.257

Note: Maximum value 0.618 is below the 0.85 thresholds

4.3 Descriptive statistics and correlations

In the next step, we calculated the mean, standard deviations, and correlations between all the variables of the study, which are presented in Table 4.9 below. In this step, a full understanding of the basic aspects of the study's primary data was given. It was essential that all relevant variables (including control variables) were listed with (at a minimum) means, and standard deviations, with the total number of unique correlations possible in the study. As in our study, there are 12 variables. Thus, we had 66 correlations (Formula " $K*(K-1)/2$ " where K was the number of variables) to examine in Table 4.9. The pre-specified significance levels (two-tailed, non-directional) for all correlations, commonly set at 0.10, 0.05 or 0.01, are indicated either with a single (*), the double-asterisk (**), or triple asterisk (***), respectively, as was done in Table 4.9.

The first independent variable, HPHRP, had a highly significant correlation with all the dependent variables, i.e., WLI, EWB, and IJT. Furthermore, the second independent variable,

FFWP, had only a significant negative correlation with WLI and IJT. The employees perceive less conflict between work and private life sphere if the organization offers more family-friendly work practices in the organization and in such organizations, employee risk of leaving the organization decreases. Similarly, WLI had a significant relation with all dependent variables, i.e., EWB and IJT, which explains the importance of balance between work and life spheres. The WLI increases the risk of employee turnover and also affects the wellbeing of the employees in the workplace. By looking at the control/categorical variables, it was observed that age of the employee, marital status, and family structure had a significant correlation with work-life interference, as married employees in the banking sector face more work-life interference compared to single employees because the married employee's responsibilities are more than a non-married employee or the existence of children also increases the responsibilities in the life sphere. In such cases, family demands more time and causes interference in the two spheres of life. But the employees living in a joint family system face less work-family interference compared to those who are living singly or living in a nuclear family structure system. The Asian society basically consists of the joint family system. In such a system, married couples live with their parents and siblings in big houses and, thus, family responsibilities are shared among them, which causes less work-life conflict. With the increase in age of the employee, the WLI increases also. In Asian society, age is linked with marital status and the number of children. Most young employees are single with no children and fewer responsibilities at home. With the increase in age, employees marry and have children, resulting in more responsibilities, which demand more time, which causes more interference between the work and life spheres.

Furthermore, the family structure is also significantly correlated with employee wellbeing in the workplace and intention to job turnover. It may be because in a joint family structure, the responsibilities are shared, which creates less stress among employees, and they enjoy work more. The job status of an employee's spouse is significantly correlated with work-life interference, employee wellbeing in the workplace, and intention to job turnover. In a dual family earner system, both partners are working, and as per the theory, it is difficult for them to manage the balance in work and life spheres, which causes more WLI and affects their wellbeing in the workplace. Ultimately, the risk of leaving/switching a job is increased, i.e., from a permanent job to a part-time job. The descriptive statistics show that sex/gender had no significant correlation with any central construct of the study.

Table 4-9 Correlations

	mean	St-Dev	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Gender	NA	NA	1											
Age o	31-35 years	NA	.174***	1										
Marital status	NA	NA	.162***	.592***	1									
Family structure	NA	NA	-.074	-.222***	-.250***	1								
Employment status of spouse	NA	Na	-.259***	.174***	.289***	-.124**	1							
HPhRP	3.12	0.749	.026	-.057	-.123**	.164***	-.095*	1						
FFWP	2.85	0.90	-.030	.037	.068	.070	-.023	-.005	1					
WLI	3.43	0.789	.091	.090*	.231***	-.378***	.129**	-.28***	-.141**	1				
EWB	3.48	0.679	-.099	-.066	-.125**	.240***	-.209***	.356***	.105	-.349***	1			
IJT	3.14	1.00	-.037	-.100	-.025	-.174***	.129**	-.116**	-.156***	.365***	.261***	1		
MS	3.43	0.813	-.052	-.060	-.116**	.174***	-.205***	.438***	.038	-.279***	.513***	-.284***	1	
FFS	3.55	0.637	.071	-.063	-.056	.100	-.115**	.161***	.047	-.116**	.095	-.013	.199***	1

Note: *** p < 0.01 ** p < 0.05 * p < 0.10. HPhRP = Perceived high-performance human resource practices; FFWP = perceived family-friendly work practices; WLI = Work-life interference; EWB = Employee workplace wellbeing; IJT = Intention to job turnover; MS = Perceived manager’s support; FFS = Perceived family & friend support. Gender coded as female = 0, male = 1.

4.4 Inner model (structural model)

When measurement model assessment indicated satisfactory quality, we moved to assess the structural model (testing of our hypothesized model) in stage 2 of the PLS-SEM evaluation process (Fig 4.8).

This stage primarily focused on finding the predictive capabilities of the model, as indicated by the following criteria (Hair Jr. et al., 2016):

- a- Inner collinearity statistics (VIF)
- b- Path coefficients (bootstrapping)
- c- Coefficient of determination (R-square),
- d- The effect size (f-square)
- e- Cross-validated redundancy (Q-square),
- f- Mediator analysis
- g- Moderator analysis

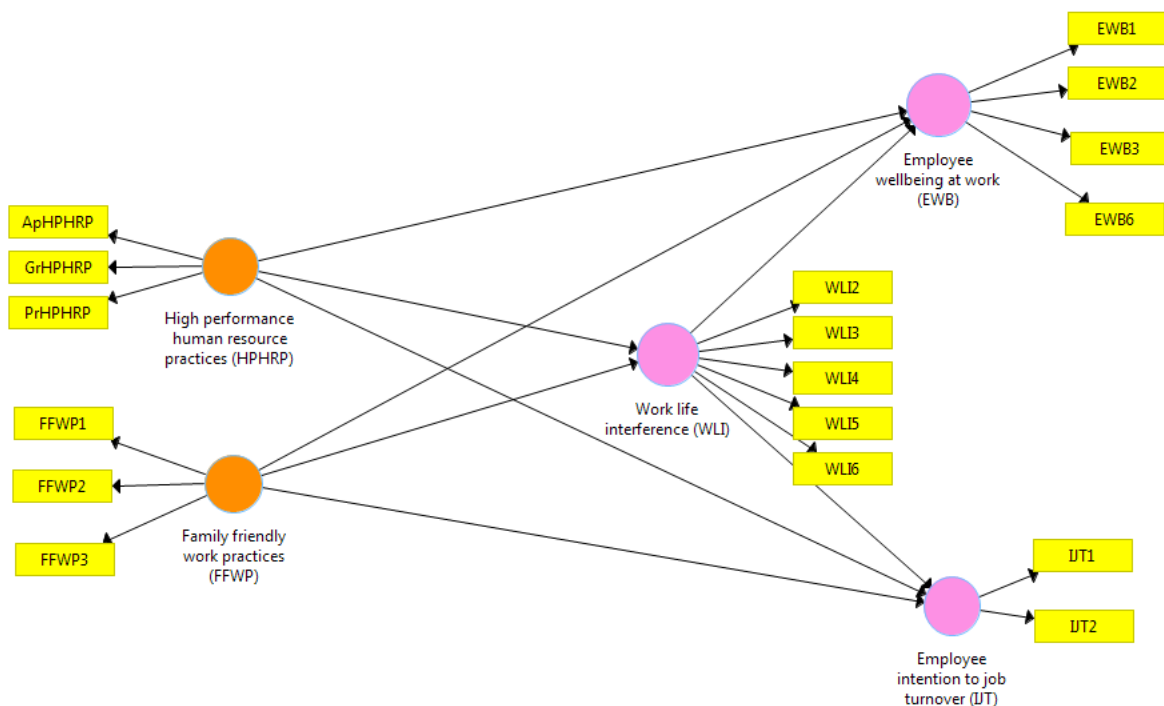


Figure 4-8 Structural model without moderators

4.4.1 Inner collinearity statistics (VIF)

The VIF (variance inflation factor) estimates how much the variance of a regression coefficient is inflated due to multicollinearity (when there's a correlation between independent variables) in the model. High VIF can adversely affect regression results. It was necessary to evaluate the structural model before drawing any conclusions properly; therefore, in the first step, we checked the collinearity VIF (variance inflation factor) as it could be a potential issue in the structural model (Hair Jr. et al., 2016; Wong, 2019).

As a rule of thumb for interpreting VIF

1 = not correlated.

Between 1 and 5 = moderately correlated.

Greater than 5 = highly correlated.

Therefore, we needed to have a variance inflation factor (VIF) value of below 5 to avoid the collinearity issue; exogenous latent variables with low VIF had to be eliminated or merged into one (Wong, 2019). As SmartPLS does not generate the VIF value, we used statistical software IBM SPSS which involved a few steps. In the first step, we generated the latent variable scores in SmartPLS, copied the data into Microsoft Excel, saved it in "CSV (Comma Delimited)" format and opened it in IBM SPSS-20.

In our model, three constructs were dependent variables, i.e., work-life interference (WLI), employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB), and employee intention to job turnover (IJT). So, we had three sets of VIF: 1) Work-life interference (WLI) as a dependent variable and perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP) and perceived family-friendly work practices (FFWP) as independent variables; 2) Employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB) as a dependent variable and perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP), perceived family-friendly work practices (FFWP), and work-life interference (WLI) as independent variables; 3) Employee intention to job turnover (IJT) as a dependent variable and perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP), perceived family-friendly work practices (FFWP), and work-life interference (WLI) as independent variables.

Table 4-10 Results VIF

First Set			Second Set			Third Set		
Constructs	Collinearity issue?		Constructs	Collinearity issue?		Constructs	Collinearity issue?	
	VIF	(VIF > 5?)		VIF	(VIF > 5?)		VIF	(VIF > 5?)
HPHRP	1	No	HPHRP	1.092	No	HPHRP	1.092	No
FFWP	1	No	FFWP	1.022	No	FFWP	1.023	No
			WLI	1.114	No	WLI	1.114	No
WLI as Dependent			EWB as dependent			IJT as dependent		

Note: As our results show in Table 4-10, we found no collinearity among the variables.

4.4.2 Path coefficients

The path coefficient is the degree or extent of influence of one variable upon another and can be expressed in a quantitative term; it is directional (e.g., from X to Y), may be positive or negative, and may be greater or less than unity (Li, 1956). The computation of the path coefficients linking the constructs was based on a series of regression analyses. Two things are very important when assessing PLS-SEM results: the significance and the relevance of coefficients (Hair Jr. et al., 2016). We examined significance through "t-values" and "p-values" via the bootstrapping procedure (at 5000 samples). The path coefficients' strength and significance were evaluated regarding the relationships (structural paths) hypothesized between the constructs.

Table 4-11 Path analysis by SmartPLS (bootstrapping at 5000 sample)

Hi	Latent variable Relation	β	SD	T value	Sig	P Value	Result
H1	WLI -> EWB	-0.257	0.059	4.341	***	0	Supported
H2	WLI -> IJT	0.345	0.052	6.605	***	0	Supported
H3	FFWP -> WLI	-0.143	0.052	2.75	***	0.006	Supported
H4	FFWP -> EWB	0.069	0.059	1.183	NS	0.237	Not supported
H5	FFWP -> IJT	-0.108	0.058	1.848	*	0.065	Borderline of significance
H8	HPhRP -> WLI	-0.287	0.053	5.46	***	0	Supported
H9	HPhRP -> EWB	0.283	0.055	5.151	***	0	Supported
H10	HPhRP -> IJT	-0.017	0.053	0.326	NS	0.744	Not supported

From Table 4-11, it can be seen that in our structural model, all relations in path analysis were significant except the HPhRP path towards the IJT and, similarly, the FFWP relation with EWB, which were insignificant. The reason for the non-significant direct association between FFWP and EWB in the workplace is that these family-friendly programs may directly impact non-work wellbeing, i.e., (improve social life) but not significantly impact wellbeing in the workplace. Similarly, the HPhRP were perceived as good practices (reduce work-life interference), but we perceived that these practices somehow also cause an increase in

workload, which is why its impact on reducing the impact of intention to job turnover is balanced. The impact of FFWP upon IJT was almost but not quite significant.

The path coefficient frequency histogram is shown in Graph-1 to Graph-8 in Annex V.

4.4.3 Coefficient of determination (R-square)

The coefficient of determination denoted R^2 . The next major part of structural model evaluation is the assessment of the coefficient of determination R^2 , which indicates the variance explained in each of the endogenous constructs.

The coefficient of determination is the proportion of the variation in the dependent variable that is predictable from the independent variable(s). It measures the model's predictive accuracy. The R^2 ranges from 0 to 1, with higher levels indicating more predictive accuracy. As a rough rule of thumb, the R^2 values of 0.75, 0.50, and 0.25 can be considered substantial, moderate, and weak (Henseler et al., 2009; Hair et al., 2011). However, it is important to note that, in some research contexts, R^2 values of 0.10 are considered satisfactory (Raithel et al., 2012). We ran the PLS-consistent algorithm in SmartPLS-3.2. The detailed results are mentioned in Table 4-12.

Table 4-12 Results R-square

Endogenous constructs	R Square	
	R Square	Adjusted
WLI	0.159	0.154
EWB	0.316	0.309
IJT	0.212	0.204

4.4.4 Effect size F-square

Effect size f-square assesses the magnitude or strength of the relationship between the latent variable. It assesses how strongly one exogenous construct contributes to explaining a certain endogenous construct in terms of R-square.

$$f\text{-square} = (R^2_{\text{included}} - R^2_{\text{excluded}}) / (1 - R^2_{\text{included}})$$

R^2_{included} and R^2_{excluded} are the R^2 values of the endogenous latent variable when a selected exogenous latent variable is included or excluded from the model.

We ran PLS-consistent Algorithm to generate the results and detailed the results mentioned in Table 4-13.

The change in the R^2 values was calculated by estimating the PLS path model twice:

Rule of thumb

$0.02 \leq F^2 \leq 0.15$: Weak effect

$0.15 \leq F^2 \leq 0.35$: moderate effect

$F^2 \geq 0.35$: strong effect

Table 4-13 Results F-square

Hi	Construct relation	F-square	Effect	Hypothesis result
H1	WLI -> EWB	0.103	Weak effect	Supported
H2	WLI -> IJT	0.191	Moderate effect	Supported
H3	FFWP -> WLI	0.037	Weak effect	Supported
H4	FFWP -> EWB	0.011	No effect	Not supported
H5	FFWP -> IJT	0.020	No effect	Not supported
H8	HPHRP -> WLI	0.154	Moderate effect	Supported
H9	HPHRP -> EWB	0.175	Moderate effect	supported
H10	HPHRP -> IJT	0.000	No effect	Not supported

4.4.5 Blindfolding/cross-validated redundancy (Q-square)

Another means to assess the model's predictive accuracy was the Q^2 value (Geisser, 1974; Stone, 1974). The Q^2 value builds on the blindfolding procedure, which omits single points in the data matrix, imputes the omitted elements, and estimates the model parameters. In SmartPLS 3.2 software, we set an omission distance "D" (rule of thumb: $5 \leq D \leq 10$) (Hair Jr et al., 2016). As a rule of thumb, Q^2 values larger than zero for a particular endogenous construct indicate that the path model's predictive accuracy is acceptable for this particular construct (Hair Jr. et al., 2016).

$$Q\text{-square} = (Q^2_{\text{included}} - Q^2_{\text{excluded}}) / (1 - Q^2_{\text{included}})$$

Rule of thumb for Q^2

$0.02 \leq Q^2 \leq 0.15$: Weak effect

$0.15 \leq Q^2 \leq 0.35$: moderate effect

$Q^2 \geq 0.35$: strong effect

The effect size Q-square allowed assessing each exogenous constructs' predictive relevance for a certain endogenous construct. Detailed results are shown in Table 4-14.

Table 4-14 Results Q-square of latent variables (blindfolding test)

Hi	Construct relation	Q ² Inclusive	Q ² Exclusive	Q ²	Q ² Effect	Hypothesis result
H1	WLI -> EWB	0.098	0.073	0.028	Weak effect	Supported
H2	WLI -> IJT	0.113	0.029	0.095	Weak effect	Supported
H3	FFWP -> WLI	0.057	0.047	0.011	No effect	Not supported
H4	FFWP -> EWB	0.098	0.097	0.001	No effect	Not supported
H5	FFWP -> IJT	0.113	0.104	0.01	No effect	Not supported
H8	HPhRP -> WLI	0.057	0.01	0.05	Weak effect	Supported
H9	HPhRP -> EWB	0.098	0.06	0.042	Weak effect	Supported
H10	HPhRP -> IJT	0.113	0.112	0.001	No effect	Not supported

Note: Q-square values are above zero for all endogenous constructs, providing support for the model's predictive accuracy.

4.5 Mediation

Mediation occurs when a third mediator variable intervenes between two other related constructs. More precisely, a change in the exogenous construct causes a change in the mediator variable, which, in turn, results in a change in the endogenous construct in the PLS path model. To assess the mediation model, we used the mediation analysis technique developed by Hair Jr. et al. (2016) with multiple mediators, as explained in Figure 4.9.

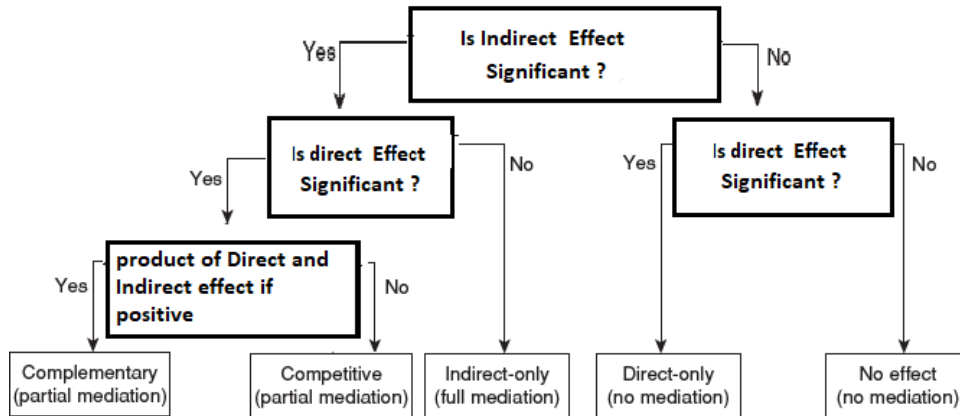


Figure 4-9 Rule of thumb (Hair Jr. et al., 2016)

Direct-only no mediation: The direct effect is significant but not the indirect effect.

No-effect no mediation: Neither the direct nor indirect effects are significant.

Complementary mediation: Both the indirect effect and the direct effect are significant and point in the same direction.

Competitive mediation: The indirect effect and the direct effect both are significant and point in opposite directions.

Indirect-only mediation: The indirect effect is significant but not the direct effect.

Our structural model has four mediations hypotheses.

Table 4-15 Mediation hypothesis

Hi	Mediation hypothesis
H6	FFWP -> WLI -> EWB
H7	FFWP -> WLI -> IJT
H11	HPHRP -> WLI -> EWB
H12	HPHRP -> WLI -> IJT

As a rule of thumb, we checked the indirect effect between FFWP-EWB and FFWP-IJT with WLI as a mediator and, similarly, the indirect effect between HPHRP-EWB and HPHRP-IJT with WLI as a mediator. The results of the first steps are in Table 4-16.

Table 4-16 Results indirect effects

	Indirect effect	T Statistics	P Values	
FFWP -> WLI -> EWB	0.037	2.219	0.027	Significant
FFWP -> WLI -> IJT	-0.049	2.459	0.014	Significant
HPHRP -> WLI -> EWB	0.074	3.127	0.002	Significant
HPHRP -> WLI -> IJT	-0.099	4.277	0.000	Significant

According to the procedure explained by Hair Jr. et al. (2016), in the second step, we estimated all the path coefficients of the direct relation between exogenous and endogenous without mediating variables in the model. The results are shown below in Table 4-17.

Table 4-17 Results direct effects

	Direct effect	T Statistics	P Values	
FFWP -> EWB	0.069	1.179	0.238	Insignificant
FFWP -> IJT	-0.108	1.848	0.062	Insignificant
HPHRP -> EWB	0.283	5.151	0.000	Significant
HPHRP -> IJT	-0.017	0.33	0.742	Insignificant

Finally, the results of mediation in our structural model detailed in Table 4-18, according to the rule of thumb mentioned in Figure 4.8, are as follows:

Table 4-18 Mediation results

Hi	WLI Mediation between	Indirect effect	Significance	Direct effect	Significance	Mediation
H6	FFWP -> EWB	0.037	Significant	0.069	Insignificant	Full Mediation
H7	FFWP -> IJT	-0.049	Significant	-0.108	Insignificant	Full Mediation
H11	HPHRP -> EWB	0.074	Significant	0.283	Significant	Complementary-Partial mediation
H12	HPHRP -> IJT	-0.099	Significant	-0.017	Insignificant	Full Mediation

4.6 Moderation

Moderation occurs when the association between two variables is affected by a third variable, referred to as a moderator (Dawson, 2014). Statistically, the effect of a moderator variable is characterized as an interaction. It can be either a categorical variable (e.g., gender) or a quantitative variable (e.g., perceived manager support or perceived family support). Moderating variable influences the direction and/or strength of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. After estimating and evaluating the main effects in the PLS path model, we added moderators one by one (Fig 4.10 and Fig 4.11) to see how they impacted the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable (Hair et al., 2013).

4.6.1 Moderation of perceived manager support between HPHRP and WLI

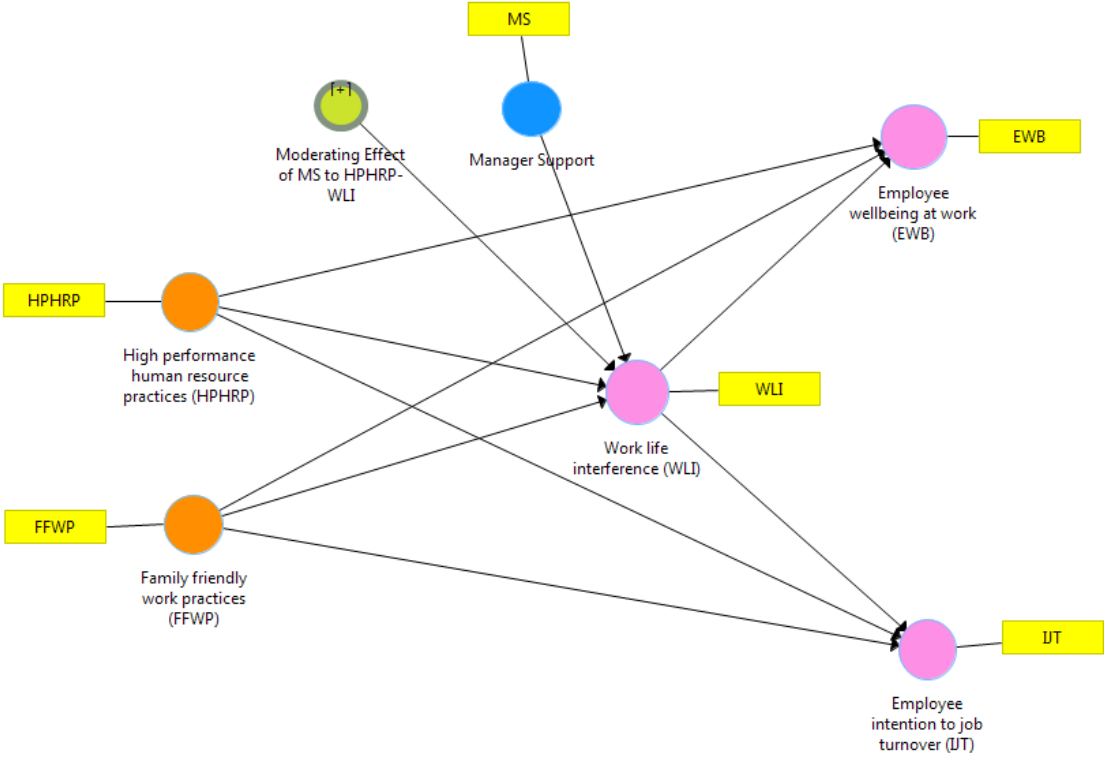


Figure 4-10 Moderation of perceived manager support at work

As in our outer model analysis, we had already checked the validity of our moderating variable "perceived manager's support (MS)"; therefore, we directly checked the moderating effect of MS on the relationship between HPHRP and WLI through a two-stage approach in SmartPLS-3.2.

Table 4-19 Moderation of perceived manager support results

Hi	Latent Variable Relation	Original Sample	T Statistics	P Values	Hypothesis
	HPHRP -> WLI	-0.219	3.641	0.000	
	MS -> WLI	-0.219	3.689	0.000	
H13	Moderating MS -> HPHRP-WLI	-0.170	3.539	0.000	Accepted

The hypothesis sought to ascertain the moderating role of perceived manager support between perceived high-performance human resource practices and employee work-life interference. The results (Table 4-19) revealed that MS moderate the relationship of HPHRP and WLI ($B = -0.170$ $t = 3.539$ $P = .000$). At high MS with a standard deviation +1, the HPHRP strongly reduces the WLI of the employee, as compared to low manager support at -1 SD. Chart 4-1 below also shows a standard deviation of +1 and -1.

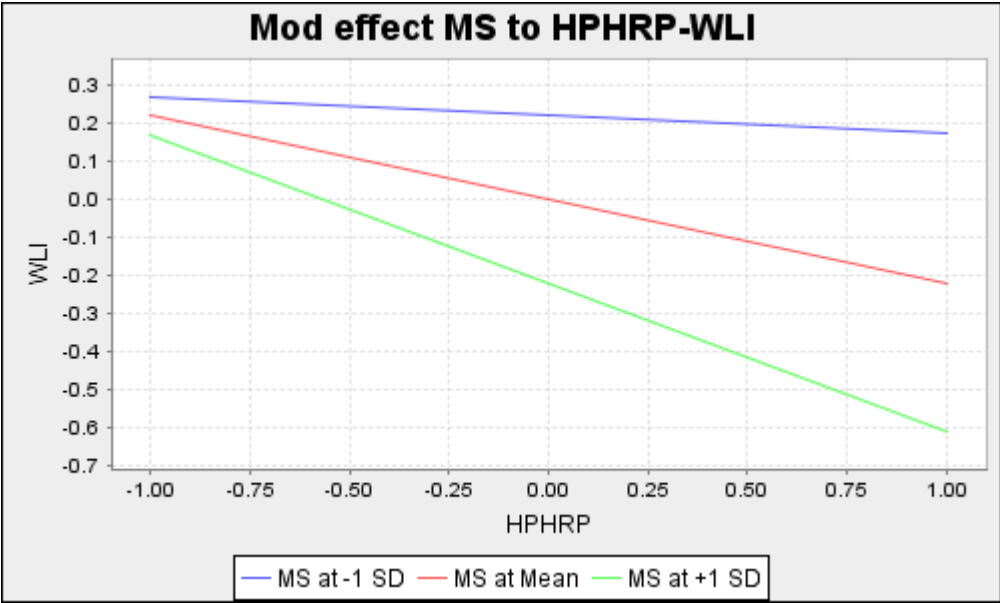


Chart 4-1 Moderation of perceived manager support

4.6.2 Moderation of perceived family and friend support between HPHRP - WLI

We had already checked the validity of the moderating variable while assessing the measurement model; therefore, we directly checked the moderating effect of family and friend support on the relationship between HPHRP and WLI through a two-stage approach in SmartPLS-3.2, as shown in Fig 4.11.

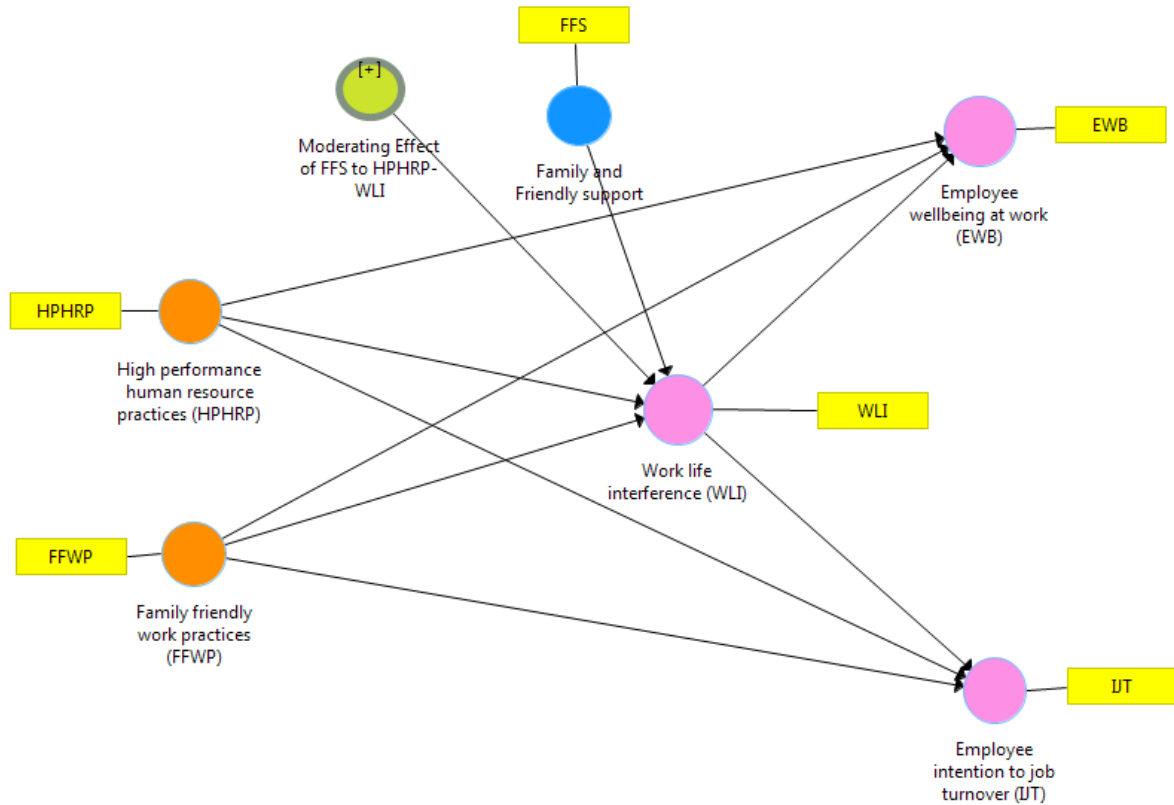


Figure 4-11 Moderation of perceived family and friend support

Table 4-20 Moderation of perceived family and friend support results

Hi	Latent Variable Relation	Original Sample	T Statistics	P Values	Hypothesis
	HPHRP -> WLI	-0.289	5.415	0.000	
	FFS -> WLI	-0.08	1.561	0.119	
H14	Mod of FFS to HPHRP-WLI	-0.143	2.68	0.007	Accepted

The hypothesis sought to ascertain the moderating role of perceived family and friends support between perceived high-performance human resource practices and employee work-life interference. The results in Table 4-20 revealed that FFS significantly moderates the relationship of HPHRP and WLI (B= - 0.143, t= 2.680, P=0.007).

Chart 4-2 below shows a standard deviation of +1 and -1.

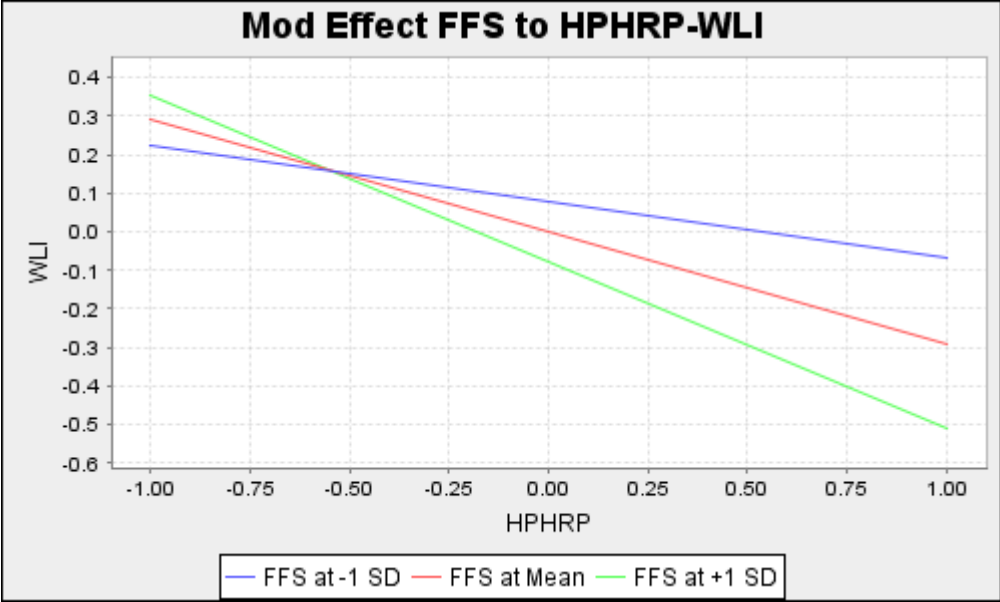


Chart 4-2 Moderation of perceived family and friend support

4.7 Multi-group analysis (MGA)

The multi-group analysis is used to compare path coefficients between two or more groups of data, i.e., gender. In this research, we divided our data into two groups based on genders (male and female) to observe how gender moderated the relationship between constructs in our model. The results of the path coefficient of both groups were analyzed separately. Detailed results are shown in Table 4-21 for male employees and in Table 4-22, along with R-square results in Table-23. The results are also highlighted in Fig 4-12 and Fig 4-13.

Table 4-21 Results path coefficients of male employees

Latent variable relation	Original Sample	Mean	(STDEV)	T Statistics	P Values	Hypothesis
WLI -> EWB	-0.29	-0.294	0.067	4.333	0.000	Significant
WLI -> IJT	0.361	0.366	0.059	6.166	0.000	Significant
FFWP -> WLI	-0.1	-0.108	0.06	1.688	0.091	Insignificant
FFWP -> EWB	0.078	0.081	0.067	1.155	0.248	Insignificant
FFWP -> IJT	-0.021	-0.021	0.073	0.294	0.769	Insignificant
HPHRP -> WLI	-0.362	-0.365	0.056	6.497	0.000	Significant
HPHRP -> EWB	0.243	0.247	0.063	3.832	0.000	Significant
HPHRP -> IJT	-0.001	-0.002	0.065	0.012	0.990	Insignificant

Table 4-22 Results path coefficients of female employees

Latent variable relation	Original Sample	Mean	(STDEV)	T Statistics	P Values	Hypothesis
WLI -> EWB	-0.01	0.033	0.219	0.044	0.965	Insignificant
WLI -> IJT	0.38	0.375	0.131	2.844	0.004	Significant
FFWP -> WLI	-0.298	-0.333	0.122	2.449	0.014	Significant
FFWP -> EWB	0.003	0.018	0.205	0.013	0.989	Insignificant
FFWP -> IJT	-0.564	-0.559	0.082	6.835	0.000	Significant
HPHRP -> WLI	0.156	0.131	0.248	0.629	0.529	Insignificant
HPHRP -> EWB	0.392	0.443	0.218	1.796	0.073	Insignificant
HPHRP -> IJT	-0.208	-0.198	0.113	1.845	0.065	Insignificant

Table 4-23 Results R-square (male/female)

	Male		Female	
	R Square	R Square Adjusted	R Square	R Square Adjusted
EWB	0.319	0.312	0.307	0.267
IJT	0.198	0.189	0.826	0.816
WLI	0.232	0.226	0.257	0.229

Note: As a rough rule of thumb, the R^2 values of 0.75, 0.50, and 0.25 can be considered substantial, moderate, and weak (Henseler et al., 2009; Hair et al., 2011). R^2 values of 0.10 are considered satisfactory (Raithel et al., 2012)

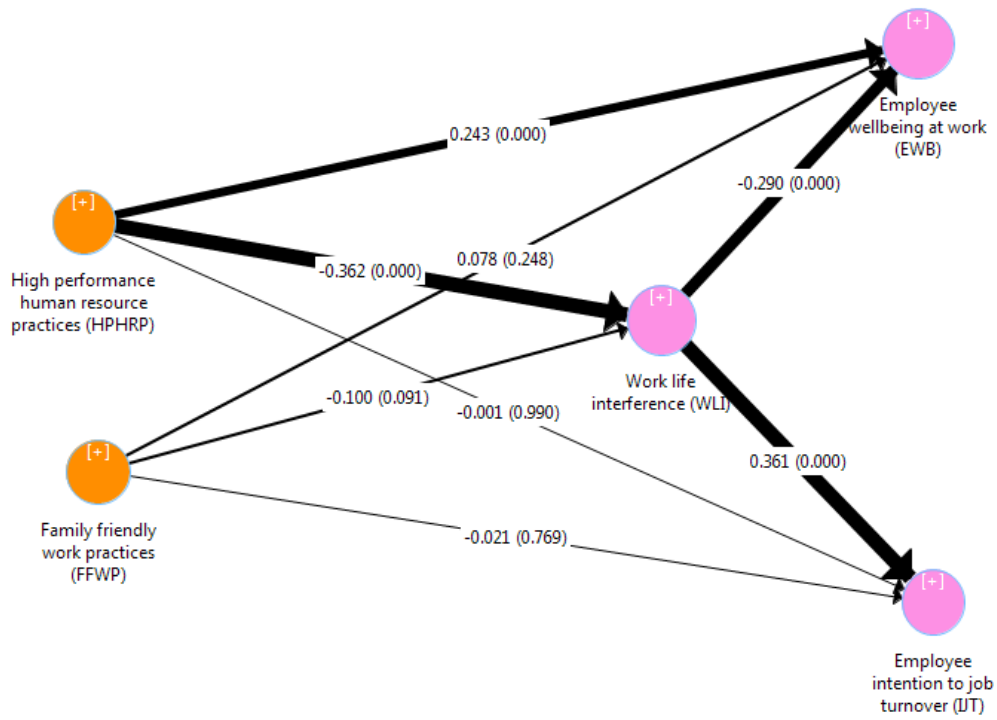


Figure 4-12 Significant path of male employee model

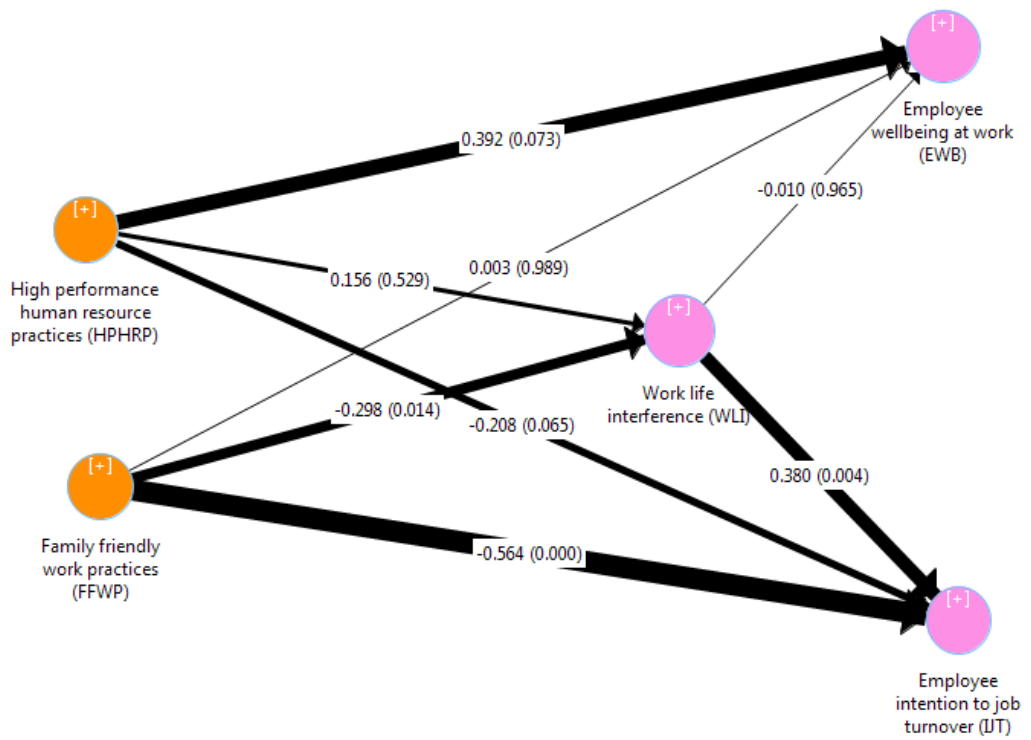


Figure 4-13 Significant path of female employee model

4.8 Hypotheses results

Work-life interference and employee wellbeing in the workplace (hypothesis-1)

Table 4-11 shows that in WLI-EWB path analysis, the value of coefficient ($\beta = -0.257, 0.000$) is significant ($p < 0.01$), which indicates that there is a significant negative effect of employee work-life interference (WLI) on employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB). Hypothesis -1 is therefore accepted.

In multi-group path analysis (Table 4-21), we found that for male employees, the value of coefficient ($\beta = -0.29, 0.000$) is significant ($p < 0.01$), which shows that there is a significant negative effect of employee work-life interference (WLI) on employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB).

Similarly, in multi-group path analysis (Table 4-22), for female employees, the value of coefficient ($\beta = -0.01, 0.965$) shows that there is a negative but insignificant effect of employee work-life interference (WLI) on employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB).

Work-life interference and employee intention to job turnover (hypothesis-2)

Table 4-11 shows that in WLI-IJT path analysis, the value of coefficient ($\beta = 0.345, 0.000$) is significant ($p < 0.01$), which shows that there is a significant positive effect of employee work-life interference (WLI) on employee intention to job turnover (IJT). Hypothesis-2 is therefore accepted.

In multi-group path analysis (Table 4-21), we found that for male employees, the value of coefficient ($\beta = 0.361, 0.000$) is significant ($p < 0.01$), which shows that there is a significant positive effect of employee work-life interference (WLI) on employee intention to job turnover (IJT).

Similarly, in multi-group path analysis (Table 4-22) for female employees, the value of coefficient ($\beta = 0.38, 0.004$) is significant ($p < 0.01$), which shows that there is a positive and significant effect of work-life interference (WLI) on employee intention to job turnover (IJT).

Family-friendly work practices and work-life interference (hypothesis-3)

Table 4-11 shows that in FFWP -WLI path analysis, the value of coefficient ($\beta = -0.143, 0.006$) is significant ($p < 0.01$), which shows that there is a significant negative effect of family-friendly work practices (FFWP) on employee work-life interference (WLI). Hypothesis-3 is therefore accepted.

In multi-group path analysis (Table 4-21), we found that for male employees the value of coefficient ($\beta = -0.100, 0.091$) shows a slight tendency toward significance ($p < 0.1$), which shows that there is an insignificant negative effect of family-friendly work practices (FFWP) on employee work-life interference (WLI).

Similarly, in multi-group path analysis (Table 4-22) for female employees, the value of coefficient ($\beta = -0.298, 0.014$) is significant ($p < 0.05$), which shows that there is a significant negative effect of family-friendly work practices (FFWP) on employee work-life interference (WLI).

Family-friendly work practices and employee wellbeing in the workplace (hypothesis-4)

Table 4-11 shows that in FFWP -EWB path analysis, the value of coefficient ($\beta = 0.069, 0.237$) shows that there is a positive but insignificant effect of perceived family-friendly work practices (FFWP) on employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB). Hypothesis-4 is therefore rejected.

Similarly, in multi-group path analysis (Table 4-21), we found that for male employees, the value of coefficient ($\beta = 0.078, 0.248$) shows that there is an insignificant positive effect of perceived family-friendly work practices (FFWP) on employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB).

In multi-group path analysis (Table 4-22) for female employees, the value of coefficient ($\beta = 0.003, 0.989$) shows that there is an insignificant but positive effect of perceived family-friendly work practices (FFWP) on employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB).

Family-friendly work practices and employee intention to job turnover (hypothesis-5)

Table 4-11 shows that in FFWP -IJT path analysis, the value of coefficient ($\beta = -0.108, 0.065$) shows that there is a negative and a margin at the edge of significant effect of perceived family-

friendly work practices (FFWP) on employee intention to job turnover (IJT). The F^2 value of FFWP impact on IJT is 0.02, which confirms that hypothesis-5 is rejected.

Similarly, in multi-group path analysis (Table 4-21), we found that for male employees, the value of coefficient ($\beta = -0.021, 0.769$) shows that there is an insignificant negative effect of perceived family-friendly work practices (FFWP) on employee intention to job turnover (IJT).

Similarly, in multi-group path analysis (Table 4-22) for female employees, the value of coefficient ($\beta = -0.564, 0.000$) is highly significant ($p < 0.01$), which shows that there is a significant and negative effect of perceived family-friendly work practices (FFWP) on employee intention to job turnover (IJT) for female employees.

Mediation of work-life interference between family-friendly work practices and employee wellbeing in the workplace (hypothesis-6)

According to Hair Jr. et al. (2016), the rule of thumb mentioned in Figure 4-9, if there is an only indirect significant relationship and no significant direct relation between exogenous and endogenous variables, then there will be a full mediation effect. Table 4-17 shows that FFWP - EWB direct relation ($\beta = -0.069, 0.238$) is insignificant but in indirect relation Table 4-16 ($\beta = -0.037, 0.027$) is significant, thus work-life interference is fully mediating between the FFWP-EWB (results Table 4-18). Therefore, hypothesis-6 is accepted.

Mediation of work-life interference between family-friendly work practices and intention to job turnover (hypothesis-7)

Table 4-18 shows that WLI is a full mediating effect between FFWP and IJT. Table 4-17 shows that FFWP - IJT direct relation ($\beta = -0.108, 0.062$) is insignificant but the indirect relation in Table 4-16 ($\beta = -0.049, 0.014$) is significant, thus work-life interference is fully mediating between the FFWP- IJT (results Table 4-18). Therefore, it can be said that perceived family-friendly work practices (FFWP) effect on employee intention to job turnover (IJT) can be explained significantly via the work-life interference (WLI). Therefore, hypothesis-7 is accepted.

Perceived high-performance human resource practices and work-life interference (hypothesis-8)

Table 4-11 shows that in HPHRP -WLI path analysis, the value of coefficient ($\beta = -0.287, 0.000$) is significant ($p < 0.01$), which shows that there is a highly significant negative effect of perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP) on employee work-life interference (WLI). Hypothesis-8 is therefore accepted.

In multi-group path analysis (Table 4-21), we found that for male employees, the value of coefficient ($\beta = -0.362, 0.000$) is significant ($p < 0.01$), which shows that there is a significant negative effect of perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP) on employee work-life interference (WLI).

Similarly, in multi-group path analysis (Table 4-22), for female employees, the value of coefficient ($\beta = 0.156, 0.529$) shows that there is a positive but insignificant effect of perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP) on employee work-life interference (WLI). The direction of correlation is also positive. The results explained that females have dual responsibilities, and high-performance human resource practices increase their job demand; therefore, female employees perceive these practices as one reason for an increase in work-life interference. Although the effect is insignificant, the positive direction of correlation opens the door for further research.

Perceived high-performance human resource practices and employee wellbeing in the workplace (hypothesis-9)

Table 4-11 shows that in HPHRP -EWB path analysis, the value of coefficient ($\beta = 0.283, 0.000$) is significant ($p < 0.01$), which shows that there is a significant positive effect of perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP) on employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB). Hypothesis-9 is therefore accepted.

In multi-group path analysis (Table 4-21), we found that for male employees, the value of coefficient ($\beta = 0.243, 0.000$) is significant ($p < 0.01$), which shows that there is a significant positive effect of perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP) on employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB).

Similarly, in multi-group path analysis (Table 4-22) for female employees, the value of coefficient ($\beta = 0.392, 0.073$) a trend close to significance ($p < 0.1$), which shows that there is an insignificant but positive effect of perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP) on employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB).

Perceived high-performance human resource practices and employee intention to job turnover (hypothesis-10)

Table 4-11 shows that in HPHRP -IJT path analysis, the value of coefficient ($\beta = -0.017, 0.744$) shows that there is a negative but insignificant effect of perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP) on employee intention to job turnover (IJT). Hypothesis-10 is therefore rejected.

In multi-group path analysis (Table 4-21), we found that, for male employees, the value of coefficient ($\beta = -0.001, 0.990$) shows that there is an insignificant negative effect of perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP) on employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB).

Similarly, in multi-group path analysis (Table 4-22) for female employees, the value of coefficient ($\beta = -0.208, 0.065$) a trend close to significance ($p < 0.1$), which shows that there is an insignificant and negative effect of perceived high-performance human resource practices (HPHRP) on employee intention to job turnover (IJT).

Mediation of work-life interference between perceived high-performance human resource practices and employee wellbeing in the workplace (hypothesis-11)

Table 4-18 shows that WLI is complementary-partially mediating between HPHRP and EWB. Both direct and indirect effects are significant at ($P < 0.01$) between HPHRP and EWB. Therefore, it can be said that perceived high-performance human resources practices (HPHRP) effect on employee wellbeing in the workplace (EWB) can be explained significantly ($P < 0.01$) via employee work-life interference (WLI). Therefore, hypothesis-11 is accepted.

Mediation of work-life interference between perceived high-performance human resource practices and intention to job turnover (hypothesis-12)

According to Hair Jr, et al. (2016), the rule of thumb mentioned in Figure 4-8, if there is only a significant indirect relationship and no significant direct relation between exogenous and endogenous variables, then there will be a full mediation effect. Table 4-17 shows that HPHRP - IJT direct relation ($\beta = -0.017, 0.742$) is insignificant but the indirect relation in Table 4-16 ($\beta = -0.09, 0.00$) is significant. Thus work-life interference is fully mediating between the HPHRP-IJT. Therefore, hypothesis-12 is accepted.

Moderation of perceived manager support between perceived high-performance human resource practices and work-life interference (hypothesis-13)

The hypothesis sought to ascertain the moderating role of perceived manager support between perceived high-performance human resource practices and work-life interference. The results (Table 4-19) revealed that MS moderates the relationship of HPHRP and WLI ($B = -0.170, t = 3.53, P = .000$). At high MS with a standard deviation +1, the HPHRP strongly reduces the WLI of the employee as compared to low manager support at -1 SD (Chart 4-1). Thus, hypothesis-13 is accepted.

Moderation of family and friend support between perceived high-performance human resource practices and work-life interference (hypothesis-14)

The hypothesis sought to ascertain the moderating role of perceived family and friend support between perceived high-performance human resource practices and employee work-life interference (Figure 4-11). The results (Table 4-20) revealed that FFS moderates the relationship of HPHRP and WLI ($B = -0.143, t = 2.680, P = 0.007$). At high FFS with a standard deviation of +1, the HPHRP strongly reduce the WLI of the employee, as compared to low family and friend support at -1 SD (Chart 4-2). Therefore, hypothesis-14 is accepted.

4.9 Summary of the results

The summary of key results is shown below.

Table 4-24 Summary of results

No	Hypothesis	Confirmed or rejected
1	Work-life interference negatively relates to employee wellbeing in the workplace.	Confirmed
2	Work-life interference positively relates to employee intention to job turnover.	Confirmed
3	Perceived family-friendly work practices negatively relate to work-life interference.	Confirmed
4	Perceived family-friendly work practices positively relate to employee wellbeing in the workplace.	Rejected
5	Family-friendly work practices negatively relate to employee intention to job turnover.	Rejected
6	Work-life interference mediates the relationship between family-friendly work practices and employee wellbeing in the workplace.	Confirmed
7	Work-life interference mediates the relationship between family-friendly work practices and employee intention to job turnover.	Confirmed
8	Perceived high-performance human resource practices negatively relate to employee work-life interference.	Confirmed
9	Perceived high-performance human resource practices positively relate to employee wellbeing in the workplace.	Confirmed
10	Perceived high-performance human resource practices negatively relate to employee intention to job turnover.	Rejected
11	Work-life interference mediates the relationship between perceived high-performance human resources and employee wellbeing in the workplace.	Confirmed
12	Work-life interference mediates the relationship between perceived high-performance human resources and employee intention to job turnover.	Confirmed
13	Perceived manager support moderates the relationship between perceived high-performance human resources and work-life interference.	Confirmed
14	Perceived family and friend support moderates the relationship between perceived high-performance human resources and work-life interference.	Confirmed

CHAPTER 5

CHAPTER 5: GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Introduction

The aim of this research was to open the black box of human resource practices with the question of the what and why behind every action of employees that affects their work-life balance, wellbeing, and motivation to work and to continue their careers with the current organization. We also examined the relationships of various variables in the context of work-life interference via path analysis, a part of structural equation modeling, to examine how these relationships exist if employees perceive work-life interference and how employees achieve healthy work-life balance. The findings are explained in light of the objectives set for the current examination.

We found the following key results in our study:

- 1- Perceived high-performance human resource practices reduce work-life interference in employees.
Male employees are major beneficiaries of HPHRP compared to female employees (the relationship is positive but insignificant for females)
- 2- Perceived high-performance human resource practices increase employee wellbeing in the workplace but have no impact on employee intention to job turnover.
- 3- WLI partially mediates the relationship between HPHRP to EWB and fully mediates the relationship between HPHRP to IJT.
- 4- Perceived family-friendly work practices have a negative but insignificant relationship with work-life interference. For female employees, we see a highly positive impact of FFWP on work-life balance.
- 5- The absence of family-friendly work practices causes no impact on the intention to job turnover.
For the male employee, the absence of FFWP has an insignificant impact on IJT, but the same practices cause a highly significant increase in intention to job turnover for female employees.

- 6- Work-life interference mediates the relationship between FFWP to EWB and FFWP to IJT.
- 7- Work-life interference mediates the relationship between HPHRP to EWB and HPHRP to IJT.
- 8- Perceived managerial support and support received from family and friends moderate the relationship between HPHRP to WLI.

The key results reflect the importance of work-life balance, as the outcome of our study reveals that conflicts between work and life spheres have a significant effect on the wellbeing of employees in the workplace and ultimately end in employee turnover. We also get a reasonable response to the question raised in our theory: why do not all organizations implement family-friendly work practices in their organizations.

We have divided this chapter into six parts, as indicated in Figure 5.1

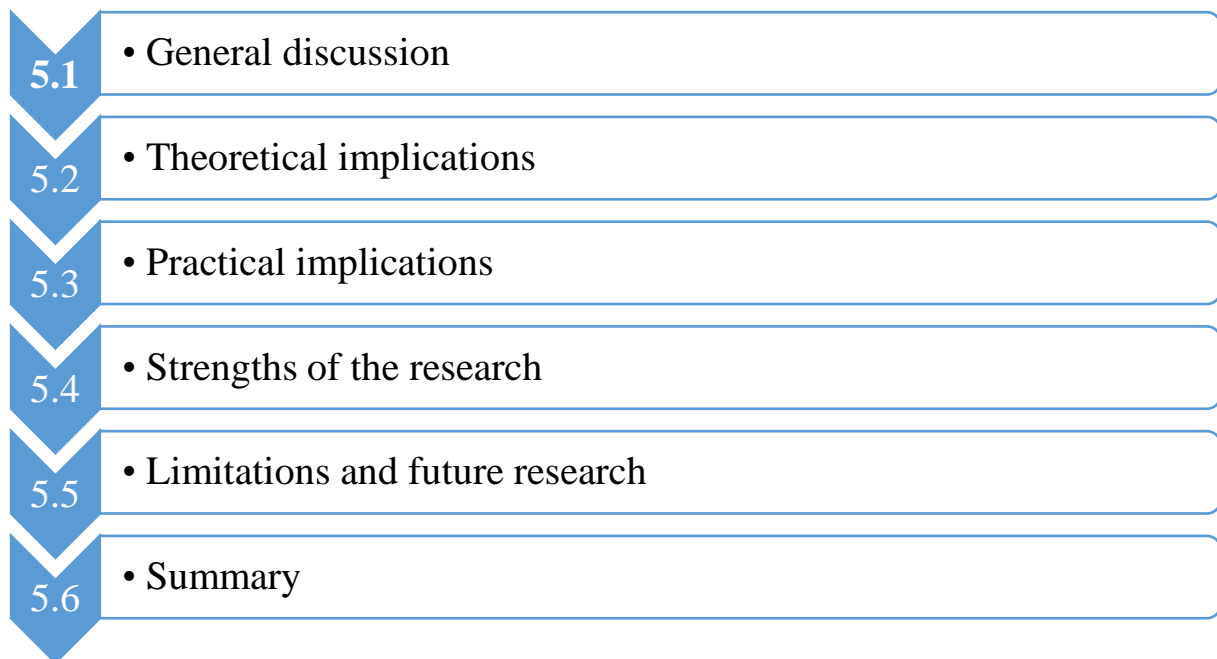


Figure 5-1 Chapter 5 outlines

5.1 General discussion

The focal point of our study is whether high-performance human resource practices and family-friendly work practices impact employees who are already overburdened in their lives due to social structure and culture? How do family-friendly work practices help employees balance their lives? Our study is an effort to examine the following

1- HPHRP further overburdened employees and forced them to work for longer hours. When organizations set high targets and link the goals with benefits, then this puts pressure on employees to work hard and work for long hours to achieve maximum benefits, i.e., salary/commission. This unintentionally may cause an imbalance in different spheres of life.

2- HPHRP work as good practices to enhance the wellbeing of employees in the workplace. High-performance human resource practices are designed with the aim of achieving maximum performance from employees. Once employees give their maximum output, then, in return, they receive some benefits, which ultimately leads to happiness and increases their commitment to the organization.

3- Similarly, if organizations do not implement FFWP (i.e., earned leaves, compressed week, flexible times, etc.) in their workplaces, then either they are trying to save money or unintentionally, they lose their good employees by encouraging job turnover.

4- Do these practices (FFWP) help employees balance work and other spheres in their lives? How do such practices (FFWP) affect male and female employees in Indo-Asian cultures where female employees are still confined to the kitchen, overburdened with household chores, and expected to focus on raising children while on the other side, males are considered the main breadwinners in the society? How do FFWP work in a society where cruel workplace culture and lack of facilities put the final nail in the coffin of a woman's career? Due to the lack of such programs, one wonders how many women prefer not to work after receiving a hard-earned educational degree? Similarly, many people believe a working woman cannot become a perfect homemaker, as she spends time outside and compromises her personal life while pursuing a career. This dilemma creates a distraction in society and causes stress in dual-earner families, ultimately affecting the wellbeing of both the family partners and also exerting pressure on the female partners to sacrifice their careers and leave the labor market.

5-Our study is an effort to answer whether perceived family-friendly work practices are considered a luxury or necessity in the Indo-Asian culture. If we perceive these practices as a necessity, then the question is, do not all organizations implement such practices? Thus, our research began with this central question raised by Bloom et al. (2011): If the output of family-friendly work programs (FFWP) is so beneficial for employers as well as for employees and if FFWP have a significant impact on productivity, then why do not all organizations offer such programs to their employees?

6-How does perceive support from managers at work and perceived family support at home moderate the outcome of work-life interference?

Work-life interference impacts employee wellbeing in the workplace and intention to job turnover.

A healthy work-life balance (WLB) has been considered a challenge for businesses. The imbalance in different spheres of life leads to the employee's bad-being (Haar et al., 2014) and a high turnover (Fitria & Linda, 2019). Work-life interference is a common and cruel reality of our society, which hampers the performance of the employee and accrues health-related costs (Danna & Griffin, 1999).

The outcome of the study shows that employees working in the banking sector in Pakistan who suffered due to work-life interference and perceived poor work-life balance also perceived poor wellbeing in the workplace; they were less satisfied with their workplace environment, neither enjoying work nor feeling satisfied with their achievements at work. Employees perceive work-life interference has bad consequences on employee wellbeing in the workplace as the stress levels go up. Employees make more sacrifices in their lives due to high job demands, and ultimately their satisfaction level with their job goes down. The results of our study are consistent with Chapman et al.'s (1994) results that showed that work-family conflicts and role strain causes psychological symptoms, such as stress. Similar results were found in the study by Grzywacz et al. (2006) that a lack of balance between an employee's work and personal life is frequently linked to lower psychological and physical wellbeing,

For female employees, we saw that WLI does not impact wellbeing in the workplace, which is not the case for male employees, suggesting that potential mediators should be examined in the indirect relationship. Similar results were also revealed in a study by Barnett and Baruch (1985) that found that, among employed women, the correlation between role conflict and anxiety was essentially zero and thus had no correlation with wellbeing. The results are puzzling in the case of female employees, as role overload does not impact wellbeing in the workplace. We may link these results with Greenhaus and Powell's (2006) study that found that work and family are not always in conflict; sometimes, skills developed by multitasking help employees to perform other tasks well and can have an added impact on employee wellbeing. The results of our study of female employees open the door for researchers to further extend the study on working women in different cultures.

Our study revealed that in the situation of more work-life interference, employees intended to search for a new job. Unhappiness and negative health consequences of WLI force employees to reconsider their decision to stay on the job, and thus they are continuously thinking about searching for a better workplace. The result of WLI with employee intention to job turnover is consistent with previous studies (Allen et al., 2000; Greenhaus et al., 2001). In the literature, a study by Carlson et al. (2009) did not reveal a significant relationship between work-life balance and turnover intentions. However, the researcher in the discussion section declared the insignificant results between work-family balance and turnover intentions as puzzling.

Perceived high-performance human resource practices impact work-life interference and employee outcomes.

Perceived high-performance human resource practices have received a great deal of research attention. Different schools of thought provide different outcomes, some arguing that HPHRP enhances employee and business outcomes (Carvalho & Chambel, 2014) and reduce employee intention to quit the job (Jensen et al., 2013), while others demonstrate that HPHRP may lead to more stress amongst employees because of work intensification (White et al., 2003).

According to our study, perceived high-performance human resource practices have a significant and positive impact on employee wellbeing in the workplace and help to reduce work-life interference. The results are consistent with the previous study of Carvalho and Chambel (2016a), who showed that perceived high-performance human resource practices were

negatively related to work-family conflict. In female employees, we did not see this impact in our results. The reason may be that women in our culture (South Asia) are already overburdened due to responsibilities in the home. In such cases, if organizations link financial benefits to performance, then it makes the women's jobs harder, more demanding, and requires more time and effort, which ultimately reduces the positive outcome of perceived high-performance human resource practices on work-life balance and wellbeing. The results of this study are similar to White et al. (2003), i.e., that women have negative spillover if they participate in a group incentive scheme, work improvement group, and if their co-workers influence their work effort. Contrary to females, male employees are major beneficiaries of high-performance human resource practices because, in Indo-Pak culture, men are always considered the breadwinners, and for them, it becomes a motivational force if financial benefits are linked with performance. As men's ultimate goal is earning for their families (breadwinner role), they perceive these practices as good, resulting in more wellbeing in the workplace.

Furthermore, results shows that there is no direct impact of perceived high-performance human resource practices on employee intention to job turnover. These results are inconsistent with past single-level research findings by Huselid (1995), Jensen et al. (2013), and Sarikwal and Gupta (2013), who found that high-performance work practices with more job control reduce employee intention to job turnover. The result are aligned with the study by Wei (2015), which established cross-level non-correlation of high-performance HR practices and turnover intention. In that study, it was suggested that potential mediators of the indirect relationship should be examined.

In our model, we checked the mediating effect of work-life interference and found full mediation in our results. We considered employee attitudes that drive intention to job turnover, and the relationship between HPHRP and turnover intentions are likely to be affected by work-life interference as mediators. Our study results were consistent with Fabi et al. (2015) findings that HPHRP have no significant relation to the intention to quit and are exerted only indirectly, that is, through direct influence upon work-life interference. These results allowed us to better understand the mediating role of work-life interference between HPHRP and intention to job turnover.

Perceived family-friendly work practices impact on work-life interference and employee outcomes.

Work-home interference affects employee wellbeing (Van Der Heijden et al., 2008). *The current study depicted that family-friendly work practices do not have a direct impact on employee wellbeing in the workplace, but indirectly, through work-life interference, it increases wellbeing amongst employees.* Our study results are consistent with the results of Van Der Heijden et al. (2008).

In terms of intention to job turnover relationship with family-friendly work practices, we found an insignificant but negative impact. The findings that perceived family-friendly work practices are insignificant but negative predictors of turnover intention have also been reported by Haar (2004). Bloom et al. (2009) come to a very strong conclusion that family-friendly work practices have no direct and indirect impact on the profitability of the organizations and that the organizations only implement these programs as corporate social responsibility. Our study suggests that although perceived family-friendly work practices have no direct impact on employee wellbeing in the workplace and intention to job turnover, these practices are helpful to reduce work-life interference and then, indirectly, to reduce stress amongst employees and enhance their affective commitment with the organization.

Results of our study reveal that female employees in the banking sector in Pakistan are directly influenced by the absence of family-friendly work practices. We observed a highly significant and negative impact of perceived family-friendly work practices on their (female employees) intention to job turnover. In our multi-group analysis, we found that offering few family-friendly work practices causes more intention to job turnover in female employees, but, on the other side, in male employees, the relationship is weak. It may be because our results discussed above in detail give a view that perceived high-performance human resource practices work as remedies to reduce work-life interference amongst male employees; therefore, even in the absence of family-friendly work practices, they do not consider quitting their jobs (Haar, 2004). However, in the case of female employees, we found that perceived high-performance human resource practices have a positive relationship with work-life interference (although the relationship is not significant); therefore, we observed a direct relationship between perceived family-friendly work practices and intention to job turnover only in female employees. Similar results were also reported in a study by Malik and Khalid (2008) that showed that women desire a reduction in work hours more than men because of dual responsibilities at work as well as at home. Thus, offering fewer family-friendly work practices causes more intention to job turnover among female employees. In male employees, the relationship is weak, as perceived

high-performance human resource practices work to reduce work-life interference amongst them.

Perceived support from home and at work.

Organizations operate in diverse cultural contexts which shape their policies and practices (Den Dulk et al., 2013). There is a joint family structure in Pakistan. On the one side, living in a joint family system, working women become more overburdened as they are expected to take care of the whole family along with their office assignments. But if within that same joint family system they receive support from family, i.e., help with childcare from grandparents, then women are better able to manage the balance in their work and life spheres. We link this further with female retention to the job. The study supports that the presence of females in the workplace increases in developing countries like Pakistan if they get support from their family and friends, as it is linked with WLI and ultimately with IJT. Similarly, manager support also has a moderating impact on employees in balancing their work and life sphere. According to Greenhaus and Powell (2006), resources gained at work or non-workplaces ultimately promote a positive work-life balance. Our study supports the view that an unsupportive organizational culture might undermine the effects of good management practice, i.e., HPHRP, on work-related attitudes and work-life interference. The results of our study are consistent with previous research by Carvalho and Chambel (2014), who found a positive relationship between high-performance human resource practices and supervisor support in the workplace and also found a positive relationship between supervisor support and positive work-life enrichment.

Our study results suggest that organizations should invest more in FFWP to support working women, as they are increasingly confronting the challenges of the work-life interface. The dual responsibilities of work and home can make them feel overburdened, and the situation becomes harder when they are in competition with male employees in the workplace. In such a situation, HR practices which link the economic output with performance, i.e., HPHRP, increase stress among them and cause more work-life interference. Therefore, work-life practices have a stronger impact on their careers as compared to male employees. Men are considered the breadwinners and have less involvement in household responsibilities in South Asian culture (Sarwar & Abbasi, 2013), which causes less work-family conflict and less stress in their lives. As a result of this inequality, due to home responsibilities, men have more time to perform their roles at work compared to working women. That is why balancing work and

family is often more difficult for working women compared to male employees. This is the reason that initiatives like FFWP are introduced to keep them (females) in the labor force (Rehman & Roomi, 2012).

Why are all organizations not implementing FFWP?

The focal question raised in our study is why are not all organizations implementing family-friendly work practices for their employees? (Bloom et al., 2011). One view is the literature suggests that organizations with more female workers in proportion to males are likely to adopt more FFWP. The research of Konrad and Managel (2000), Perry-Smith and Blum (2000), and Osterman (1995), support this hypothesis, but Ingram and Simons's (1995) and Bloom et al. (2009) results refute this.

Our study provides the logic behind this phenomenon that because HPHRP work as job resources for male employees but creates high job demands for female employees, organizations with more female workers offer more FFWP to counter the high job demand impact of HPHRP. The results of our research are in line with White et al. (2003) that employees do not always benefit from HPHRP. Similarly, our research shows that females are not the beneficiaries of HPHRP. Female employees, in particular, may be less willing to take demanding jobs because they still have the responsibility of home carers.

The answer could be that high-performance human resource practices work as an alternative to FFWP for male employees, but females need these programs (FFWP) to balance their work and life. Therefore, in organizations and societies where the dominant labor force is male, the policymakers implement and are more focused on HPHRP than FFWP, which are less present in such organizations. Even the absence of FFWP does not directly impact male employee wellbeing in the workplace and intention to job turnover because they have the alternative of HPHRP. This is not the case for female employees, as they (working women) suffer due to the absence of FFWP and look for jobs if work-life initiatives are not available in the organization. These results of our study provide one explanation for why organizations with male-dominant employees are not more interested in offering FFWP to their employees.

Why do only a fraction of employees actually use FFWP if it's available to them?

Although family-friendly work practices have positive consequences through direct impact, i.e., reducing work-life interference and indirectly impacting wellbeing and intention to job turnover (as reported in our results), only a fraction of employees actually use family-friendly work practices. In fact, some employees may have access to FFWP and choose not to use them (Bourdeau et al., 2019; Ollier-Malaterre & Andrade, 2016). Our results suggest that one reason for this may be that other HR practices, i.e., HPHRP, have a positive spillover effect and help employees to cope with work-life interference problems. Hence, they do not use FFWP even if they have access to such programs.

5.2 Theoretical implications

Our study has made some significant contributions to the existing available literature. The first contribution of the study is that it empirically tested the components of the model in a collectivist and joint family system where work affects the whole family, which laid the foundations for the differentiating hypotheses suggested later in the study. According to Kossek and Ollier-Malaterre (2013), more detailed research across different cultures is needed, despite the growth in work-family policies.

In the following, we discuss the key theoretical implications of the present study.

High-performance human resource practices vs. family-friendly work practices.

This study is among the first studies in which high-performance human resource practices are examined separately from family-friendly work practices with an effort made to open the black box. Our results support our viewpoint that FFWP should be studied separately from other high-performance human resource management practices. The overlapping impact of HPHRP and FFWP makes the results puzzling. HPHRP, on the one hand, tends to improve employee performance, but, on the other hand, these practices cause high job demands for employees. In contrast, FFWP help to reduce the workload of employees and increase the productivity of the firm; that is why organizations introduce such programs (Konrad & Managel, 2000; Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000). Therefore, we separately studied the impact of these practices (HPHRP and FFWP) on work-life interference in our model.

Perceived high-performance human resource practices impact on work-life interference and employee outcomes.

Perceived high-performance human resource practices have received a great deal of research attention. The potential dark side of HPHRP implementation on an organization's workforce is rarely observed. Our results explain the potential risk of HPHRP on female employees. Different schools of thought provide different outcomes, some arguing that HPHRP enhances employee and business outcomes (Carvalho & Chambel, 2014) and reduces employee intention to quit the job (Jensen et al., 2013). Others demonstrate that HPHRP may lead to more stress amongst employees because of work intensification (White et al., 2003). According to Armstrong (2006), such HR practices are no more than a case of the "emperor's new clothes" and are considered a "wolf in sheep's clothing".

The current study interestingly supports both schools of thought that HPHRP reduces WLI and adds wellbeing in the workplace, thus behaving as a job resource which ultimately increases the business outcome for employees and supports social exchange theory.⁴² Our results also support the second school of thought that, for female employees, the same HPHRP cause high job demand and increases WLI (although the relation is insignificant).

High-performance human resource practices reduce work-life interference in male employees, and they are major beneficiaries of HPHRP (get more resources), but female employees suffer because of HPHRP, as it causes work-life interference (relationship is positive but insignificant for females) and in high work-life interference can lead to high intention to job turnover. The results support the conservation of resource theory, as employees with fewer resources are more likely to experience resource losses and employees with a lack of resources will set up defensive attempts to conserve their remaining resources.

⁴² Social exchange theory reflects individuals' reactions to what they receive from others (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Gould-Williams, 2007; Gould-Williams & Davies, 2005). Based on the social exchange theory, employees reciprocate with a positive attitude and express their enjoyment of the work, because they believe that human resources practices as supporting activities help them have a better working environment and achieve their goals.

According to Karadas and Karatepe (2019), the issue pertaining to the mechanism linking high-performance human resource practices to the attitudinal and behavioral outcomes of employees is still unresolved.

The job demand resource model identified two main job characteristics, i.e., job demands and job resources (Häusser et al., 2010). Our research is in line with this theory that female employees perceive more job demands (when organizations implement high-performance human resource practices) due to their dual job responsibilities within their society, which demands them high physical and psychological effort. Thus, for them, even good practices designed to enhance performance may cause an increase in work-life interference. But for male employees, the scenario is different, as, in the Indo-Pak continent, the male is considered the breadwinner and child care/elder care is not his primary responsibility. Therefore, he perceives high-performance human resource practices as job resources and ultimately has extra time to immerse himself in the job and perform well. Ultimately, he gets satisfaction in the workplace.

Further, the results support the viewpoint regarding the inconsistency of high-performance human resource practices outcomes and the negative spillover of these practices on employees' lives (Carvalho & Chambel, 2016a; Han et al., 2020), which helps to understand the mechanism of HR practices.

Family-friendly work practices impact on work-life interference and employee outcomes.

Family-friendly practices are the HR initiatives offered by organizations aimed at increasing employee control over schedules and thus substantially reducing work-life interference (Chou & Cheung, 2013). We will discuss how the results of our study regarding these perceived family-friendly work practices add to the theory and literature.

While elaborating on job demand resource theory, the second job characteristic, “job resources”, refers to those aspects of the job that helps in reducing high job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). According to Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), the presence of more job resources in the workplace leads to more job engagement. Employees who have access to more resources are better able to cope with stress-like situations, and they probably experience fewer adverse outcomes (Hobfoll, 2002). But in the same workplace, unequal distribution of resources may create demotivation among employees. The results of our research show that male employees have more resources to cope with work-life interference compared to female

employees. This unequal distribution of resources may cause inequality and lack of justice, and the outcome can be more intention to job turnover among female employees. The absence of family-friendly work practices increases the work-life interference (specifically among female employees) and supports the conservation of resource theory. Assisting workers in reducing work-life conflict is seen as both critical for the company and valuable for society as a whole (Carlson et al., 2009). It is primarily a current challenge for the new generation living with high technology who balance their work and family life (Halpern, 2005b). It is important in such situations for organizations to offer more FFWP and support to employees who have dual responsibilities in society. This study is a good addition to the literature as it stresses the importance of family-friendly work practices, more specifically for female employees with dual responsibilities. Our study explored the unclear role of family-friendly work practices and replied to the focal question raised by Bloom et al. (2011) concerning why don't all organizations implement family-friendly work practices for their employees?

Work-life interference impacts on employee wellbeing in the workplace and intention to job turnover.

Role stress theory is based on the scarcity approach in which humans perform multiple roles with limited time and energy (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Work-life interference research has been greatly dominated by role theory. Our research results are in line with role theory, which has the central idea that work-life interference is caused by having several jobs that are incompatible with one another and which put people under constant strain and raise their stress levels. This causes bad-being in the workplace and motivates employees to search for other jobs, causing a drain of resources. Our study reveals that employees perceive work-life interference has negative consequences on employee wellbeing in the workplace as the stress level goes up. Employees make more sacrifices in their lives due to high job demand, and ultimately their satisfaction level with their job experience goes down. This study is in line with theories and empirical evidence and supports the idea that combining work and non-work responsibilities frequently creates more demands than one can handle, resulting in overburdening and stress (Kahn et al., 1964). The results are puzzling in the case of female employees, as role overload does not impact their wellbeing in the workplace. There are some studies that reveal that sometimes more engagement in multiple roles often have benefits and do not always have detrimental effects on the role performer (Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006), which challenges the role theory of scarcity. According to Barnett

and Baruch (1985), the expectation that employed women are especially vulnerable to role strain leading to decrements in wellbeing is not substantiated.

The results support that offering more FFWP help employees reduce WLI and ultimately helps in good wellbeing in the workplace and reduces the intention to job turnover. The use of social exchange and gift exchange theories have also been used to explain this positive impact on wellbeing and commitment to staying with the organization. This study is in line with the results of Hauff et al. (2018), who posit that profit-based pay, clear career paths, and employment security not only foster motivation among employees but also result in increased employee effort, satisfaction, and commitment by showing that employees are valued by the firm, which supports the social exchange theory.

Perceived support from home and at work impact on work-life interference.

In support of social exchange theory, the study contributes to the management literature regarding the importance of manager support for organizations. According to Greenhaus and Powell (2006), resource gains at work or non-workplace ultimately promote a positive work-life balance. *Our study supports the view that an unsupportive organizational culture might undermine the effects of good management practice, i.e., HPHRP on work-related attitudes and work-life interference.* The research results also support moderators like manager support and family and friend support, which makes a significant addition to the theories and literature on employee wellbeing and intention to job turnover. There is evidence that employers who care about decreasing employee work-life interference have a favorable influence on employee motivation and retention (Farivar & Cameron, 2015) and employee attitudes like organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Kim, 2014; Shanafelt et al., 2012). The results of our study show that the moderating impact of perceived manager support on employees to balance their work and life sphere are consistent with the previous research of Carvalho and Chambel (2014). There is a joint family structure in Pakistan; on the one side, living in the joint family system, working women become more overburdened, as they are expected to take care of the whole family along with their office assignments. But if they receive support from family in that same joint family system, i.e., help with childcare from grandparents, then it helps them manage the balance in their work and life spheres. We linked this with female retention to the job. The study supports that female workers' presence in the workplace only increases in developing countries

like Pakistan if they get support from their family and friends, as it links with WLI and ultimately with IJT.

5.3 Practical implications

For personnel researchers, behavioral scientists, management practitioners, and organizations, the findings of this study have various practical consequences. Even after a lot of development in the 21st century, females are considered the main home carers. Besides their paid jobs, they are also responsible for taking care of the family, including the husband and his parents (in South Asian culture). The hard-core reality is that in Pakistan, women are suffering from market discrimination (Sadaquat, 2011).

Practically our study provides justification for organizations to offer FFWP to their employees. By offering more friendly HR practices, organizations can help employees cope with stress-like situations, increase their satisfaction at work, and raise their commitment level to the organization, ultimately decreasing the brain drain.

The main question, “Why don’t all organizations offer FFWP” is answered in our results. According to our results, in male-dominant organizations, which operate in a culture where males are considered the breadwinners and are less tied up with home responsibilities, the absence of FFWP has a weak impact on work-life interference for male employees and an insignificant impact on intention to job turnover, as well as employee wellbeing in the workplace. Thus, organizations consider it a drain of resources if they offer FFWP. This does not mean that in male dominant societies, the work and life of employees are always in balance, but in situations of conflict between different spheres of life, high-performance human resource practices help to reduce the negative spillover.

Although Pakistan is a male dominant country and has developed a road map, “Vision 2025”, with a target of an increased female labor force participation from its current level of 25% to 45% by 2025 (Amir et al., 2018), with rising numbers of females in the labor force, organizations need to offer FFWP, as working females in society are overburdened with to dual responsibilities. The employee with dual responsibility needs more resources and support programs than others to compete with those employees whose sole responsibilities are as breadwinners. The rising trend of females in the workforce is alarming for organizations who

are not offering FFWP, as females are more affected in the absence of such HR practices, and this causes more intention to job turnover. Contrary to male employees, HPHRP does not help female employees in reducing negative spillover of work-life interference. Therefore, in the future, organizations have to plan to offer more FFWP, in light of Pakistan's "Vision 2025", and adopt such practices as a competitive advantage over competitors. Our study stresses that without offering equal resources, it is not possible for working women to compete with male employees. Unequal distribution of resources or no access to resources causes demotivation amongst employees and causes IJT. According to Kossek and Ollier-Malaterre (2013), if FFWP are not fully assessed, then these practices can sometimes have unintended and even negative consequences.

The main practical implication of our study is that it creates a ground where employers and employees can negotiate before investing in HPHRP and FFWP. This will help to stop the illogical distribution of resources among employees. This study especially opens the gates for female employees to negotiate for family-friendly work practices with management to counter the negative impact of high-performance human resource practices (see Table 4.22).

An organization may offer more family-friendly work practices to their employees, but if these practices are offered without negotiation with employees, then this may cause a drain of resources. According to Ollier-Malaterre and Andrade (2016), most of the time, organizations offer FFWP, but employees do not utilize them. For example, a growing work-family policy for unmarried employees can be a part-time job or compressed weeks so that they enjoy a more social life after their job. Similarly, for women in the Indo-Pak continent, a growing work-family policy can be night transport from the workplace to home to ensure public safety (Raian-Rankin & Tomlinson, 2013). However, if an employer offers night transport to male employees or employees living in secure urban areas may cause a drain of resources. Thus, our study lays down a foundation for both human resource divisions and employees to negotiate work-family practices according to their needs and choice.

The study also set a guiding principle that more FFWP should be offered to female workers in a country like Pakistan, where working women have more extra responsibilities from the family side. HPHRP in the workplace causes more job demand, and this work pressure causes work-life interference. More work-family practices are needed to make their lives easier. They would then be able to compete with male employees in a dominant male society. The

study supports that human resource managers must act quickly and adopt such policies to reduce demotivation and IJT, enhance retention ratio, and identify how to improve the wellbeing of banking professionals (especially female employees) because employee wellbeing has become a decisive element for the long-term viability, growth, and success of an organization. This is an unpredictable issue that is affected by components like socioeconomics and innovation. The segment factors that influence the work-family interface are recognized in the literature: (a) expanding extent of women in the labor force; (b) double pay families; (c) single-parent families; (d) expansion in the extent of senior residents; and (e) expansion in eldercare. To plan successful approaches and intercessions, the HR department needs to take these different segment attributes into consideration while investing in HPHRP and FFWP. Practically, it also helps if management negotiates with employees before offering HR programs in the organization to better implement such practices according to employee needs and situations.

Therefore, we suggest that organizations, on the basis of our study, invest in family-friendly work practices, as their impact can be seen in the long term. Because of these and different variables (e.g., work conditions), administrators are confronted with the troublesome undertaking of setting up strategies and mediations that advance prosperity for every one of their representatives who are attempting to deal with the intricacies of work and family jobs. The results of the current exploration affirm that while work-family struggle and work-family improvement effectively affect versatility and work-life equilibrium and prosperity results, there are additional intercession impacts. That is, strength and balance between fun and serious activities work as cycles for the transmission of the contention and advancement experienced by wellbeing experts. The outcomes likewise show positive and negative overflow across spaces. These perceptions are significant on the grounds that they show that there are numerous ways for associations and wellbeing experts to advance work and family prosperity: (a) decrease of work-family conflict; (b) expansion in work-family enhancement; (c) expansion in versatility limit; and (d) expansion in the balance between fun and serious activities. The drives examined center around advancing mental prosperity on hierarchical, family, and individual levels. Be that as it may, there is some cross-over between the levels since they are not isolated elements. The drives referenced depend on the Conservation of resource theory (COR) (Hobfoll, 1989) and the possibility that associations, families, and people who have a high asset supply can withstand future unpleasant occasions and bounce back and acquire assets when going up against emergencies contrasted with individuals with fewer assets (Holohan & Moos, 1990). Expanding on COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989), the motivation behind this examination was

to analyze the joint impact of two individual assets (i.e., versatility and balance between fun and serious activities) on work-family struggle and advancement. The utilization of these two assets may empower directors to plan successful intercessions for wellbeing experts.

Another practical implication of our study is that manager support at work plays a vital role in reducing work-life interference when high-performance human resource practices increase high job demands at work as formal policies and FFWP are not enough to minimize work-family interference, as suggested by Gözükarar and Çolakoğlu (2015); therefore, the support of a manager, i.e., understanding an employee's familial responsibilities, results in enhanced cognitive resources employees and help them manage stress and also moderate the potential risk of work-life conflict due to demands at work because of HPHRP.

Now, the question is, what can organizations do to implement these practices (HPHRP and FFWP)?

- 1- Negotiate with employees about what FFWP they need to decrease the drain of resources.
- 2- FFWP are not solely sufficient for decreasing employee work-life interference; therefore, our research encourages managers to provide support at work, i.e., appreciation and treating employees well. Managers can easily discourage or encourage employees from taking advantage of these HR programs.
- 3- High-performance human resource practices, no doubt, increase the performance of employees but can also cause high job demand in some employees who are already overburdened due to dual responsibilities at home and work. Such employees need special attention to strengthen their wellbeing. In such cases, more family support practices could be offered to employees to help them compete with other employees and balance the high job demand impact of HPHRP.
- 4- Provide employees with equal resources to compete. Otherwise, the wellbeing of those who lack the resources (especially female employees) can be affected. Female employees are at a disadvantage against their male partners with similar education and careers (H. Kim et al., 2013). In such situations, female employees need more attention and resources, i.e., more supportive programs and manager support at the workplace.
- 5- There is strong evidence suggesting that male employees outperform compared to working women in a competitive environment (Gneezy & Rustichini, 2004). The

current study can also help organizations understand the new types of gender discrimination. Not providing extra support programs to female employees to counteract the negative impact of HPHRP also restricts them from competing with male employees in the workplace (HPHRP work as support practices for male employees but not for female employees. See Table 4.20 and 4.21). Gender discrimination reduces working women's morale and loyalty and worsens their stress level in the workplace (H. Kim et al., 2013).

5.4 Strengths of the research

The complexity of the theoretical model and the study's setting in Pakistan were both strengths of the current study. The variables employed in this study are extremely scarce in Pakistan; hence, this study fills a gap. This is even more crucial as the mediating effects of WLI on EWB and IJT aspects of wellbeing are understudied in the current literature. As previously mentioned, this study examined HPHRP (perceived High-Performance Human Resource Practices), FFWP (Family-Friendly Work Practices) on career and family satisfaction, anxiety/depression, and social dysfunction as distinct categories with their own dimensions and cross-domain effects. These characteristics are rarely extensively examined in work-family studies. The strength of this research is its model design. We studied HPHRP separately from FFWP to open the black box of HPHRP to examine their true impact on work-life interference. Further, the separation of HPHRP and FFWP helped us to compare the benefits of such practices separately for male as well as female employees, which can help employers in the future better negotiate with employees before investing in such practices. Further, we added the moderators, perceived manager and family/friend support to the further micro analysis of how employee work-life interference is affected due to high job demand and how resources work in such situations.

According to Kossek and Ollier-Malaterre (2013), more detailed research across different cultures is needed, despite the growth of work-family policies. Therefore, to study work-family policies, high-performance human resource practices, and their impact on work-life interference and wellbeing in the workplace in South Asian culture, where the family structure has its unique characteristics, is itself the strength of our study.

Work-family interference has different definitions and criteria to measure. According to different cultures, work and other boundaries are different, i.e., in European culture, child

care is both the responsibility of mother and father, so they set boundaries accordingly. But in the Indo-Pak continent, still, mothers are considered solely responsible for childcare, and similarly, females are involved in more unpaid jobs that are not counted as work. Therefore, the work boundaries are set differently. To keep this in mind, we used the questionnaire designed by Shah (2017) to measure work-life interference, which was more suitable for an Indian continent culture; this is again the strength of our study.

5.5 Limitations and future research

Besides opening many avenues, the current study also has some potential limitations. Pakistan is a developing nation, and the female ratio in the workforce is increasing with the passage of time. Still, compared to developed nations, there is less female presence in the workforce. In Pakistan, women mostly prefer to stay at home to take care of their families. Sometimes it is voluntary, and sometimes it is due to pressure from a society that restricts them from joining the workforce. In our data, the ratio of females (17.3%, Table 3.3) basically shows the overall ratio of the female labor force in these big five banks (13%, Table 3.1). Women experience greater work pressure than men on a similar occupational level and in organizations with similar characteristics (Russell et al., 2009). The few numbers of female representation in our data is one drawback of the research. Future studies could enhance this ratio.

In our research, we collected data from the big five banks in Pakistan and data from three major cities, Islamabad, Karachi, and Lahore (urban areas). Life in rural areas and small towns are different with different sub-cultures. The competition is less in small cities as compared to big cities, which changes the dynamics of variables. It is recommended that, in the future, the same research should be conducted in small cities and extend the data collection from small banks.

In our research, dependent as well as independent variable data were collected through self-report. The results of this study may be limited, which may cause biasedness. Although we checked the CMV in our data, it is recommended for future research that data also be collected from HR managers/ supervisors regarding HR policies/practices.

The data was acquired from bank employees who work for five big banks in the financial sector industry in Pakistan. The outcomes of this study were also constrained. As a

result, it is probable that the findings will not be able to be generalized and applied to other organizations. Despite this constraint, the findings may be applicable to larger groups of employees and may be relevant to similar jobs and professions in similar organizations.

The current study's findings only investigated one-way causal effects, which may limit the study. Using a four-wave panel design, De Lange et al. (2004) looked at normal, inverted, and reciprocal interactions and discovered that the reverse causation effects are often less than the regular causal link. The current study did not set out to investigate a reverse causal link. It would be more interesting to see reverse causation effects in the model.

This research is quantitative in nature, and a survey research methodology was adopted; data were collected from a limited number of employees due to time constraints. In the current research, the data was collected online with a specified questionnaire offering a limited range of options. However, using qualitative research, we are better able to see the point of view of the actor (Bryman, 1984). Qualitative research offers a better way to obtain responses from respondents and helps better understand the variables. Qualitative research could also be conducted, or a combination of both qualitative and quantitative could enhance the approach of the study and add significant literature and results. Further, the application of experience sampling methodology (ESM) to work and family studies could be beneficial. ESM "allows for a longitudinal study of the type and causation directionality among the constructs examined" (Uy et al., 2010). This method is used to record participants' thoughts, feelings, moods, behaviors, and motivational self-assessments at various times and in various situations during their daily activities in their natural surroundings (Stone & Shiffmann, 1994).

Future research could also be extended to cross-culture comparison of results and expand the avenue of the study to different countries or even continents. It would be more interesting to compare the results of different cultures. If the researcher had enough time, the data could be collected across regions, and a comparative study could be implemented.

Future research could deal with understanding how HRD manages to negotiate and invest in FFWP. Different employee needs regarding FFWP are different at different times. Sometimes these needs change with the change in family situations, i.e., single employees do not bother about the availability of childcare facilities; rather, they are more interested in flextime-like practices to enjoy more social life after work, so future research could identify how HRD needs to negotiate with their employees regarding what FFWP offer them.

5.6 Summary

Our research model is an effort to open the black box of high-performance human resource practices and strengthen the importance of family-friendly work practices. We were interested in investigating how work-life interference is significantly reduced by FFWP. For male employees, HPHRP also reduces WLI along with FFWP, which is not the case for female employees. That may be the reason behind the outcome of our results: that the absence of FFWP do not affect male employees' intention to leave the job, but for female employees, the absence of FFWP causes a significant increase in IJT. This can be the reason why some organizations (where male employees are more in number) do not offer too many FFWP. The results reveal that the absence of FFWP thus raises the intention to job turnover in female employees.

Our research output gives a new perspective that, along with family-friendly work practices, other good HR practices, and supporting supervisor behavior, causes a reduction in work-life interference. Aside from the results, it is important to note that in societies in South Asian countries, where females are considered home carers and more responsibilities are added after marriage (i.e., to take care of the husband and his parents) if working women receive reciprocal support from family (to help her to manage dual job responsibilities, i.e., support with childcare from grandparents), and they receives support through FFWP, then they have the possibility to compete with male employees in a competitive environment.

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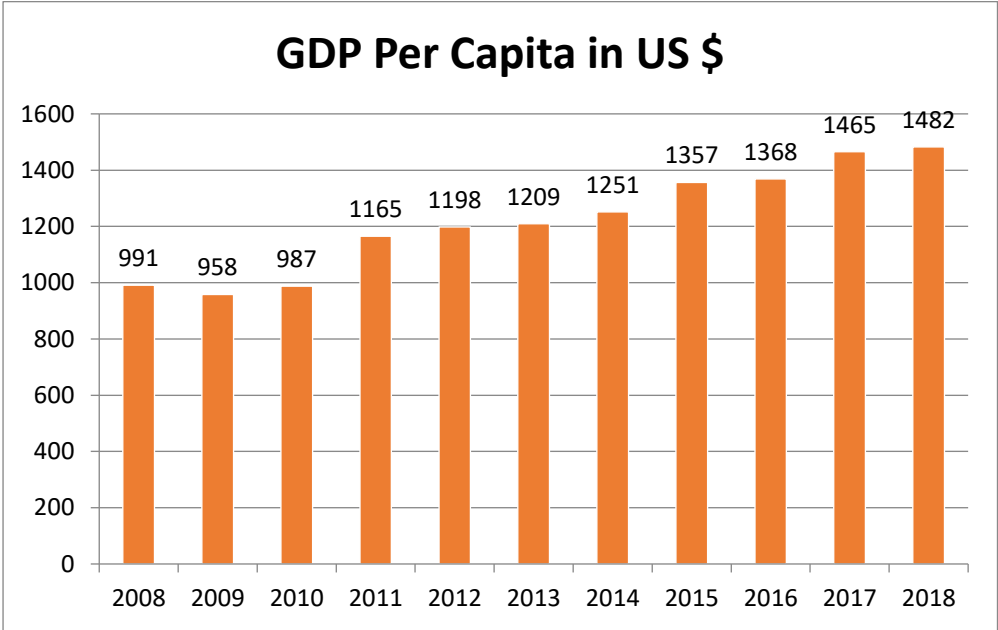
ANNEXES

Annex I - Pakistanese population

Year	Total Population (Million)	Population, female (% of total)	Population, male (% of total)	Ages 0-14 (% of total)	Ages 15-64 (% of total)	Ages 65 + (% of total)
1960	45.0	46.4	53.6	39.3	56.4	4.3
1965	50.9	46.8	53.2	40.5	55.6	3.9
1970	58.1	47.1	52.9	42.3	53.9	3.8
1975	66.8	47.4	52.6	43.0	53.2	3.8
1980	78.1	47.7	52.3	42.9	53.3	3.8
1985	92.2	47.9	52.1	42.6	53.6	3.9
1990	107.6	48.1	51.9	43.0	53.1	3.9
1995	123.8	48.3	51.7	43.2	52.9	4.0
2000	142.3	48.4	51.6	42.0	54.0	4.0
2005	160.3	48.4	51.6	40.0	55.9	4.1
2010	179.4	48.5	51.5	37.7	58.1	4.2
2015	199.4	48.5	51.5	35.9	59.8	4.3
2019	216.6	48.5	51.5	35.1	60.6	4.3

Annex: II: Pakistan GDP data

year	GDP per capita \$
2008	991
2009	958
2010	987
2011	1165
2012	1198
2013	1209
2014	1251
2015	1357
2016	1368
2017	1465
2018	1482



Annex III - List of banks & their branches

Sr. No	Banks	No. of Branches	Sr. No	Banks	No. of Branches
A)	Public Sector Commercial Banks	2,606	D)	Foreign Banks	10
1	First Women Bank Ltd.	43	1	Citibank N.A.	3
2	National Bank of Pakistan	1,508	2	Deutsche Bank AG	2
3	Sindh Bank Ltd.	322	3	Industrial and Commercial Bank of China Ltd.	3
4	The Bank of Khyber	170	4	The Bank of Tokyo-Mitsubishi UFJ Ltd.	1
5	The Bank of Punjab	563	5	Bank of China	1
B)	Specialized Banks	668			
1	Industrial Development Bank Ltd.	2	E)	Micro Finance Banks	
2	SME Bank Ltd.	13	1	Advance Pakistan Microfinance Bank Limited	
3	The Punjab Provincial Cooperative Bank Ltd.	151	2	APNA Microfinance Bank Limited	
4	Zarai Taraqiati Bank Ltd.	502	3	FINCA Microfinance Bank Limited	
C)	Domestic Private Banks	10,835	4	Khushhali Microfinance Bank Limited	
1	Al Baraka Bank (Pakistan) Ltd.	180	5	Mobilink Microfinance Bank Limited	
2	Allied Bank Ltd.	1,339	6	NRSP Microfinance Bank Limited	
3	Askari Bank Ltd.	472	7	Pak Oman Microfinance Bank Limited	
4	Bank Al Falah Ltd.	620	8	Sindh Microfinance Bank Limited	
5	Bank Al Habib Ltd.	681	9	Telenor Microfinance Bank Limited	
6	Bank Islami Pakistan Ltd.	249	10	The First Microfinance Bank Limited	
7	Dubai Islami Bank Pakistan Ltd.	200	11	U Microfinance Bank Limited	
8	Faysal Bank Ltd.	454		Total Banks (A+B+C+D+E) 45	
9	Habib Bank Ltd.	1,697			
10	Habib Metropolitan Bank Ltd.	322			
11	JS Bank Ltd.	322			
12	MCB Bank Ltd.	1,376			
13	MCB Islamic Bank Ltd.	176			
14	Meezan Bank Ltd	660			
15	Samba Bank Ltd.	37			
16	Silkbank Ltd.	123			
17	Soneri Bank Ltd.	295			
18	Standard Chartered Bank (Pakistan) Ltd.	77			
19	Summit Bank Ltd.	193			
20	United Bank Ltd.	1,362			
Note: Data up to 31 December 2018 (Taken from State Bank of Pakistan)					

Annex IV - Online survey used to collect data

Lime Survey Website

This survey is technically designed in three parts. The first part is based on your job related information, etc. The second part of the questionnaire consists of my PhD research variables, i.e., work-life balance, high-performance human resource practices, etc. The third part is about your demographic information.

Participation in this survey is completely voluntary. The respondent's personal information and identity will not be disclosed anywhere. The data collected through this survey will be used for my doctoral thesis only without revealing the identity of the respondents.

Filling this questionnaire will take approximately 15 minutes.

Your participation in the survey will allow us to better understand how human resource practices and employee work-life balance affect wellbeing in the workplace. Thus, your contribution is very important for this research project.

We thank you very much for your valuable time and for your kind participation in this survey.

Yours sincerely,
Mr Imran JUMANI (PhD student)

1 Name (optional):

Please write your answer here:

2 Email addresses (optional):

Please write your answer here:

3 What is the gender of your immediate supervisor?

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Male
- Female

4 My work leaves me with little energy to do any other non-work activity.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

5 Tension and stress from work often adversely affect rest of my life.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

6 I do not have enough time to pursue other interests because of the time spent at work.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

7 I miss out important personal life events because of my work.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

8 My work makes it difficult for me to schedule personal time-offs.

*Choose one of the following answers
Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

9 Due to work strain, I ignore my personal life needs.

*Choose one of the following answers
Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

10 I am satisfied with my work responsibilities.

*Choose one of the following answers
Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

11 In general, I feel fairly satisfied with my present job.

*Choose one of the following answers
Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

12 I find real enjoyment in my work.

*Choose one of the following answers
Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

13 I can always find ways to enrich my work.

*Choose one of the following answers
Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree

- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

14 Work is a meaningful experience for me.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

15 I feel satisfied with my achievements from my current job.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

16 I will look for a new job in the near future.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

17 Presently, I am actively searching for a job in a different organization.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

18 When something goes wrong at work, I can discuss it with my friends or family.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

19 My friends and/or family care about how I feel about my job.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

20 My friends and/or family help me feel better when I have a hard day at work.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

21 My friends and/or family show interest and feel proud of me when something good happens at my work.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

22 My manager/supervisor really cares about my well-being.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

23 My manager/supervisor considers my goals and values.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

24 My manager/supervisor shows little concern for me.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

25 My manager/supervisor cares about my opinion.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

26 My manager/supervisor is willing to help if I need a special favor.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

27 Help is available from my manager/supervisor when I have a problem.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

28 Your manager would forgive an honest mistake on your part

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly agree

29 If given the opportunity, your manager would take advantage of you.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral

- Agree
- Strongly agree

30 Do your appraisals help to plan your training?

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Not at all
- To very small extent
- To moderate extent
- To large extent
- Always

31 Do your appraisals affect your promotion?

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Not at all
- To very small extent
- To moderate extent
- To large extent
- Always

32 Do your appraisals affect your pay?

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Not at all
- To very small extent
- To moderate extent
- To large extent
- Always

33 Is your appraisal influenced by how hard you work?

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Not at all
- To very small extent
- To moderate extent
- To large extent
- Always

34 Do you work in a group? (Combine task)

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Not at all
- To very small extent
- To moderate extent
- To large extent
- Always

35 Do your coworkers influence "how hard you work"?

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Not at all
- To very small extent
- To moderate extent
- To large extent
- Always

36 Do you take part in a "work improvement group" or "quality circle"?

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Not at all
- To very small extent
- To moderate extent
- To large extent
- Always

37 Does your pay depend partly on the "performance of the work group"?

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Not at all
- To very small extent
- To moderate extent
- To large extent
- Always

38 Does part of your pay depend on your own performance?

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Not at all
- To very small extent
- To moderate extent
- To large extent
- Always

39 Does part of your pay depend on the performance of the workplace or organization?

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Not at all
- To very small extent
- To moderate extent
- To large extent
- Always

40 Your organization has a profit-sharing or share scheme.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Not at all
- To very small extent

- To moderate extent
- To large extent
- Always

Profit-sharing is payments to employees that depend on company's profitability in addition to employees' regular salary and bonuses.

A Share scheme is the allocation of company shares to employees

41 Are your pay incentives influenced by how hard you work?

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Not at all
- To very small extent
- To moderate extent
- To large extent
- Always

42 In your organization, pay increases are given to the employees who work hard and perform well? ('Merit pay').

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Not at all
- To very small extent
- To moderate extent
- To large extent
- Always

43 Does your organization allow some flexibility on the time employees start and/or leave their work?

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Never
- To very small extent
- To moderate extent
- To large extent
- Always

44 Does your company allow you to work four longer days per week instead of 5 regular days (also known as a compressed workweek)?

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Never
- To very small extent
- To moderate extent
- To large extent
- Always

45 Paid leaves allowed for personal and family reasons on short notice.

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Never
- To very small extent
- To moderate extent
- To large extent
- Always

46 Gender:

*Please choose only one of the following:

- Female
- Male

47 Age: What is your age group?

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Below 25
- 26-30
- 31-35
- 36-40
- 41-45
- 46-50
- 50-60

More than 60

48 Marital status:

*Choose one of the following answers

Please choose only one of the following:

- Single
- Married
- Divorced
- Widow
- Widower

49 Spouse is Employed?

*Only answer this question if the following conditions are met:

Answer was 'Married ' at question '68 [DEM6]' (Marital status)

Please choose only one of the following:

- Yes
- No

50 Household status:

*Choose one of the following answers

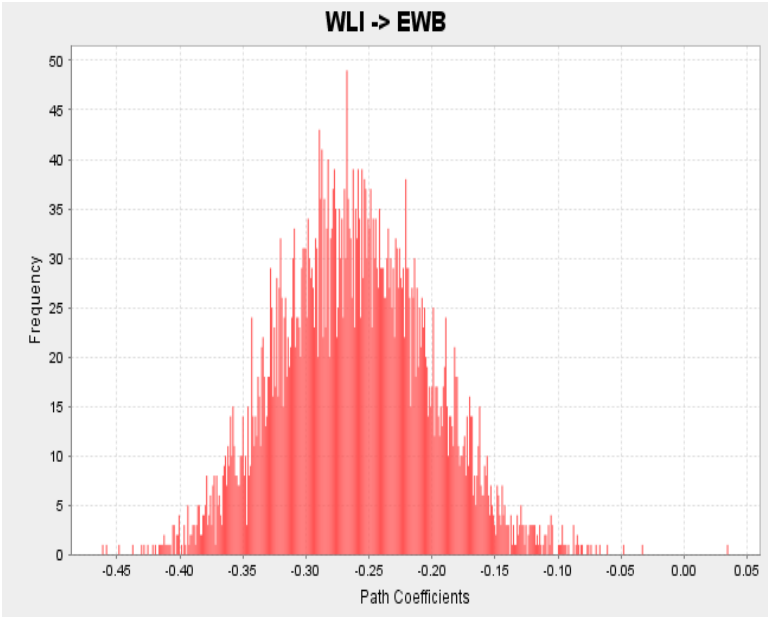
Please choose only one of the following:

- Living Alone
- Nuclear Family
- Joint Family

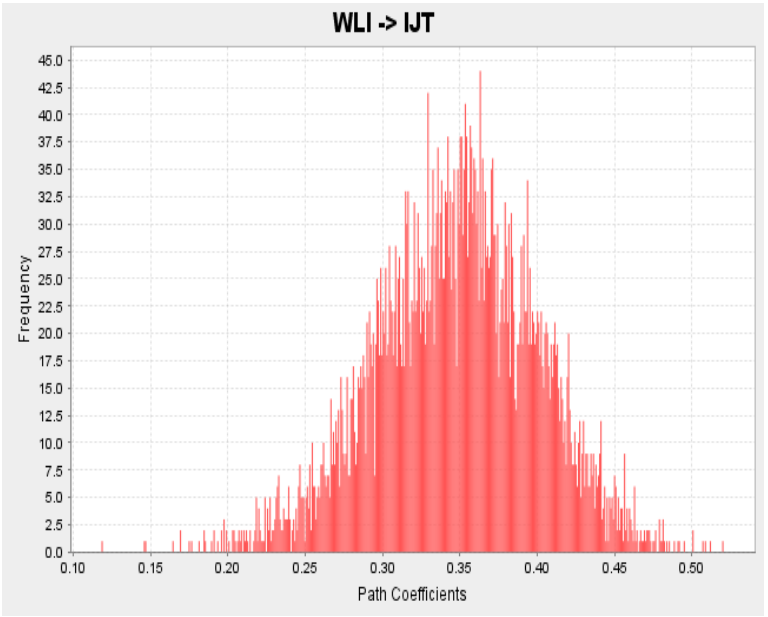
Nuclear Family: Living with wife and dependent children, living away from other relatives

Joint Family: Living with parents, siblings or nearby relatives in the same house.

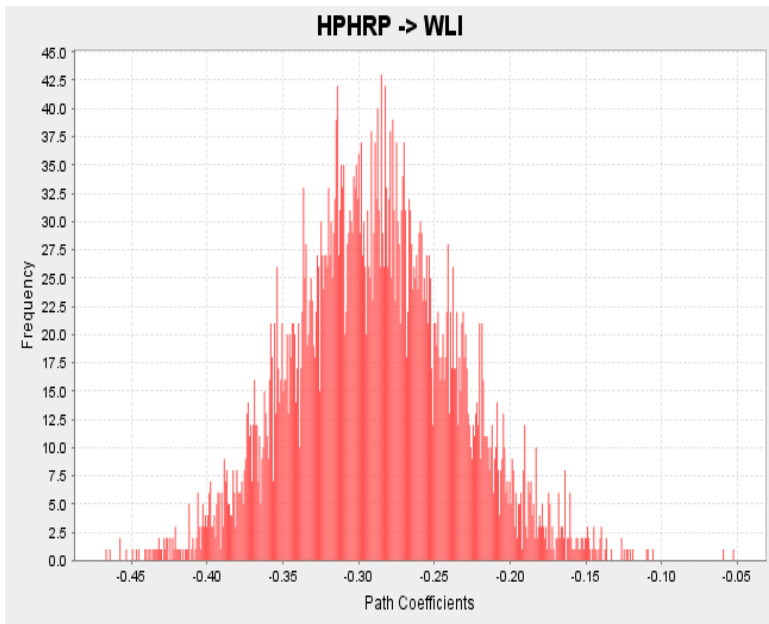
Annex V - The path coefficient frequency histogram



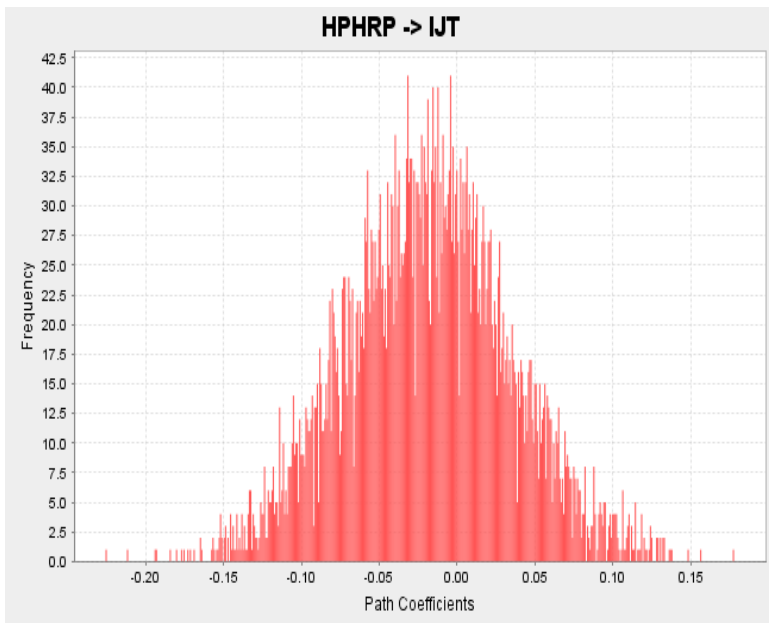
Graph i



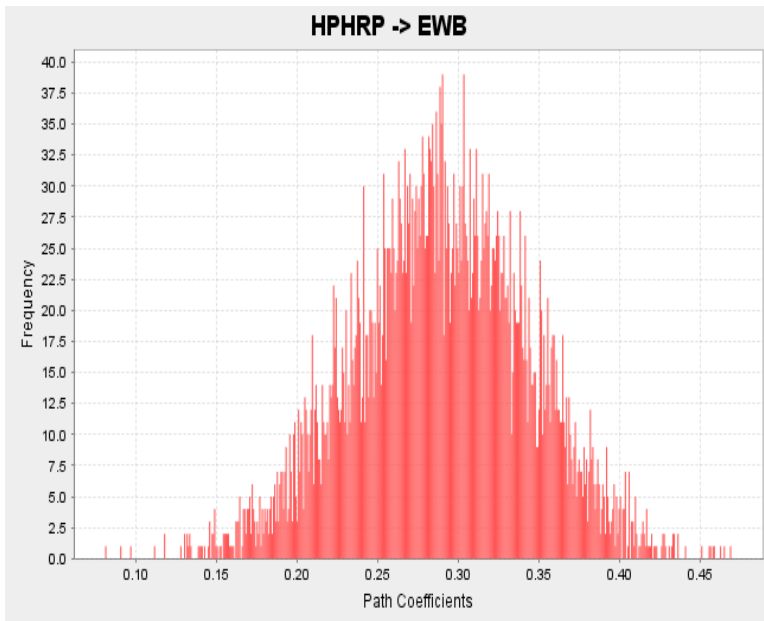
Graph ii



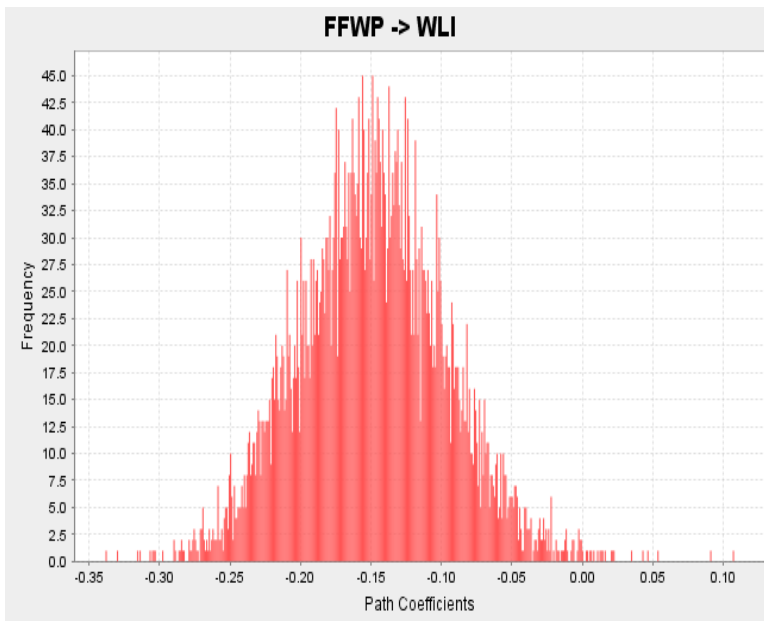
Graph iii



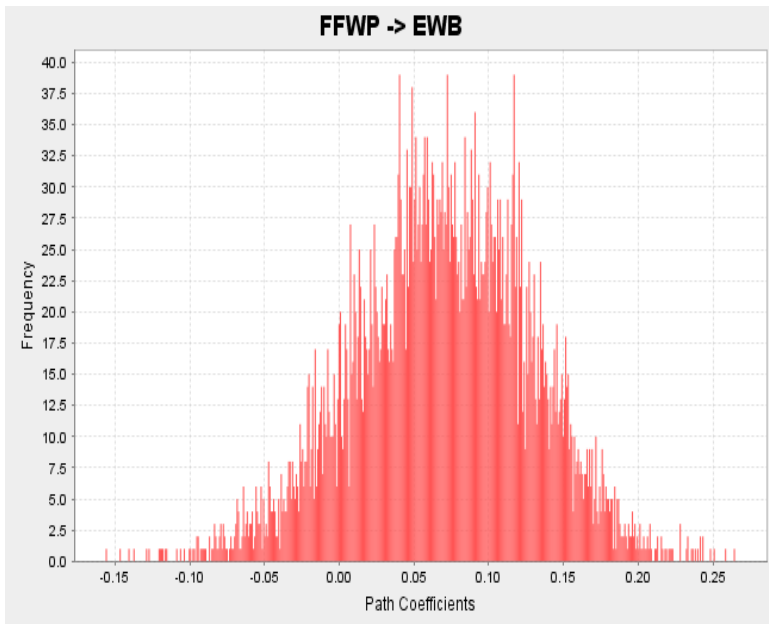
Graph iv



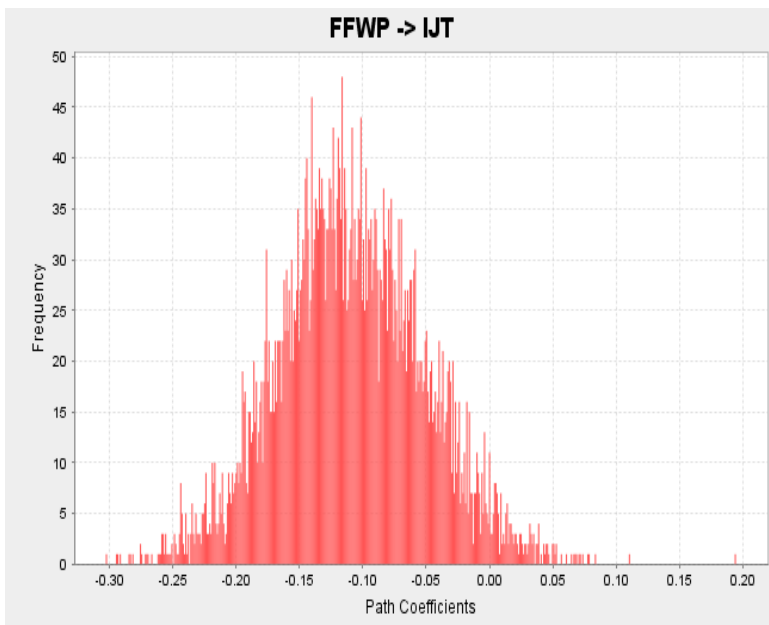
Graph v



Graph vi



Graph vii



Graph viii

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Par

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The effects of human resource management practices on employee work-life interference and its outcomes

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Titre : Les effets des pratiques de management des ressources humaines sur l'interférence entre vie professionnelle- vie personnelle et ses effets.

Mots clés : Pratiques de GRH par la haute performance, pratiques de GRH en soutien à la conciliation vie professionnelle / vie personnelle, interférences travail / hors travail, bien-être, intention de départ.

Résumé:

Cette recherche examine les effets des pratiques de ressources humaines à haute performance (RHHP) et les pratiques de GRH en soutien à la conciliation « vie professionnelle – vie personnelle » (RHVPP) sur les interférences entre le travail et le hors travail, le bien-être et l'intention de quitter le travail. En outre, nous examinons l'influence modératrice du soutien des managers, de la famille et des amis. Notre problématique est la suivante : comment les pratiques de travail favorables à la famille et les pratiques de ressources humaines à haut rendement influencent-elles l'interférence entre le travail et la vie personnelle et ses résultats, c'est-à-dire le bien-être des employés au travail et leur intention de quitter leur emploi ?

La recherche a été menée dans des banques des secteurs public et privé au Pakistan. Les données (322 répondants ; 82,6% d'hommes, 17,4% de femmes) des employés de banque travaillant au Pakistan (employés, cadres moyens et supérieurs) ont été recueillies par le

biais d'un questionnaire en ligne. L'approche des moindres carrés partiels (PLS-SEM) est employée pour évaluer le modèle de recherche.

Les résultats montrent que les deux pratiques de GRH étudiées - RHHP et RHVPP - ont un effet positif significatif sur l'interférence entre le travail et le hors travail. La RHVPP influence significativement l'intention de quitter, mais pas le bien-être des employés. En revanche, la RHHP est significativement associée au bien-être mais pas à l'intention de quitter. Le soutien des managers, de la famille et des amis agit comme modérateur. Nous montrons également que si l'absence de FFWP n'affecte pas l'intention de quitter le travail (IJT) des employés masculins, cette absence augmente significativement celle des femmes. Ces résultats permettent de comprendre quelles pratiques de management peuvent favoriser des performances durables au travail pour les femmes.

CONTEXTE DE L'ÉTUDE:

La question de savoir " quoi " et " pourquoi " se cache derrière chaque action d'un employé sur un lieu de travail reste une " boîte noire " qui constitue un domaine d'étude central pour les chercheurs en psychologie industrielle, en relations industrielles, en sociologie organisationnelle et en gestion des ressources humaines (Kato & Kodama, 2017).

Au cours des dernières décennies, un équilibre sain entre vie professionnelle et vie privée (WLB) a été considéré comme un défi pour les entreprises. L'équilibre entre vie professionnelle et vie privée, selon Clark (2000), se caractérise par "le bonheur et une forte performance au travail et à la maison, avec un conflit de rôles minimal ". L'équilibre entre le travail et la vie privée, selon Greenhaus et al. (2003), comprend l'équilibre du temps, l'équilibre de l'engagement et l'équilibre de la satisfaction.

Le déséquilibre dans ces deux sphères de vie conduit au mal-être du salarié (Haar et al., 2014) et à un turnover élevé (Fitria & Linda, 2019). Par le passé, différents mythes étaient liés à cette terminologie. Au départ, l'équilibre entre vie professionnelle et vie privée était fréquemment considéré comme un problème pour les femmes salariées, et plus précisément pour les femmes mères salariées. L'entrée des femmes sur le marché du travail peut être l'une des raisons initiales de l'évolution de cette question (Crompton & Lyonette, 2006), mais aujourd'hui, c'est un problème commun aux hommes et aux femmes. Le deuxième mythe concernant l'équilibre entre vie professionnelle et vie privée consiste à le considérer comme une répartition égale du temps/des heures entre la sphère professionnelle et la sphère privée. Si l'on parle d'équilibre entre le travail et la vie privée, cela ne signifie pas une répartition égale du temps entre le travail et la vie personnelle. Le troisième mythe concernant l'équilibre entre le travail et la vie privée consiste à affirmer que le travail est mauvais et que la vie est bonne ou à considérer le travail comme l'opposé de la vie, de sorte que si ces deux sphères se chevauchent, cela provoque un conflit entre le travail et la vie privée, ce qui nuit aux performances de l'employé. En réalité, le travail fait partie de

la vie, tout comme notre famille, nos amis et notre communauté, ainsi que nos loisirs. Tous ces aspects jouent un rôle crucial dans notre vie quotidienne. Parfois, même si ces deux sphères de vie - le travail et la famille - se chevauchent, il est très probable qu'elles puissent se renforcer l'une l'autre et avoir un impact positif sur chaque domaine de la vie, ce que l'on appelle l'enrichissement travail-vie privée. Si l'on pense que la sphère du travail est intrinsèquement mauvaise, on perd de vue la possibilité d'un mieux. C'est pourquoi la question a été au centre de nombreuses réunions de direction et, par conséquent, des pratiques de travail favorables à la famille (horaires variables, télétravail, semaines de travail plus courtes, travail à temps partiel, partage d'emploi, etc.) ont été introduites sur le lieu de travail pour contrer l'effet du déséquilibre entre vie professionnelle et vie privée.

Ainsi, dans le domaine des nouvelles responsabilités organisationnelles, cette thèse traite du bien-être au travail et des pratiques de travail favorables à la famille. Au cours des dernières décennies, le lieu de travail a totalement changé en raison de la mondialisation, des technologies de l'information, du changement de la structure organisationnelle, des fusions et acquisitions et des conditions économiques. Tous ces facteurs ont également une incidence directe sur le bien-être des employés (Sparks et al., 2001). Le résultat de nombreuses recherches confirme qu'il existe une relation favorable entre le bien-être d'un employé et sa performance (Fisher, 2003), et au niveau de l'entreprise, il augmente la rentabilité en réduisant l'absentéisme et les coûts liés à la santé (Danna & Griffin, 1999). Le bien-être des employés est aujourd'hui considéré comme un sujet d'actualité dans les études organisationnelles et également comme la principale préoccupation des organisations (Grant et al., 2007).

Aujourd'hui, nous vivons dans une société très stressée (Tomiyama, 2019) associée au déséquilibre et au mal être. Le stress lié au travail est une " expérience émotionnelle négative " due à un déséquilibre perçu par un employé entre ce qui lui est demandé sur son lieu de travail et les moyens dont il dispose sur son lieu de travail pour effectuer son travail (Karasek Jr, 1979). Selon Bashir et Ramay (2010), la surcharge de travail, les conflits de rôles, le manque de retour d'information et les changements technologiques

rapides sont des antécédents de stress importants pour les banquiers. Le niveau de stress élevé des employés provoque souvent un clash entre eux et leurs clients, ce qui affecte non seulement les affaires de la banque mais aussi la performance de l'employé. Le conflit travail-famille est également une raison importante du stress ressenti par les employés (Anderson et al., 2002). Une enquête menée par la Commission européenne révèle que les longues heures de travail et une charge de travail élevée sont à l'origine de 66% du stress professionnel (sondage d'opinion paneuropéen sur la sécurité et la santé au travail 2013). Par conséquent, le déséquilibre dû à des pratiques de GRH non pertinentes peut conduire à un mal-être.

On peut également considérer que ce déséquilibre peut être dû à des pratiques de ressources humaines à haute performance (HPHRP), c'est-à-dire des pratiques de GRH qui lient la réalisation d'objectifs élevés au salaire et à la croissance. En effet, ces pratiques visent à motiver les employés pour qu'ils augmentent leur efficacité et leur productivité, mais elles provoquent également une concurrence entre les employés pour obtenir davantage d'avantages financiers et d'évolution de carrière. Cette concurrence peut augmenter la productivité de l'organisation, mais peut aussi provoquer une augmentation du niveau de stress des employés et conduire à leur mal-être. Cette question n'est pas simple: parfois, les pratiques de ressources humaines à haut rendement (HPHRP) améliorent une dimension du bien-être d'un employé tout en compromettant une autre. C'est ce qu'on appelle des compromis en matière de bien-être. Offrir des objectifs élevés rend le travail stimulant et augmente la satisfaction au travail; d'un côté, cela augmente aussi le stress et la tension physique des employés de l'autre (Grant et al., 2007). Ces pratiques, qui consistent à lier l'éligibilité à une augmentation de salaire et à la croissance à la réalisation d'un nombre croissant d'objectifs, aident les employeurs à augmenter la productivité de l'entreprise, mais suscitent également une concurrence entre les employés pour obtenir de meilleures performances et davantage d'avantages financiers. Ces pratiques RH peuvent mettre les employés sous pression ou créer un environnement de travail plus stressant. Par conséquent, des recherches approfondies sont nécessaires

pour identifier les liens entre les pratiques de ressources humaines à haut rendement, l'interférence entre le travail et la vie privée, et le bien-être des employés sur le lieu de travail afin d'ouvrir la "boîte noire".

De plus, le rôle de l'HPHRP qui est responsable des pratiques de travail défavorables à la famille (la forte demande de travail augmente l'interférence entre le travail et la vie privée) doit être exploré. Cela ouvre la porte aux chercheurs pour analyser cette tendance RH et explorer les conséquences des bonnes et mauvaises pratiques.

En conséquence, les objectifs de recherche de cette thèse sont les suivants :

- A. Comment les pratiques en matière de ressources humaines influencent-elles l'équilibre entre vie professionnelle et vie privée des employés, leur bien-être et leur intention de démissionner?
- B. Quel rôle le soutien du manager et de la famille/des amis joue-t-il dans les relations entre le HPHRP et les résultats?

EXPOSÉ DU PROBLÈME

Le stress continu sur le lieu de travail dû au déséquilibre entre ce qui est demandé à un employé et les moyens disponibles pour lui affecte directement son bien-être et aussi la productivité de l'organisation. En raison de ces facteurs, le bien-être des employés est devenu un sujet d'intérêt et une préoccupation majeure pour les organisations aujourd'hui (Lambert et al., 2021). Selon Bryson et al. (2014), ce qui conduit à un mauvais bien-être et au stress des employés doit être examiné de plus près. La question qui se pose alors est de savoir comment les entreprises prennent leurs responsabilités et réparent le déséquilibre qui provoque un stress élevé chez les employés?

Dans la littérature, l'effet de l'équilibre travail-famille sur le bonheur individuel reste à déterminer (Elnanto & Suharti, 2021; Greenhaus et al., 2003), bien que le bonheur soit considéré comme la

principale source de bien-être des employés sur le lieu de travail (Ullah & Siddiqui, 2020). Cependant, nous devons approfondir nos connaissances sur les facteurs de déséquilibre sur le lieu de travail et leurs conséquences. Dans les nations en développement, on observe des taux d'inflation élevés et de faibles taux d'emploi, ce qui réduit le niveau de vie des familles et augmente les niveaux de pauvreté. Dans le même temps, la mondialisation a accru la concurrence au sein des organisations ; dans la course à l'avantage concurrentiel, les organisations ont mis en place une production ininterrompue 24 heures sur 24. Pour faire face aux défis de la mondialisation, les organisations profitent, intentionnellement ou non, de ces conditions économiques (taux de chômage et de pauvreté élevés) et obligent les employés à travailler de plus longues heures (forte demande d'emploi), ce qui déséquilibre leur vie professionnelle. En retour, les employés ressentent plus de stress, ce qui entraîne une mauvaise santé et un mauvais bien-être (Kundi et al., 2020; Soomro et al., 2019).

Pour faire face à ces défis, certaines organisations ont introduit diverses pratiques de travail favorables à la famille (FFWP) afin d'aider les employés à trouver un équilibre correct entre le travail et la vie de famille (Vadivukkarasi & Ganesan, 2015). Certains chercheurs ont montré que ces FFWP ont un impact positif sur la productivité de l'entreprise, ce qui explique pourquoi les organisations introduisent de tels programmes (Konrad & Mangel, 2000). Selon Lazar et al. (2010), la réduction de l'absentéisme, la réduction de la rotation du personnel, l'amélioration de la productivité, l'augmentation de la loyauté et de l'engagement des employés, et l'amélioration de l'image de l'organisation sont quelques avantages pour les organisations qui mettent en œuvre des programmes favorables à la famille. Cependant, d'un autre côté, Bloom et al. (2011) ont soulevé la question suivante : si le résultat des FFWP est si bénéfique pour les employeurs, ainsi que pour les employés, et si les FFWP ont un impact significatif sur la productivité, alors pourquoi toutes les organisations ne proposent-elles pas de tels programmes à leurs employés ? Bloom et al. (2009) concluent que les FFWP n'ont aucun impact direct et indirect sur la rentabilité d'une organisation car certaines organisations ne lancent et ne mettent en œuvre de tels programmes que pour donner l'impression d'être socialement responsables (normes de responsabilité

sociale des entreprises). Le rôle peu clair et douteux de ces pratiques et le coût financier qu'implique la mise en œuvre de tels programmes (par exemple, les garderies) découragent les organisations des pays en développement de proposer de tels programmes. Si les pratiques professionnelles favorables à la famille (FFWP) ne sont mises en œuvre que pour montrer la responsabilité sociale de l'entreprise sans avoir d'impact clair, il est alors nécessaire d'explorer comment les problèmes d'équilibre entre vie professionnelle et vie privée peuvent être résolus. Ce rôle douteux et peu clair des FFWP intéresse beaucoup les chercheurs, notamment ceux qui établissent un lien entre les FFWP, le bien-être et la performance organisationnelle (Irawanto et al., 2021; Ngo et al., 2009). Ce manque de preuves claires peut dissuader certains employeurs de mettre en œuvre le véritable esprit de la FFWP.

Le scénario de travail actuel est marqué par une pression intense, des délais constants, une utilisation accrue de la technologie, le rythme rapide du changement et le lieu de travail virtuel. Tous ces facteurs brouillent les frontières entre le travail et la vie personnelle, ce qui entraîne une confusion et un environnement difficile pour tous. Aujourd'hui, l'équilibre entre vie professionnelle et vie privée n'est pas seulement un problème pour les personnes mariées avec des enfants, les couples ou les parents qui travaillent, mais aussi un point de discussion important pour les générations X et Y (Shankar & Bhatnagar, 2010). En tant que tel, le WLB ne doit plus être considéré comme un simple équilibre entre le travail et la famille, mais plutôt comme un équilibre entre le travail et le reste de la vie. Si, dans cette situation, les organisations n'introduisent pas de tels programmes RH, c'est-à-dire des pratiques de travail favorables à la famille, alors non seulement les familles à double revenu seront affectées, mais aussi le bien-être de la jeune génération en raison des niveaux de stress élevés. Cela limitera également la participation des femmes au marché du travail et, en fin de compte, la croissance économique du pays en souffrira.

Il est donc nécessaire d'étudier la FFWP, ainsi que d'autres variables, c'est-à-dire les pratiques de ressources humaines performantes, l'interférence entre le travail et la vie privée, le bien-être de l'employé et l'intention de roulement, surtout dans la situation actuelle de pandémie. Les chercheurs ont affirmé

que la pandémie de COVID-19 a créé une situation difficile pour les employés lorsqu'il s'agit de maintenir leur bien-être (causant du stress et de la frustration) et l'écart entre les sphères de travail et de vie (Hjálmsdóttir & Bjarnadóttir, 2021). Afin de limiter la propagation du virus Covid-19 et de ses nouvelles variantes, différents pays ont pris des mesures d'urgence, à savoir le lockdown, la fermeture des écoles et des lieux de travail, la distanciation sociale, etc. Toutes ces restrictions ont eu pour effet de transformer la maison en école, le lieu de travail, la cour de récréation. Toutes ces restrictions ont fait de la maison une école, un lieu de travail, un terrain de jeu. Les restrictions ont forcé tout le monde à rester à la maison et à mener toutes les activités économiques. Cette situation a brouillé les frontières entre les sphères du travail et de la vie. Selon Irawanto et al. (2021), ce chevauchement des sphères de travail et de vie (pas de frontières claires) crée du stress et de l'anxiété, et affecte la satisfaction professionnelle des employés, ce qui conduit finalement à l'intention de quitter son emploi. La situation de pandémie et son résultat, c'est-à-dire l'urgence sanitaire et son effet sur la vie personnelle des gens et les rôles au sein des familles, rendent notre problème de recherche opportun.

LA QUESTION DE RECHERCHÉ

Notre principale question de recherche est la suivante:

Comment les pratiques de travail favorables à la famille et les pratiques de ressources humaines à haut rendement influencent-elles l'interférence entre le travail et la vie personnelle et ses résultats, c'est-à-dire le bien-être des employés au travail et leur intention de quitter leur emploi?

Cette question de recherche est ensuite subdivisée comme suit :

- a- L'interférence entre le travail et la vie personnelle influence-t-elle le bien-être des employés au travail?

- b- L'interférence entre le travail et la vie personnelle influence-t-elle l'intention des employés de quitter leur emploi?
- c- Comment les pratiques de travail favorables à la famille influencent-elles le bien-être des employés au travail?
- d- Comment les pratiques de ressources humaines à haut rendement influencent le bien-être au travail.
- e- Comment les pratiques de travail favorables à la famille influencent l'intention des employés de quitter leur emploi.
- f- Comment les pratiques de ressources humaines à haut rendement influencent l'intention des employés de quitter leur emploi.

MÉTHODOLOGIE DE LA RECHERCHE

Les hypothèses de l'étude ont été testées à l'aide d'un modèle d'équation structurelle (SEM) dans le logiciel SmartPls 3.2.

Pour réaliser le SEM, nous avons suivi une approche en deux étapes. Dans la première étape, nous avons évalué la mesure. Il s'agissait d'évaluer l'adéquation du modèle et la validité discriminante entre les variables indépendantes et dépendantes. Dans la deuxième étape, nous avons exécuté notre modèle structurel hypothétique basé sur le modèle confirmatoire évalué dans la première étape, en mesurant les relations entre les variables de l'étude. Les hypothèses de médiation ont été testées par la méthode du bootstrap (taille de l'échantillon bootstrap = 5000). Afin d'examiner la nature des effets de modulation, nous avons effectué une analyse des pentes simples (Aiken et al., 1991), qui nous a permis de déterminer si le changement des pentes était significatif entre des niveaux faibles du modérateur et des niveaux élevés du modérateur.

Nous avons mené des recherches dans des banques du secteur public et privé au Pakistan. Avec un taux de croissance du PIB de 5,8% (1482 \$ par habitant) en 2018 (Annexe-II), le Pakistan était l'une des économies à la croissance la plus rapide au monde. Selon le rapport de la Banque mondiale sur "l'indice de facilité de faire des affaires" (septembre 2009), le Pakistan s'est amélioré de 10 points en quatre ans, de 2015 à 2019. Le secteur bancaire pakistanais joue un rôle essentiel dans le développement économique du pays (Zafar & Aziz, 2013). Depuis la nationalisation des banques en 1974, le système bancaire moderne a subi de nombreux ajustements pour répondre aux besoins d'un tel pays en développement (Zaidi, 2005). D'importantes réformes réglementaires du secteur bancaire ont été mises en œuvre en 1991 sous la forme d'une privatisation afin d'améliorer les services aux consommateurs et de développer un marché concurrentiel. En raison de la dénationalisation des banques, les survivants des licenciements ont vu leur charge de travail augmenter du fait qu'ils ont absorbé les responsabilités de leurs collègues qui avaient été licenciés (Fong & Kleiner, 2004). La plupart des employés travaillent plus de dix heures par jour au détriment de la vie sociale et familiale, ce qui a provoqué la frustration des employés (Kartio et al., 2017). Un autre effet notable de la privatisation du secteur bancaire pakistanais est l'émergence d'un système dans lequel les employés perçoivent leur emploi comme précaire, ce qui les motive à chercher un nouvel emploi (intention de turn-over). Ainsi, une situation difficile a été créée pour la direction de la banque de consommation au Pakistan pour retenir les employés (Dawn Newspaper, 2006). Ces conditions me motivent à étudier ce secteur pour mon doctorat.

Titre : Les effets des pratiques de management des ressources humaines sur l'interférence entre vie professionnelle- vie personnelle et ses effets.

Mots clés : Pratiques de GRH par la haute performance, pratiques de GRH en soutien à la conciliation vie professionnelle / vie personnelle, interférences travail / hors travail, bien-être, intention de départ.

Résumé:

Cette recherche examine les effets des pratiques de ressources humaines à haute performance (RHHP) et les pratiques de GRH en soutien à la conciliation « vie professionnelle – vie personnelle » (RHVPP) sur les interférences entre le travail et le hors travail, le bien-être et l'intention de quitter le travail. En outre, nous examinons l'influence modératrice du soutien des managers, de la famille et des amis. Notre problématique est la suivante : comment les pratiques de travail favorables à la famille et les pratiques de ressources humaines à haut rendement influencent-elles l'interférence entre le travail et la vie personnelle et ses résultats, c'est-à-dire le bien-être des employés au travail et leur intention de quitter leur emploi ?

La recherche a été menée dans des banques des secteurs public et privé au Pakistan. Les données (322 répondants ; 82,6% d'hommes, 17,4% de femmes) des employés de banque travaillant au Pakistan (employés, cadres moyens et supérieurs) ont été recueillies par le

biais d'un questionnaire en ligne. L'approche des moindres carrés partiels (PLS-SEM) est employée pour évaluer le modèle de recherche.

Les résultats montrent que les deux pratiques de GRH étudiées - RHHP et RHVPP - ont un effet positif significatif sur l'interférence entre le travail et le hors travail. La RHVPP influence significativement l'intention de quitter, mais pas le bien-être des employés. En revanche, la RHHP est significativement associée au bien-être mais pas à l'intention de quitter. Le soutien des managers, de la famille et des amis agit comme modérateur. Nous montrons également que si l'absence de FFWP n'affecte pas l'intention de quitter le travail (IJT) des employés masculins, cette absence augmente significativement celle des femmes. Ces résultats permettent de comprendre quelles pratiques de management peuvent favoriser des performances durables au travail pour les femmes.

Title: The effects of human resource management practices on employee work-life interference and its outcomes

Keywords: High-performance HR practices, family-friendly work practices, work-life interference, wellbeing at work, and intention to job turnover.

Abstract: This research examines the effects of High-Performance Human Resource Practices (HPHRP) and Family-Friendly Work Practices (FFWP) on work-life interferences, well-being and intention to leave the job. In addition, we examine the moderating influence of support from managers, family and friends. Our problem statement is: how do FFWP and HPHRP influence the work-life interference and its outcomes, i.e., the wellbeing of employees in the workplace and their intention to leave the job? The research was conducted in both public and private sector banks in Pakistan. Data collection (322 respondents; 82.6% male, 17.4% female) of bank employees working in Pakistan (employees, middle and top-level management) was gathered through an online questionnaire.

The partial least square (PLS-SEM) approach is employed to assess the research model.

The results show that the two HRM practices studied - HPHRP and FFWP - have a significant positive effect on work-life interference. FFWP is significantly associated with turnover intention, but not with employee well-being. In contrast, HPHRP is significantly associated with employee well-being, but not with turnover intention. Managers' support and support from family and friends act as moderators. We also show that if the absence of FFWP does not affect male employees' intention to leave the job (IJT), this absence significantly increase female employees' IJT. These results help to understand which management practices can support sustainable performances for women.