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Work Life Balance Policies in the Indonesian Context

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Declaration

To the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where due acknowledgement has been made.

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university.



Tri Wulida Afrianty

Date: 25th November 2013

Abstract

This research is one of the first systematic investigations on the topic of work life balance support in the Indonesian context. Examined here are the effects of work life balance support at the workplace (i.e., work life balance policies and family supportive supervisor behaviours/FSSB) on employees' work attitudes and behaviours including their organisational citizenship behaviour/OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction as well as on employees' work family conflict. The work life balance policies investigated are categorized into flexible work options, specialized leave policies, dependent care support and religiosity support. The first three categories were transmitted from the Western economies while the fourth category was identified for the purpose of this research. The religiosity support investigated was very specific to the Indonesian context and has never been examined in any past published research. FSSB was included as one of the work life balance support investigated because research on FSSB remains limited despite the acknowledgement of the important role of supervisor support on employees in the literature.

The aims of this thesis are twofold. First, to examine the impact of work life balance policies usage as well as FSSB on a range of employee's work attitudes and behaviours (i.e., OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction) in the Indonesian context. Unlike organisational commitment and job satisfaction, the empirical evidence on the impact of work life balance support on OCB and in-role performance is absent in the literature. The second aim of this thesis is to investigate the impact of work life balance policies usage as well as FSSB on employees' work family conflict in the Indonesian context. Two research questions and seven hypotheses were formed to address the research aims. The hypotheses were developed based on some supporting theories (i.e., social exchange theory, role theory, conservation of resources theory and job demands-resources/JD-R theory) and past empirical findings. Instead of examining the impact of availability of work life balance policies like the majority of previous research on this topic, this research focuses on the actual usage of the policies. The rationale for this includes that it is the direct benefits gained from the policy use that could affect employees' attitudes and behaviours.

A quantitative approach was undertaken to address the research aims. The data were gathered using structured questionnaires. Multi source data (i.e., self-rating data from subordinates and supervisor rating data) were utilised to minimise common method bias. The questionnaires were developed in matched-pairs questionnaires for employees and supervisors. Both academic and non-academic staff and their supervisors from 30 higher education institutions across Indonesia participated in the research. The reason for choosing a higher education context includes that there is a significant rise in female workforce participation in the Indonesian higher education that makes work family (life) balance an important issue in this sector. Of the 400 pairs of questionnaires distributed, 171 surveys were returned, for a response rate of 43%. A total of 159 subordinates (i.e., 109 academic and 50 non-academic staff) and 100 supervisors (i.e., 77 academic and 23 non-academic staff) completed the 159 matched surveys which were then included in the analysis. Unlike the majority of past studies in the area of work and family/life that intentionally sought females as

the respondents, this research expands the respondent pools to include males, given the fact that experience related to the conflicting demands from work and family/life is not unique to female employees. The proportions of male and female subordinates and supervisors who participated in this research are quite balanced at 59.12%: 40.88% and 55% : 45% respectively. To test the hypotheses, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted using SPSS version 21. Prior to the hypothesis testing, preliminary analyses which include validity, reliability, regression assumption and the fitness of the model assessments were done.

Findings emerging from this research indicate that work life balance experiences in Indonesia do not positively align with the findings reported in most academic literature pertaining to Western societies, where the use of work life balance policies (i.e., flexible work options, specialized leave policies and dependent care support) leads to positive work outcomes and a reduction in employees' work family conflict. Like other standard policies that are transmitted from Western economies, the use of religiosity support did not relate to employees' positive work attitudes and behaviours or to resolving work family conflict. Some possible explanations are discussed. What was confirmed though was the importance of FSSB in Indonesia. The results of this research indicate that supervisor support towards work and family/life issues is indeed a key predictor of positive work attitudes and behaviours (i.e., OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction), as well as work family conflict. This suggests that FSSB should be considered as a key target and resource for organisations interested in designing work based support to increase employees' work attitudes and behaviours and to reduce work family conflict. The findings also provide evidence that contextual factors are important in studying work and family (life) balance. It is indicated from the study that the Indonesian contextual factors are very different from the Western societies. Another highlight from this research is that religiosity support in the workplace is an important issue to be addressed in the context of a religious country like Indonesia.

This thesis has several contributions in terms of theory, conceptual understanding, methods and policy development. The contributions are discussed in chapter five of this thesis along with the identification of the research limitations.

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List of Abbreviations – Global Context

ANOVA	:	Analysis of Variance
FFW	:	Family Facilitation with Work
FIW	:	Family Interference with Work
FSSB	:	Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviours
ILO	:	International Labour Organization
IRP	:	In-Role Performance
JD-R Theory	:	Job Demands-Resources Theory
JS	:	Job Satisfaction
KMO	:	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
OC	:	Organisational Commitment
OCB	:	Organisational Citizenship Behaviours
OCBI	:	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Directed Towards the Individuals
OCBO	:	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Directed Towards the Organisation
OCQ	:	Organisational Commitment Questionnaire
PCA	:	Principal Component Analysis
SPSS	:	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
US	:	United States
VIF	:	Variance Inflation Factor
WFC	:	Work Family Conflict
WFF	:	Work Facilitation with Family
WIF	:	Work Interference with Family
WLB	:	Work Life Balance

List of Abbreviations – the Indonesian Context

Bappenas	:	Badan Perencanaan Pembangunan Nasional (National Development Planning Agency)
BPS-RI	:	Badan Pusat Statistik Republik Indonesia (Central Agency on Statistic of the Republic of Indonesia)
DIKTI	:	Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Tinggi (Directorate General of Higher Education/ DGHE)
DP3	:	Daftar Penilaian Pelaksanaan Pekerjaan (List of Work Implementation Assessment)
DPR-RI	:	Dewan Perwakilan Rakyat-Republik Indonesia (The People’s Representative Council of Indonesia)
Kemenkeu-RI	:	Kementerian Keuangan Republik Indonesia (Ministry of Finance of the Republic of Indonesia)
Kementrans-RI	:	Kementrian Tenaga kerja dan Transmigrasi Republik Indonesia (Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration of the Republic of Indonesia)
Menaker-RI	:	Menteri Tenaga Kerja Republik Indonesia (Minister of Manpower of the Republic of Indonesia)
PNS	:	Pegawai Negari Sipil (Public/Civil Servant)
THR	:	Tunjangan Hari Raya (Religious Holiday Allowance)

Presentations and Publications related to this Thesis

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Indonesia has experienced significant growth in female participation in the workforce (Bennington & Habir, 2003; Muntamah, 2012; Ridho & Al Raysid, 2010; Yakub, 2013; Yustrianthe, 2008). According to the World Bank (2013), women make up more than half of the Indonesian workforce. Women have played significant roles in many sectors. For example, Indonesian women account for six per cent of positions on corporate boards (The World Bank, 2013; UN Women, 2012), eighteen per cent of the positions in the Indonesia's national parliament are held by women (UN Women, 2012) and at least twenty per cent of high positions in the Indonesian higher education sector are held by women (Yakub, 2013). The rise of female participation in the Indonesian workforce is one of the consequences of Indonesia's major achievements for women in reaching gender equality in education at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels (UN Women, 2012). With the significant growth in female participation in the Indonesian workforce, the number of dual income earning households has also increased (Ridho & Al Raysid, 2010; Yustrianthe, 2008). This makes work family (life) balance an important community and economic issue in Indonesia. In addition, a new Indonesian Labour Law (i.e., Law Number 13 of 2003 on Labour) has been formed to ensure all labour in Indonesia gets equal opportunities with no discrimination, to promote wealth for employees and their families (Presiden-RI, 2003).

The primary concern of the literature in the field of work and family (life) has been the examination of work family conflict, that is managing the relationship between work and family (life), which focuses on assessing the potential outcomes of work family conflict on employees, their families and their employing organisation (e.g., Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011; Chang, McDonald, & Burton, 2010; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brienly, 2005; Kelly et al., 2008; Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, & Baltes, 2011). It has been argued that work family conflict could have detrimental effects on individuals, their families and organisations (e.g., Frone, 2000; Frone, Russel, & Cooper, 1992; Galovan et al.,

2010; Grzywacz et al., 2007; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Liu, Wang, Keesler, & Schneider, 2011). This has led to increased discussion and action by employers and public policy makers on how to reduce work family conflict among employees (Michel et al., 2011) through developing various work family (life) support at the workplace (e.g., work life balance policies and supportive supervisors) to assist employees in managing the competing demands between work and family (life) (Ode-Dusseau, Britt, & Greene-Shortridge, 2012).

The aims of this thesis are twofold. Firstly, to examine the impact of work life balance policies as well as family supportive supervisor behaviours (FSSB) on a range of employees' work attitudes and behaviours (i.e., organisational citizenship behaviours/OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction) in the Indonesian context. Secondly, to investigate the impact of work life balance policies and FSSB on employees' work family conflict in the Indonesian context.

What makes this research original is the inclusion of religiosity support as one of the work life balance policies investigated along with other standard policies (i.e., flexible work options, specialized leave policies and dependent care support) that are found in Western economies. Religiosity support includes policies that are very specific to the Indonesian context and have not been examined in any past published research on work life balance in Indonesia. In addition, the examination of FSSB in this thesis is also an attempt to fill another gap in the literature related to very limited research on the topic of FSSB, despite the important role of supervisor supports on employee behaviour (Straub, 2012). FSSB refers to supervisor behaviours that are supportive of family related issues (Hammer et al., 2009).

This chapter provides a brief overview of the research. This chapter commences with the discussion on the background of this thesis which leads to the development of research questions and hypotheses. The chapter then moves to describing the research in terms of the methodology applied. The discussion then outlines the key contributions the research makes to the larger fields of work and family (life) as well as to business organisation. General limitations of the research are also identified. This chapter ends with an overview of the ensuing chapters.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH

Work life balance policies refer to a group of formal organisational programs and initiatives designed with the overall aim of helping employees balance their work and lives (Bardoel, 2003; Burgess & Strachan, 2005; Lee & Hong, 2011; McCarthy, Darcy, & Grady, 2010). Previous studies (e.g., Muse & Pichler, 2011; Ratnasingam et al., 2012) indicated that the majority of the research examining the impact of work life balance policies has typically examined perceived availability of the policies while largely neglecting the actual utilisation of the policies. As will be discussed further in chapter two, very few studies directly assess work family policies in non-Western countries (Butts, Casper, & Yang, 2013; Shaffer, Joplin, & Hsu, 2011). Research examining work family (life) policy issues (and particularly on the actual utilisation of the policies) in non-Western countries are important in addressing this knowledge gap. Due to differences in social and cultural beliefs, the research findings of work and family related issues that have been conducted in the Western economies may not be applicable to countries with different underlying cultures and forms of social organisation. Researchers (Chandra, 2012; Clancy & Tata, 2005; Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, 2009) argue that social and cultural beliefs often have a major impact on the ability of individuals to successfully balance work and family issues. In addition, a distinct social and cultural issue in Indonesia, such as the important role of religion in every aspect of individual family and work lives, may result in a unique work life balance support demand. However, there is no published research conducted in Indonesia on this topic.

In this thesis, the core hypotheses to be tested is that the use of work life balance policies and FSSB will have a positive impact on the employee's work attitudes and behaviours (i.e., OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction). Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) is used to develop the theoretical rationale behind these relationships. The basic principle underlying social exchange theory is that an individual who provides rewarding services to another creates a sense of obligation to the latter person. In return, the latter person must give benefits to the person who supplies the services. This exchange will continue if both parties value what they receive from the other (Blau, 1964). Thus, the application of social exchange theory suggests that employees will have a sense of obligation to exert

positive attitudes or behaviours to their organisations if they are treated favourably and if they gain benefits from them (Lambert, 2000; Wang, Lawler, & Shi, 2011) through co-operation, OCB, commitment, and goodwill at work (Allen, 2001; Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005; Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Lambert, 2000; Scheibl & Dex, 1998; Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). Considering both work life balance policies and supervisor support as indicators of favourable treatment (Grover & Crooker, 1995), employees who benefit from that treatment (by using the treatment) will respond to the organisation in terms of positive work attitudes and behaviours. According to Butts et al. (2013), the use of work life balance policies should relate to more positive work attitudes and behaviours among employees because of the direct benefits gained from the policies used.

It is also proposed in this research that the use of a range of work life balance policies and FSSB will be associated with reduced work family conflict. The integration of role theory, conservation of resources theory and job demands-resources (JD-R) theory is used to explain these linkages (Allen, 2001; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011). Based on the theories, it is suggested that if employees receive adequate organisational work and family (life) support in the forms of work life balance policies and FSSB, they would have more resources to use for alleviating work family conflict.

Drawn from the above discussion and considering the unique social and cultural factors of Indonesia, the research questions are:

1. Does the utilisation of work life balance policies and FSSB increase employees' positive attitudes and behaviours?
2. Does the utilisation of work life balance policies and FSSB reduce work family conflict among Indonesian employees?

In order to investigate the research questions, a number of hypotheses will drive the research. The hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Flexible work options will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance, (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction

Hypothesis 2: Specialized leave options will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance, (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction

Hypothesis 3: Dependent care support will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance, (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction

Hypothesis 4: Religiosity support will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance, (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction

Hypothesis 5: FSSB will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance, (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction

Hypothesis 6: Work life balance policies: (a) flexible work options; (b) specialized leave options; (c) dependent care support; and (d) religiosity support will have a negative impact on work family conflict

Hypothesis 7: FSSB will have a negative impact on work family conflict

Based on the proposed hypotheses, a research model which suggests the relationships among research variables will be formed at the end of chapter two.

1.3 THE RESEARCH PROCESS

This thesis employs a quantitative research approach. Specifically, a survey method using structured questionnaires is undertaken. In line with the aims of this thesis, there are a number of independent and dependent variable relationships proposed. In order to minimise the effect of other possible factors on the relationships among independent and dependent variables, control variables are introduced. Through deductive process based on several supporting theories (i.e., social exchange, role, conservation of resources and JDR theories) and evidence from past research, research hypotheses are developed. The hypotheses of this thesis require answers to scope, rather than depth, and the data from the sample are used to draw inferences about the population (Roberts, 1999). According to Tharenou, Donohue and Cooper (2007), a survey method using questionnaires is the most suitable method for assessing the effect (and or relationship) of several independent variables on one or more dependent variables while taking into account other variables (e.g., control variables such as individual's demographics). Furthermore, it is argued that a quantitative approach provides the more sophisticated analytical statistical technique to examine such phenomena (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). In addition, this thesis utilises multi sources data (i.e., self-reporting data from subordinates and supervisor rating data) in an attempt to minimise common method bias (Greenhaus, Ziegert, & Allen, 2011; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Tharenou et al., 2007). Details about the research methodology will be elaborated in chapter three.

The Indonesian context is chosen since there has been limited research that has examined the impact of work life balance support at the workplace on employees in Indonesia. Thus, very little is known about the applicability of the majority of related findings from Western countries on work life balance policy effectiveness in the Indonesian context. Investigating work and family (life) related issues in Indonesia is essential for a number of reasons. First, the family is considered as the most central element in Indonesian culture (Sat, 2012). Second, Indonesia is categorized as one of the next generation of emerging industrialized countries and there is a growing recognition at the policy level in addressing employees' interests in Indonesia since the end of the Soeharto regime in 1997 (Bamber & Legget, 2001). Third, as

mentioned, Indonesia has been experiencing a significant growth in female participation in the workforce (Bennington & Habir, 2003; Muntamah, 2012; Ridho & Al Raysid, 2010; The World Bank, 2013; Yustrianthe, 2008) which has resulted in an increasing number of dual earner couples (Ridho & Al Raysid, 2010; Yustrianthe, 2008) which in turn makes work family (life) balance related issues became prominent in Indonesia. The work and family (life) related issues in the context of Indonesia will be discussed in more detail in chapter two.

The samples selected for this research are both academic and non-academic staff and their supervisors from higher education institutions in Indonesia. A total of 159 subordinates (i.e., 109 academic and 50 non-academic staff) and 100 supervisors (i.e., 77 academic and 23 non-academic staff) completed the 159 matched surveys. Indonesian higher education only accounts for about 1% of the Indonesian workforce, however this sector has been claimed as the central element for Indonesian human resource development (Mutia & Yuwanto, 2010; Presiden-RI, 2012; Sirozi, 2013). This strategic role of Indonesian higher education is governed by the Indonesian Law number 12 of 2012 (Presiden-RI, 2012). The education sector has received attention from the Indonesian Government with additional funding being allocated for this sector. In accordance with the decision of the Constitutional Court number I 13/PUU-VI 2008, to meet the needs of national education, at least 20 per cent of the national and regional budgets have to be allocated for the education sector (Kemenkeu-RI, 2009), an 8.2 per cent increase in the Indonesian state budgets in 2007 (Maesaroh, 2012). With the increased budget for the education sector, getting more highly qualified workforce into higher education, including women, is one of the aims of the Indonesian Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE) /' *Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Tinggi (DIKTI)*' (DIKTI, 2013). The number of women participating in higher education has increased significantly. At least 20 per cent of high positions in Indonesian higher education are held by women (Yakub, 2013). This confirms the relevance of studying work family (life) issues in the context of Indonesian higher education. In addition, higher education represents a case for examining work family (life) related issues, due to the high workload in this sector; however research in this context is limited (Fox, Fonseca, & Bao, 2011; Post, DiTomaso, Farris, & Cordero, 2009).

1.4 THE CONTRIBUTION OF THIS RESEARCH

This research can be considered to be one of the first systematic investigations on the topic of work life balance policies in the Indonesian context. Thus, the findings of this research will contribute to the literature theoretically in terms of giving an insight as to whether or not the general findings of the usage of work life balance support that are transmitted from the Western Industrialized economies have similar effects on employees in the Indonesian context. Specifically, the findings could provide additional empirical evidence on the role of contextual factors in studying work and family (life) balance. Moreover, as the work life balance policies investigated include religiosity support, which has never been investigated in past published research, the findings could provide important empirical evidence about the significance of religiosity/spirituality related issues in the workplace. Given the significant role that religiosity/spirituality plays in many individuals' lives and given the amount of time individuals spend at the workplace (Deneulin & Rakodi, 2011; Diener, Tay, & Myers, 2011; Naimon, Mullins, & Osatuke, 2013; Sprung, Sliter, & Jex, 2012), research on religiosity/spirituality at the workplace clearly became unavoidable. Thus, the research findings related to the religiosity supports for employees could be considered as a significant contribution to the literature, given the fact that research examining religiosity/spirituality in the workplace is still very limited (Sprung et al., 2012).

Despite the important role of supervisor support for employees, research investigating specific support from supervisors towards work and family (life) issues (i.e., FSSB) is still limited (Straub, 2012). The findings related to FSSB from this research have the potential to contribute to addressing this information gap. Specifically, it will provide evidence about the outcomes of FSSB on employee behaviour. In addition, the result of validity assessment of FSSB measure also offers additional empirical evidence about the validity of the measure of FSSB.

The use of multi source data (i.e., self-rating and supervisor rating data) in this thesis will contribute to the literature by providing additional research utilising multi sources data which has been a call from scholars in this field (e.g., Casper, Eby,

Bordeaux, & Lockwood, 2007; Greenhaus, Ziegert, & Allen, 2011; Kelly et al., 2008; Lyness & Judiesch, 2008).

A conceptual model of the process by which specific work life balance policies can most benefit both employees and organizations in the Indonesian context will be developed at the end of chapter four, based on the findings of this research. In addition, this thesis will have potential implications related to managing work life balance policies in the workplace, both in the Indonesian context and the broader context outside Indonesia. The thesis has several potential contributions in terms of theoretical, conceptual, methodological and practical contributions. These contributions will be expanded in chapter five.

1.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

This research has limitations. Firstly, this research uses a cross-sectional design. The use of cross-sectional design could limit the ability of the research to make strong inferences on the causal directions of the relationships between independent and dependent variables investigated (e.g., Bagger & Li, 2012; Fiksenbaum, 2013). Secondly, this research is limited to one sector, that is the Indonesian higher education sector, and one set of occupations (i.e. both academic and non-academic staff). Thirdly, data for this research is gathered from employees and their supervisors only. This research does not include other key actors in the sectors such as government officials, employers and family members. The limitations of this research will be discussed in chapter five.

1.6 ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS

Chapter two reviews the existing literature in the field of work and family (life) related to work life balance support, locating some potential research gaps in the field which this research is attempting to fill. Several supporting theories and empirical evidence from past studies related to the hypotheses are discussed. A research model based on the research hypotheses will be developed in chapter two.

Chapter three outlines the methodology employed which is centred on the collection of quantitative data through surveys. The chapter commences with the discussion on the justification for the methodology. The second part discusses the research process of this thesis which includes a general overview of the research design, questionnaire development, research variables and the details of the pilot study. The discussion then moves to the data collection procedures and an overview of the analysis of the data. Ethical considerations for this thesis will also be addressed in chapter three.

Chapter four sets out the results and the analysis of the results. The first part discusses the results of preliminary analyses which include validity and reliability assessments, the descriptive statistic for work life balance policies included in the analysis and the examination of the assumptions of hierarchical regression. The second part of chapter four presents the results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis that is used to examine the fitness of the regression models, correlations among research variables and to test the research hypotheses. The third part of chapter four discusses the analysis of the research findings. Thus, a conceptual model based on the findings and analysis of this research is suggested at the end of chapter four.

Chapter five summarises the relationship between the research aims as identified in chapter one and research outcomes and findings discussed in chapter four. This leads to the identification of the contributions arising from this thesis, limitations and suggestions for future research. Conclusions are drawn at the end of chapter five.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Work and family are two focal points in adult life. For the majority of people, work is the means for a better life and for improving the well-being of the family. Although work constitutes the central life interest for most people, work is only one of the several interests that people seek in life (Chandra, 2012). When the demands from the work domain interfere with the pursuit of other life interests, a conflict between the two domains occurs (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Singh, 2004). This suggests that balancing the role expectations of work and family (other life interest) domains is challenging. As many organisations and employees search for ways to better manage the expectations from both domains, there has been a growing body of research investigating work-family and work-life issues (Bardoel, De Cieri, & Santos, 2008; Bianchi & Milkie, 2010; Chandra, 2012; Sanchez-Vidal, Cegarra-Leiva, & Cegarra-Navarro, 2012). The global trend of an increased proportion of women (particularly mothers) in the paid workforce, greater numbers of employees living a dual-earner lifestyle due to both partners working and sharing their family responsibilities as well as the prevalence of single parent families has increased business, policy and academic interest in this area (Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005; Butts et al., 2013; Chang et al., 2010; Greenhaus & Powell, 2012; Le, Tissington, & Budhwar, 2010).

Work and family research has been defined as a study that ‘addresses the relationship between paid employment and commitments to kin’ (Drago & Kashian, 2003). It is interdisciplinary, crossing the boundaries of sociology, psychology, organisational behaviour, human development, labour economics, industrial relations, management, demography, gender studies (Drago & Kashian, 2003; Pitt-Catsouphes, Kossek, & Sweet, 2006), human resource management (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998) and public health (Kelly et al., 2008). The term “work and family” has been modified to “work life balance” to accommodate employees who may not have a family (Drago & Kashian, 2003) and to include personal lifestyle issues (Chang et al., 2010; Russell &

Bowman, 2000). The term “work life balance” has gained popularity in the 2000s (Bardoel, 2003; Chang et al., 2010).

This chapter reviews the existing literature in the field of work and family (life) reconciliation. The literature selected for analysis is largely sourced from peer-reviewed journal articles that were available from the databases of EbscoHost, Proquest and/or Emerald. Literature selection was not restricted by the date of publications. The articles reviewed included at least one of the following terms: work-family, work-life, work life balance, work family balance, work life conflict, work family conflict, work life interference, work family interference, work life culture, work family culture, work life balance policies, work life policies, work family policies, work life benefits, family friendly benefits, family supportive policies, family friendly program, employee friendly policies and family supportive supervisor behaviours/FSSB. Public policy documents related to work life balance policies in the Indonesian context were identified from the Indonesian government websites (e.g., Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration of the Republic of Indonesia/ ‘*Kementrian Tenaga Kerja dan Transmigrasi Republik Indonesia (Kementrans-RI)*’, The People's Representative Council of Indonesia/ ‘*Dewan Perwakilan Rakyat Republik Indonesia (DPR-RI)*’, National Development Planning Agency Republic of Indonesia/ ‘*Badan Perencanaan Pembangunan Nasional (Bappenas)*’. In addition, the Indonesian Central Agency on Statistics / ‘*Badan Pusat Statistik (BPS)*’ website is also used to get data related to employment in Indonesia.

This chapter is structured as follows. Section 2.2 presents an overview of the literature that examines work and family (life) in order to identify potential research gaps. In this research, an obvious research gap is the need for more research on work life balance support in non-Western countries. To date, the literature is dominated by work life balance studies in the context of advanced economies. For this research, the study and the context will be work life balance in Indonesia.

Section 2.3 provides an analysis of work life balance policies and discusses the rationale behind work life balance policies. The purpose here is to identify the range of policies that have been suggested and to explain how they would operate.

Section 2.4 critically reviews work life balance policies in the Indonesian context. Work life balance policies identified in Indonesia are mainly based on Indonesian laws and regulations. Indonesian's social and cultural issues are also discussed. The purpose here is to highlight that Indonesia has specific social and cultural beliefs (e.g., religiosity beliefs) that contribute to a unique work life balance policy.

Section 2.5 discusses supervisor support towards work and family (life) issues. In this research, the support refers to family supportive supervisor behaviours (FSSB). The importance of FSSB in generating positive employees' work attitudes and behaviours and the relevance of FSSB in this research are reviewed in this section. It is also highlighted in this section that there is still limited research examining FSSB in the context of work and family (life), as FSSB is a relatively new construct.

Section 2.6 discusses the impact of the utilisation of work life balance policies and FSSB on employees' work attitudes and behaviours which is a key focus of this thesis. Brief descriptions of employees' attitudes and behaviours (i.e., organisational citizenship behaviours/OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction) as well as work family conflict and their relevance to this research are also presented in this section.

Section 2.7 presents the research hypotheses. Several supporting theories and empirical evidence from past studies related to the hypotheses are discussed.

Section 2.8 draws the research model based on the research hypotheses. The research model depicts the relationships among research variables being investigated.

Section 2.9 provides a conclusion to the chapter.

2.2 THE DEVELOPMENT OF WORK-FAMILY (LIFE) RESEARCH

The work-life concept was first identified and developed in the US and in Western developed countries (De Cieri & Bardoel, 2009; Hein, 2005). Long before the recognition of work and family (life) as an area of expertise, work and family (life) issues have been embedded in academic, policy and cultural debates, suggesting that challenges around work-family (life) were also visible before the 20th century (Pitt-Catsouphes et al., 2006). The traditional gender division of labour, that is husband-breadwinner and wife-homemaker, shaped the way people view work and family (life) at the time (Pitt-Catsouphes et al., 2006). The social acceptance of the traditional gender divisions of labour served to further entrap women and promote discrimination against women. (Friedan, 1963; Pitt-Catsouphes et al., 2006).

Research in the field of work and family (life) can be traced back as early as 1949 (Bardoel et al., 2008); however, the 1970s and early 1980s can be considered as the infancy stage of work and family (life) studies (Eby et al., 2005; Gonyea & Googins, 1992; Moore, 2007) when more women entered the workplace (Frame & Hartog, 2003). As the initial trigger of interest in this field was the increasing number of women employees (Frame & Hartog, 2003; Matz, 2003), much of the research in this era was based on gendered-related issues such as women's capability in the labour force, the effects of mothers' work on children, and women's rights (Matz, 2003). Work and family (life) research in this era is limited in its scope, being focused on working mothers (Perry-Jenkins, Repetti, & Crouter, 2000) and typically reflected rigid discipline boundaries (Pitt-Catsouphes et al., 2006), which then limited the perspectives in examining the complexity of work and family (life) issues. In other words, very few studies in the field of work and family (life) in this early era reflected multi-disciplinary perspectives (Pitt-Catsouphes et al., 2006). Additionally, there was limited societal and or business support provided to help employees coping with their work and family (life) issues (Galinsky & Matos, 2011).

In the 1990s, discussion related to work and family (life) begun to be more complex as more interdisciplinary researchers (i.e., feminist, institutionalist economists, industrial relations researchers and anthropologists) took part in the studies on women in the workforce (Drago & Hyatt, 2003). In this era, work and family (life)

became a prominent topic of discussion at the workplace and in debates among public policymakers (Pitt-Catsouphes et al., 2006). As a result, work-family programs began to be developed by human resources practitioners as a means of attracting and retaining female employees (Drago & Hyatt, 2003).

Research on work and family (life) has expanded enormously in scope and coverage (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010; Drago & Hyatt, 2003). The expansion was made more pronounced by an increased diversity of workplaces and families (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010). Families increasingly diverged from traditional family stereotypes (i.e., consisting of a working father and a mother at home with children) to other types of family (e.g., dual earner families, single parent families, gay and lesbian families), which then attracted scholars' attention, to examine their work-life conditions and consequences (Marks, 2006). Workplaces also became more diverse, with growth in the economy, the increased diversity in race and ethnicity of workers (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010), the increased share of part-time and short-term employees in the workforce and also more work being performed at irregular working hours, which include evenings, weekends and public holidays (Burgess & Connell, 2006; Campbell & Burgess, 2001). The great expansion of work and family (life) research has been triggered by the greater participation of women in the workforce in general (Greenhaus & Singh, 2004) and the increased number of females holding positions in such previous male preserves as parliaments, the judiciary, politics, top-level corporate positions, professional sports, police and fire-fighting (Barnett & Hyde, 2001). In addition, women are participating more at every level of higher education (Barnett & Hyde, 2001).

Methodological improvements such as better measurements and more sophisticated analysis of work and family (life) interaction have also made a great contribution to the development of research in the field of work and family (life). (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010). In addition, the growth of communities of scholars focused on the field of work and family (life) is also believed to be a trigger for the significant expansion of work and family (life) research. (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010; Drago & Hyatt, 2003). The Sloan Work and Family Research Network, established in 1997, provides web-based resources to work-family (life) researchers, teaching faculty and the larger community of individuals interested in work-family (life) studies, which then

become a virtual community for individuals interested in advancing studies in the area of work and family (life) (Pitt-Catsouphes, 2005). The Sloan Work and Family Research Network, which is supported by the Alfred Sloan P. Foundations, provides funding for research, conferences and a commissioned handbook in the area of work and family (life) (Drago & Hyatt, 2003; Pitt-Catsouphes, 2005). The Rosabeth Moss Kanter Award for Excellence in Work and Family Research, established by MacDermid, also encourages more scholars to be more innovative in conducting research in the field of work and family (life) (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010).

With the increasing numbers of studies examining work and family (life) issues, several reviews of the work and family (life) literature have been conducted by researchers in this field. These reviews include meta-analysis of findings related to specific constructs of interest such as work family conflict (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Allen et al., 2012; Amstad et al., 2011; Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999; Butts et al., 2013; Byron, 2005; Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998, 1999; Michel et al., 2011), flexible and compressed working weeks (Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman, 1999) and a wide range of work-family supports (Butts et al., 2013; Dulebohn, Molloy, Pichler, & Murray, 2009), monographs that summarize work and family research published in industrial organisational and organisational behaviour journals (Eby et al., 2005) and methodological reviews which identify design, data sources and analytic techniques that were applied (e.g., Casper et al., 2007; Chang et al., 2010). These reviews have contributed greatly to the understanding of relationships between work and family (life) domains and they have suggested important directions for future research. However, although an extensive body of work and family (life) research has accumulated over the past few decades, this field has been dominated by researchers and samples from Western industrialized countries, mainly from the United States (Chandra, 2012; Chang et al., 2010; Galovan et al., 2010; Ozbilgin, Beauregard, Tatli, & Bell, 2011; Roberts, 2007; Shaffer et al., 2011), which means that literature reviews and meta-analyses in this field have relied primarily on these research. Very few comprehensive reviews have focused on empirical work and family (life) research that is conducted specifically outside the United States (Shaffer et al., 2011). The concentration of research in a specific group of countries (e.g., Western industrialised countries) is problematic since findings could not necessarily be

generalized to other locales, particularly those with different cultures (Chang et al., 2010; Poelmans, Spector, et al., 2003). Moreover, another limitation of much prior work-family (life) research, related to methodological issues, is the reliance on self-reporting and single source data (Casper et al., 2007; Kelly et al., 2008; Lyness & Judiesch, 2008), which is believed to be one of the major causes of common method variance in quantitative research (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

In terms of the research approach, studies in the field of work and family (life) have been dominated by quantitative studies (Chang et al., 2010; Eby et al., 2005). Quantitative and qualitative studies differ in their research focus. The majority of quantitative studies in this field examine work and family (life) from the perspective of conflict (Amstad et al., 2011; Chang et al., 2010; Eby et al., 2005; Michel et al., 2011), while qualitative studies focus more on balance as a goal to be achieved (Chang et al., 2010). Tables 2.1 and 2.2 provide a summary of methodological features of international work and family (life) research. They highlight the dominance of research on work and family (life) in advanced economies and the very few articles on Asia, especially the absence of any research on work and family (life) in Indonesia.

Table 2.1

Summary of Methodological Features of International (both US and Non-US) Work-Family (Life) Research

Features	%	
	Quant	Qual
Number of studies	77.14	22.86
Research Focus (Topic)		
Conflict/ negative spillover/ interference	74.07	30.36
Balance	16.40	58.93
Facilitation/ enrichment/ positive spillover	1.59	-
Others (e.g. fit, culture, policy uptake, gender issues)	7.94	10.71
Geographic Regions		
<u>Single Country</u>		
North America (mainly US)	58.3	
Australia/South Pacific	9.9	
UK and Ireland	7.9	
Western Europe	6.6	
Nordic Countries	4.1	
Asia	4.6	
Middle East	2.1	
Mexico/ Central America	0.4	
<u>Multiple Countries</u>	6.0	

Note: a total of 245 studies published in a range of discipline-based-peer-reviewed journals between 1987 and 2006 were included in the review

Quant = Quantitative Approach; Qual = Qualitative Approach

Source: Chang et al. (2010)

Table 2.2

Summary of Methodological Features of non-US work-family (life) Research

Features	%	Features	%
Research Method		Countries by Cluster cont.	
Survey (quantitative)	85	<u>Latin America</u>	
Interview (qualitative)	11	Brazil, Colombia, Mexico	<1
Both	4	<u>Nordic Europe</u>	
Research Design		Finland	6
Cross sectional	94	Norway	3
Longitudinal	5	Sweden	<1
Experimental	1	<u>Western Europe</u>	
Data Sources		Austria	<1
Self-report only	94	Belgium	<1
Multiple sources of data	6	France	<1
Countries by Cluster		Germany, Switzerland	<1
<u>Anglo</u>		Greece	<1
Australia	9	Ireland	<1
Canada	14	Israel	6
New Zealand	5	Italy	<1
United Kingdom	7	Netherlands	8
<u>Asia</u>		Portugal	<1
China	3	Spain	3
Hong Kong	6	<u>Africa</u>	
India	1	Kenya	<1
Iran	1	Work-Family Dimensions Examined	
Japan	1	WFC	48
Malaysia	2	WIF and FIW	39
Singapore	2	FIW and FFW	<1
Taiwan	1	FIW	<1
<u>Eastern Europe</u>		WFF and FFW	<1
Estonia, Poland, Slovakia	<1	WIF, FIW, WFF, and FFW	6
Hungary	<1	WFF	<1
Romania	1	WFC and WFF	<1
Turkey	4	Work Life Balance	4
Ukraine	<1		

Note: a total of 219 studies published in a range of discipline-based-peer-reviewed journals between 1986 and 2010 were included in the review.

WFC = work family conflict; WIF = work interference with family;
 FIW = family interference with work; FFW = family facilitation with work;
 WFF = work facilitation with family

Source: Shaffer et al. (2011)

Based on reviews of work and family (life) literature (e.g., Amstad et al., 2011; Chang et al., 2010; Eby et al., 2005; Kelly et al., 2008; Michel et al., 2011), it is revealed that the primary concern of the literature has been on the examination of work family conflict, that is an unfavourable relationship between work and family (life), which mainly focuses on assessing the potential outcomes of work family conflict on both the individual and organisation. Several detrimental effects of work family conflict on both individuals (e.g., depression, hypertension, and substance abuse) and on organisations (e.g., absenteeism and intention to quit) have been identified (e.g., Frone, 2000; Frone et al., 1992; Galovan et al., 2010; Grzywacz et al., 2007; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Liu et al., 2011). This has led to increased discussion and action by employers and public policy makers on how to reduce work family conflict among employees (Michel et al., 2011) through developing work family (life) support in the workplace (e.g., work life balance policies and supportive supervisors) to assist employees in managing the competing demands between work and family (life) (Ode-Dusseau et al., 2012).

Despite the prevalence of the policies in organisations around the world, research on the effect of work life balance policies is not well developed or integrated (Beauregard & Henry, 2009). The majority of the research examining the impact of work life balance policies has typically examined perceived availability of the policies. On the other hand, the actual utilisation of the policies has received less attention (Allen, 2001; Hammer et al., 2005; Lapierre & Allen, 2006; Muse & Pichler, 2011; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004; Ratnasingam et al., 2012; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). In addition, from meta analyses of work and family (life) studies, it was identified that very few studies directly assess work family (life) policies in non-US countries (Butts et al., 2013; Shaffer et al., 2011). Thus, research examining work family (life) policy issues (and particularly the actual utilisation of the policies) in non-Western countries are important in addressing this knowledge gap. The research findings of work and family related issues pertaining to the Western liberal countries may not be applicable to countries with different underlying cultures and forms of social organisation due to differences in social and cultural beliefs. It is argued that social and cultural beliefs are more likely to affect the ability of individuals to successfully balance work and family issues (Chandra, 2012; Clancy & Tata, 2005; Hammer et al., 2009).

2.3 WORK LIFE BALANCE POLICIES

Work life balance policies refer to a group of formal organisational programs and initiatives designed with the overall aim of helping employees with balancing their work and lives (Bardoel, 2003; Burgess & Strachan, 2005; Lee & Hong, 2011; McCarthy, Darcy, & Grady, 2010). Work life balance policies are sometimes called work-life policy (Wise & Bond, 2003), work-family policies (Beauregard & Henry, 2009), work-life benefits (Lambert, 2000), and family-friendly benefits (Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002), family-supportive policies (Foley, Linnehan, Greenhaus, & Weer, 2006), employee-friendly policies (Saltzstein, Ting, & Saltzstein, 2001), and family-friendly workplace practices (Bloom, Kretschmer, & Van Reenen, 2011). The policies emerged in the 1990s as organisations responded to the changing workforce, which includes an increasing number of dual earner couples and women with dependents (Aryee et al., 2005; Strachan & Burgess, 1998b; Wise & Bond, 2003). Along with these demographic changes in the workforce, the pressures of global competition to recruit and retain valued workers have pushed employers to pay more attention to their employees' personal and family needs (Lee & Hong, 2011; Saltzstein et al., 2001). An increased need for national policy related to work and family (life) issues has also been a concern of the International Labour Organisation (ILO). An ILO convention (No.156) that was adopted in 1981 states that it is necessary for organisations to help employees in balancing work and family (life) demands (Lewis, 1997). A mix of social justice and business benefits has become the rationale for employers to adopt the policies (Strachan, Burgess, & Henderson, 2007). In addition, from a survey in 2008 of 1,100 organisations around the United States which have implemented at least eight work life balance policies, Galinsky et al. (2008) identify several reasons (table 2.3) for implementing work life balance policies from the organisations' perspective.

Table 2.3

Employers' Reasons for Implementing Work Life Balance Policies

Consideration of Organisation's Benefits	Consideration of Legitimacy and Social Fitness
To retain employees in general To attract and recruit employees in general To retain highly-skilled employees To improve morale To increase employee commitment/engagement To increase productivity	Mandated by law To support the community It is the right thing to do Company Policy
To recruit highly-skilled employees To compete with other employers To meet business needs for flexible work schedules	Consideration of Employees' Need To respond to employees' requests/pressure To make employees happy To assist employees to manage work and family life To provide a better work environment To provide job satisfaction

Source: adapted from Galinsky et.al. (2008)

Work life balance policies vary between organisations, industries and from country to country due to a range of factors. From the organisation's perspective, the percentage of women in a company's work force, employees' age, company size, characteristics and experiences of the top management team or top decision makers, geographical location and a company's historical growth are believed to have made a contribution to the decision to adopt a number and type of work life balance policies (Bardoel & Tharenou, 1997; Bardoel, Tharenou, & Moss, 2001; Galinsky et al., 2008; McNamara, Pitt-Catsouphes, Brown, & Christina, 2012; Morgan & Milliken, 1992; Pitt-Catsouphes & Matz-Costa, 2008; Poelmans, Chinchilla, & Cardona, 2003).

While it is recognised that balancing work and family (life) is an issue for both women and men, in reality, it is women who still retain the major responsibility for domestic care (Tomlinson, 2007). For this reason, it is believed that work family conflict might be more visible at organisations with a high percentage of women employees and that these organisations might be therefore more responsive in providing support to employees on work and family (life) issues (Morgan & Milliken, 1992). Supporting child care initiatives for example, has been found to be triggered by the proportion of female employees at an organisation (Morgan & Milliken, 1992; Poelmans, Chinchilla, et al., 2003). One of the findings of the

Families and Work Institute's 2008 National Study of Employers (NSE) shows that among 1,100 organisations across the US being surveyed, organisations where women make up over 50% of the employees are more likely to offer flexible work options than those where women are less than 24% of their workforce (Galinsky et al., 2008).

The age distribution of the workforce also has made a contribution in deciding what work life balance policies are adopted by organisations. The types of work life balance policies that would meet the needs of older workers may be very different to the types of policies needed by midlife workers or younger workers. This should be considered by organisations in adopting policies that fit with the needs of the employees being targeted (Pitt-Catsouphes & Matz-Costa, 2008). Providing a wide range of work life balance policies which do not fit with the needs of the workers would not be effective (Casper & Harris, 2008; Lambert, 2000; Pitt-Catsouphes & Matz-Costa, 2008).

In terms of company size, it is widely accepted that large organisations are more likely to adopt work life balance policies than small organisations. With more resources (e.g., human resources and financial resources), large companies are in a better position to adopt varied work life balance policies (Swody & Powell, 2007). Morgan and Milliken (1992) found that larger companies with more than 500 employees are more likely to offer job sharing, leave policies and a range of dependent care benefits. Providing dependent care benefits, for example, is more economical for these companies. Moreover, big companies have been the pioneers for some policies (i.e., child care and elder care referral services) while small companies have been opposed to these policies. With more employees, it is more likely for employees in larger companies to perform job sharing. In a more current survey by Galinsky et al. (2008), it is found that large organisations with more than 1,000 employees are more likely (about 44%) to adopt child and elder care assistance for their employees compared to small organisations.

With regards to characteristics and experiences of top management or top decision makers of the company, it is more likely for a company to adopt work life balance policies if any of its decision makers have had personal experiences in juggling with

work and family (life) responsibilities (Li & Bagger, 2011; Morgan & Milliken, 1992). Specifically, males in the upper level of managers across occupations were the least likely to support the idea that companies should offer financial support for childcare (Morgan & Milliken, 1992). A recent study (Bloom et al., 2011) found that organisations with a higher proportion of female managers tend to implement more work life balance policies.

The growth of companies may also affect the adoption of certain types of work life balance policies. It is argued that growing companies are more likely to provide a wide range of work life balance policies to attract new workers and to retain existing valued employees (Morgan & Milliken, 1992). Generally, employers want to employ the best staff they can and no employer likes to lose valuable employees. Replacing staff takes up times as well as money, and losing valuable employees could cost organisations in losing tacit knowledge. Recruitment and retention are two of the benefits generally cited for adopting work and life balance policies among employers (e.g., Hill, Ferris, & Martinson, 2003; Lee & Hong, 2011; Morgan & Milliken, 1992; Ratnasingam et al., 2012; Saltzstein et al., 2001).

From an industry point of view, the differences in the average skill level of workers required and in the cost of employees' training may result in the variance of work life balance policies adopted across industries. Recruitment and retention of workers will be more important in those industries that require higher skill levels and higher training costs. In this case, adopting more varied work life balance policies to attract and retain valued workers would become salient (Morgan & Milliken, 1992). Since the composition of women and men employees also differs across industries, this also makes a contribution to the adoption of a certain range of policies. In addition, in relation to institutional theory, (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983, p. 147), companies within the same industries tend to provide similar policies and imitate each other in order to maintain their legitimacy in the industry (Morgan & Milliken, 1992; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004). Or, in other words, the adoption of work and family (life) policies, from the institutional theory, is triggered by factors other than economic efficiency and other than the actual needs of the organisation. However, the drawback of adopting work life balance policies for this symbolic reason (with

less evaluation of the actual need) could limit the benefits of the policies (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002).

National culture, which is defined as ‘historically rooted shared values, norms and dominant ideologies’ also influences on the way governments, employers and individuals address work and family (life) issues (Lewis, 1997). Through laws and regulations, government plays an important role in creating the setting in which workers manage their work and families’ (lives’) demands (Baird, 2011; Boushey, 2011; Carkoglu, Kafescioglu, & Mitrani, 2012; Strachan & Burgess, 1998a; Strachan, Burgess, & Sullivan, 2004). Considerable differences exist among countries in terms of government interventions through national policies towards work life balance issues (Lai-ching & Kam-wah, 2012; Zacharias, 2006). Thus, work life balance policies differ across nations. For example, maternity leave policies vary from country to country. In the UK, under the Work and Families Act 2006, a woman employee is entitled to paid maternity leave up to nine months, while under Children’s Development Co-Saving Act in Singapore, paid maternity leave is granted for female workers for the maximum period of four months (Lai-ching & Kam-wah, 2012). In contrast, there is no national paid maternity leave scheme in Australia and access to the leave remains limited (Baird, 2011; Baird & Charlesworth, 2007; Charlesworth, 2007; Zacharias, 2006). In terms of child support allowances, in Sweden, all employees’ children under 16 years old or in compulsory education are entitled to a child allowance (Lai-ching & Kam-wah, 2012). Under Indonesian Labour Law of 1994, the maximum number of employee’s children that are covered by family allowances is two (Presiden-RI, 1994). This research focuses on work life balance policies in the Indonesian context, which is presented in the next section of this chapter. Considering cultural specific issues and national policies, it is believed that exploring the application of work life balance policies in a non-Western cultural context would add to the evidence on the understanding of work life balance policies.

Work life balance policies can be classified into three major types: flexible work options, specialized leave policies and dependent care support (McDonald, Brown, & Bradley, 2005; Morgan & Milliken, 1992). Flexible work options refer to arrangements that provide opportunity for employees to vary their working hours to better meet family commitments or others life demands (Burgess & Strachan, 2005;

Glass & Finley, 2002). The term is often used to cover a range of policies, including reduced hours, non-standard hours, various form of remote working, and compressed working hours (Kelliher & Anderson, 2010). With these flexible work options, employees who select the working arrangement, not the employers, so-called flexibility for employees (Kelliher & Anderson, 2010, p. 84). It was revealed from the '2008 National Study of Employers' conducted by Families and Work Institute that organisations in the service industry (e.g., finance and insurance) are more likely to offer flexible work options for their employees, especially when compared with organisations in the manufacturing industries. It is also found from the survey that flexible work options are more likely to be adopted by organisations where women make up the majority of the employees (Galinsky et al., 2008).

Specialized leave policies refer to different leave arrangements and time that can be taken off from work. The leave can be both paid and unpaid. The policies are established by organisations in accordance with applicable local or national laws. Specialized leave policies include bereavement leave, maternity leave, paternity leave, sabbatical leave and leave to take care for sick family member (Bardoel, 2003; Morgan & Milliken, 1992). In order to make an interesting choice for employees who are looking for both meaningful work and organisation support in managing work and family (life) balance, non-profit organisations have been found to offer more generous leave policies than for profit organisations (Galinsky et al., 2008).

Dependent care support refer to policies designed to provides workplace social support for employees with dependents (i.e., children and elderly) (Drago & Kashian, 2003; Glass & Finley, 2002). The benefits may include support of child care needs such as providing information about existing child care providers, offering assistance in making arrangement, and offering financial assistance towards child care costs (Russell & Bowman, 2000). Additionally, in relation to the support to employees' elderly dependents, organisations may grant employees financial assistance towards the cost of elder care, and operate an elder centre for employees' parents and elderly relatives (Swoody & Powell, 2007). Prior research demonstrates that large organisations with more than 1000 employees are more likely to offer dependent care support (i.e., child and elder care assistance) for their employees compared to small

organisations (Galinsky et al., 2008). Large companies potentially have greater financial capacity to provide such benefits (Morgan & Milliken, 1992).

The list of employer provided work life balance policies varies across organisations and countries (Lee & Hong, 2011). Using the classification from Morgan and Milliken (1992) and McDonald et al. (2005), table 2.4 provides a list of the policies summarised from several studies (e.g., Bardoel, 2003; Christensen & Schneider, 2010; Kotsadam & Finseraas, 2011; Lambert, 2000; Russell & Bowman, 2000; Strachan et al., 2004).

Table 2.4
List of Work Life Balance Policies

Policies	Remarks
<i>Flexible Work Options</i>	
Compressed working week	A work arrangement when employees have a fixed starting time entailing more than eight-hour workdays in order to work fewer days during the week or pay period (Saltzstein et al., 2001), and the schedules may differ from the organisations' normal business hours (Ronen & Primps, 1981).
Flexitime	A framework within which employees are allowed some freedom to choose their starting and finishing times instead of working the traditional fixed times associated with full time employment (Olorunsola & Ibegbulan, 2003).
Job sharing	An arrangement where two employees share the work of one full-time position, including sharing salary and benefits (Brocklebank & Whitehouse, 2003).
Home telecommuting/ working from home	Periodic work at home (out of the principal office), one or more days a week (Hill, Ferris, & Martinson, 2003).
Part time work	a work arrangement based on a permanent appointment with a part time schedule (Saltzstein et al., 2001).
<i>Specialized Leave Policies</i>	
Bereavement leave	A leave without deduction of pay on each occasion of the death of a person being concerned.
Paid Maternity leave	Paid leave for mother to take care of her newborn.
Paid leave to care for sick family members	A short time off for employees who need time off from work because of the ill of a family member (Christensen & Schneider, 2010).
Paternity leave	Paid leave for a father during the first year of his infant (Kotsadam & Finseraas, 2011).
Sabbatical leave	Paid leave for personal and professional development, a special respite for academia (Davidson et al., 2010).

<i>Dependent Care Support</i>	
On site/near site company care	Care facility provided by organisations for their employees' children.
Company referral system for childcare	Information and counselling to parents provided by company on selecting quality care, and referrals to local child care providers.
Elder care	Employer assistance with managing care for elderly dependents (Kossek, DeMarr, Backman, & Kollar, 1993).
Scholarship for employees' children	Employers provide scholarships for employees' children that satisfy certain criteria.
Fitness centre	Fitness centre facility is provided by employers for employees and their eligible dependents (e.g., spouses, and children).

Source: Adapted from (Bardoel, 2003; Christensen & Schneider, 2010; Kotsadam & Finseraas, 2011; Lambert, 2000; McDonald et al., 2005; Morgan & Milliken, 1992; Russell & Bowman, 2000; Strachan et al., 2004)

Balancing work and family (life) has also been a major objective of the International Labour Organisation (Hein, 2005). In 1981, the Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention (No.156) accompanied with recommendations (No. 156) was adopted by the ILO to ensure employees with family responsibilities are not being subject to discrimination (ILO, 1981). Part-time workers are protected under the ILO convention no. 175 that was adopted in 1994 to ensure no discrimination in the areas of access to employment, working conditions and social security (ILO, 1994). In order to further support equality of all women workers and the health and safety of the mother and child, the ILO convention (No.183) was adopted in 2000. The ILO convention (No. 183) defines five core elements of maternity protection at work: maternity leave, cash and medical benefits, employment protection and non-discrimination, health protection and breastfeeding arrangements at the workplace (ILO, 2000). Table 2.5 identifies several work life balance conventions that have been developed by the ILO.

Table 2.5

List of Suggested Work Life Balance Policies by the ILO

Policies	Remarks
Part-time work	<p>A work arrangement in which the normal hours of work are less than the normal hours of full-time work. Part-time workers should receive the same protection as comparable full-time workers in terms of (a) the right to organize, bargain collectively, and act as workers' representatives (b) occupational safety and health (c) discrimination in employment and occupation</p> <p>Article 1 & 4 of the ILO Convention No. 175 (ILO, 1994)</p>
Leave to care for sick family members	<p>Leave of absence in the case of the illness of a dependent child or other members of the worker's immediate family.</p> <p>The ILO Recommendation No. 156 (ILO, 1981)</p>
Family-friendly relocation	<p>Family responsibilities and consideration such as the spouse's place of employment and the possibilities of educating children should be considered when transferring workers with family responsibilities to other locations.</p> <p>The ILO Recommendation No. 156 (ILO, 1981)</p>
Childcare and family services and facilities	<p>It is recommended to make an aim of national policy to develop or promote childcare, family and other community services, public or private, responding to workers with family responsibilities needs.</p> <p>The ILO Recommendation No. 156 (ILO, 1981)</p>
Social Security	<p>Social security benefits, tax relief and other appropriate measures should be available to workers with family responsibilities</p> <p>The ILO Recommendation No. 156 (ILO, 1981)</p>
Employment protection and non-discrimination for employees with family responsibilities	<p>Marital status, family situation or family responsibilities should not, as such, constitute valid reasons for refusal or termination of employment.</p> <p>The ILO Recommendation No. 156 (ILO, 1981)</p>

Maternity leave	<p>A female employee shall be entitled to a maternity leave (not less than 14 weeks) upon production of a medical certificate or other appropriate certification.</p> <p>Article 4, paragraph 1 of the ILO Convention No. 183 (ILO, 2000)</p>
Leave in case of illness or complications related to pregnancy	<p>A female worker shall be entitled to leave in the case of illness, complications or risk of complications arising out of pregnancy or childbirth upon production of a medical certificate or other appropriate certification.</p> <p>Article 5 of the ILO Convention No. 183 (ILO, 2000)</p>
Cash and medical benefits for female employee	<p>A female worker who is on maternity leave or leave in case of illness or complications related to pregnancy shall be entitled to cash benefits for maintaining herself and her child in proper conditions of health and with a suitable standard of living. A female worker shall also be supported with medical benefits which include prenatal, childbirth and postnatal care, as well as hospitalization care when necessary</p> <p>Article 6, paragraph 1;2; and 7 of the ILO Convention No. 183 (ILO, 2000)</p>
Employment protection and non-discrimination for female employee	<p>Employers could not terminate the employment of a female worker during her pregnancy or her maternity leave or during a period following her return to work, except on grounds unrelated to the pregnancy or birth of the child and its consequences or nursing.</p> <p>A female employee is also guaranteed the right to return to the same position or an equivalent position paid at the same rate at the end of her maternity leave.</p> <p>Article 8, paragraph 1 &2 of the ILO Convention No. 183 (ILO, 2000)</p>
Health protection for pregnant or breastfeeding employee	<p>Pregnant or breastfeeding employee should not perform work which has been determined by the competent authority to be prejudicial to the health of the mother or the child, or where an assessment has established a significant risk to the mother's health or that of her child.</p> <p>Article 3 of the ILO Convention No. 183 (ILO, 2000)</p>

Breastfeeding arrangements at the workplace	<p>A female employee shall be supported with the right to one or more daily breaks or a daily reduction of working hours to breastfeed her child. These breaks or the reduction of daily hours of work shall be counted as working time and remunerated accordingly.</p> <p>Article 10, paragraph 1 &2 of the ILO Convention No. 183 (ILO, 2000)</p>
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Source: (ILO, 1981, 1994, 2000)

This research focuses on work life balance policies in the Indonesian context. The existing work life balance literature has been derived mainly from Western countries, especially the United States (Butts et al., 2013; Casper, Harris, Taylor-Bianco, & Wayne, 2011; Shaffer et al., 2011). Limited research has been conducted in other national contexts, where employees may have a need for different work life balance support due to varied lifestyles, cultures and levels of economic development. Therefore, more research is needed in non-western countries in order to test the applicability of, and further develop, the literature with regard to the effects of work life balance support (Brough et al., 2008; Shaffer et al., 2011; Spector et al., 2004). More specifically, to the researcher's knowledge, to date, there is not any published research conducted in Indonesia, where religiosity is important in individual family and work lives, which may result in a unique work life balance support demand. Based on the work of Butts et al. (2013), 42 publications that specifically examined work life balance policies have been reviewed (e.g. Aletraris, 2010; Breaugh & Frye, 2008; Casper & Harris, 2008; Grover & Crooker, 1995; Hammer, Neal, Newsom, Brockwood, & Colton, 2005; Orthner & Pittman, 1986; Wang et al., 2011; Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). This research was published in a range of discipline-based-peer-reviewed journals between 1986 and 2011. Table 2.6 presents a summary of the review.

Table 2.6

Summary of Research on Work Life Balance Policies Published in 1986 -2011

Features	%	Features	%
Work Life Balance Policies Examined		Policy Type Examined	
<i>Flexible Work Options</i>	39.02	Availability	59.52
Part-time work		Usage	23.80
Flexitime		Both	16.67
Job sharing		Outcomes of the Policies Examined	
Telecommuting		Job Satisfaction	17
Working from home		FSOP	16
Compressed work schedules		Work Family Conflict (WFC)	21
<i>Specialized Leave policies</i>	20.73	Intention to Stay	14
Paid maternity leave		Affective Commitment	32
Unpaid maternity leave		Geographic Regions	
Paid paternity leave		US	76.19
Sick leave		Non-US	23.80
Leave for caring for family member		Anglo:	
<i>Dependent Care Support</i>	40.24	Australia	
On-site/ near site child care		New Zealand	
Information and referral for childcare		Europe:	
Child care subsidies		Netherlands	
Child care/parenting seminars		Turkey	
Sick childcare centre		Asia:	
Elder-care		China	
Family insurance/saving plans		Thailand	
Pre-tax childcare accounts		India	
Training on childcare and education		Africa:	
Family health insurance		Kenya	

Note: a total of 42 published studies included in the review; FSOP = Family-Supportive Organisation Perceptions

Source: adapted from Butts et al. (2013)

Table 2.6 clearly shows that the majority of research on work life balance policies was conducted in the US (i.e., 76.19 %) and reaffirming prior meta-analysis of work life balance research (see table 2.2). Only 23.8 % of the studies reviewed were conducted outside the US. Among the few studies in non-US contexts, none was conducted in Indonesia. In addition, table 2.6 also reveals that the focus of the previous studies was on the examination of the availability of work life balance policies, instead of the actual use of the policies.

Studying work and family (life) related issues in Indonesia is important for a number of reasons. First, family is considered as the most central element in Indonesian culture (Sat, 2012). Second, Indonesia is categorized as one of the next generation of emerging industrialized countries and there has been a greater recognition for

workers' interest in Indonesia since the end of the Soeharto regime in 1997 (Bamber & Legget, 2001). Additionally, Indonesia has been experiencing a significant growth in terms of number of dual earner couples (Yustrianthe, 2008), women's participation in the workforce (Bennington & Habir, 2003; Muntamah, 2012; Ridho & Al Raysid, 2010; Yustrianthe, 2008) and single working parents (Fitri & Fajrianti, 2012) which makes the issue of work family (life) balance an important community and economic issue.

To gain an insight about work life balance policies that are applicable in Indonesia, the following section of this chapter presents a description related to work life balance policies in the Indonesian context.

2.4 WORK LIFE BALANCE POLICIES IN INDONESIA

The composition of the Indonesian workforce has changed dramatically. The share of female workers in the Indonesian workforce has increased from 29.3 % in the 1960's to 51.7 % in 2007. According to the World Bank (2013), women make up more than half of the Indonesian workforce. Women have played significant roles in many sectors. For example, Indonesian women account for six per cent of positions on corporate boards (The World Bank, 2013; UN Women, 2012), eighteen per cent of the positions in Indonesia's national parliament are held by women (UN Women, 2012) and at least twenty per cent of high positions in Indonesian higher education are also held by women (Yakub, 2013). With the significant growth in female participation in the Indonesian workforce, the number of dual income earning households has also increased (Ridho & Al Raysid, 2010; Yustrianthe, 2008). A recent survey with 500 respondents conducted by Nielsen Indonesia revealed that Indonesians are becoming more concerned about the fact that they spend too much time at workplaces and have less time for family and friends. The survey also revealed that Indonesians believe that it is very important to achieve a balance between work and family (life). This is attributed to the Indonesian culture, which highly values the moments people spend with their family, relatives and friends (Sat, 2012).

At the national level, the Indonesian government regulates to address work and family (life) issues. ‘Undang-Undang Republik Indonesia Nomer 13 Tahun 2003 tentang Ketenagakerjaan’ or Law Number 13 of 2003 on Labour (The Indonesian Labour Law) is formed to protect employment in Indonesia. The law ensures all labour in Indonesia gets equal opportunities with no discrimination, to promote wealth for employees and their families (Presiden-RI, 2003). Related to work life balance policies, under article 82 number 1 and article 84 of Indonesian Labour Law Number 13 of 2003, women employees are entitled to 3 months paid maternity leave. The leave can be taken in the period of 1.5 months before and after giving birth (Presiden-RI, 2003).

Bereavement leave is also regulated in the Indonesian Labour Law. In article 93 number 2, an employee is entitled to leave with pay for up to two days on each occasion of the death of a relative. This covers wife/husband/mother (in law)/ father (in law)/daughter (in law)/son (in law), or relatives who live together in the same house.

To give extra support for employees with dependents who work for the government across the public sectors, in all levels of management, under Indonesian Labour Law, number 16 of 1994, such employees are entitled to ‘tunjangan keluarga’ or a family allowance. The amount of the allowance is 10 % of the basic salary for the wife or husband of the employee. For those who have children under the age of twenty one, who have never been married, and do not have a permanent job and are still a dependant of the employee (parent) they are entitled to the allowance of 2% of the basic salary. According to the Indonesian Labour Law, number 16 of 1994, two is the maximum number of children that are covered by the allowances (Presiden-RI, 1994).

It is also expected that organisations will allow their employees to do their religious rituals in working time. This is also regulated under the Indonesian Labour Law, number 13 of 2003, where article 80 of the law states that the employer must provide enough time for their employees to do compulsory religious rituals without any pay reduction. Since the majority of Indonesians are Moslem (over 85 % of population), almost all organisations in Indonesia provide a longer break for their Moslem

employees on Friday afternoon to do their compulsory prayers. Under article 80 of the law, employees have to do their compulsory religious rituals, so the employer must pay employees. Additionally, to support employees and their families to celebrate religious holidays, under Indonesian Minister of Manpower Regulation Number PER-04/MEN/1994, it is mandatory for employers to pay a religious holiday allowance (Tunjangan Hari Raya/ THR) in cash and/or other forms at least a week before their employees' religious holiday celebrations (Menaker-RI, 1994). Religious holidays in Indonesia that are acknowledged and receive an allowance are Eid al-Fitr for Moslems, Christmas for Christians, Nyepi for Hindus, Waisak (Vesak) for Buddhists and Imlek for Kong Hu Cu. Those who are eligible for the allowance are employees who have tenure of at least 3 months or more continuously. This allowance is to be paid once in a year with a minimum amount of one month's salary for those who have worked for at least 12 months, whereas employees with tenure of 3 months on a continuous basis but less than 12 months are entitled to the allowance of one month's salary in proportion to the period of employment (Menaker-RI, 1994). In practice, the allowance is given once a year close to Eid al-Fitr to all eligible employees regardless of their religion.

Table 2.7 summarizes work life balance policies which are covered in the Indonesian law and regulations (i.e., Menaker-RI, 1994; Presiden-RI, 1994; Presiden-RI, 2003).

Table 2.7
Work Life Balance Policies under Indonesian Law

Policies	Remarks
<i>Specialized Leave Policies</i>	
Bereavement leave	<p>Leave (1-2 days) without deduction of pay on each occasion of the death of a person being concerned (wife/husband/mother (in law)/ father (in law)/daughter (in law)/son (in law), or relatives who live together in the same house.</p> <p>Article 93, number 2 & 4 of the Indonesian Labour Law Number 13 of 2003 (Presiden-RI, 2003)</p>
Paid Maternity leave	<p>Paid leave for mother for three months in total which can be taken 1.5 months before and after giving birth.</p> <p>Article 82, number 1; Article 84 of the Indonesian Labour Law Number 13 of 2003 (Presiden-RI, 2003)</p>
Paternity leave	<p>Paid leave for father up to two days when his wife is giving birth and or miscarriage</p> <p>Article 93, number 2, paragraph c; Article 93, number 4, paragraph f of the Indonesian Labour Law Number 13 of 2003 (Presiden-RI, 2003)</p>
Sabbatical leave	<p>Paid leave for personal and professional development.</p> <p>Article 93, number 2, paragraph i of the Indonesian Labour Law Number 13 of 2003 (Presiden-RI, 2003)</p>
<i>Dependent Care Support</i>	
Family allowance	<p>Allowance for employees with dependents (wife/husband and children) who work for the Indonesian government</p> <p>Article 53, number 1 & 2 of the Indonesian Labour Law, number 16 of 1994 (Presiden-RI, 1994)</p>

<i>Religiosity Support</i>	
Longer break and or leave to do religiosity rituals	Longer break and or leave which employees are entitled to, to do compulsory religious rituals without any pay reduction. Article 80 of the Indonesian Labour Law Number 13 of 2003 (Presiden-RI, 2003)
Religious Holiday Allowance	Allowance that has to be paid by employer in cash and/or other forms a week before their employees' religious holiday celebration Article 1 of Indonesian Minister of Manpower Regulation Number PER-04/MEN/1994 (Menaker-RI, 1994)

Source: (Menaker-RI, 1994; Presiden-RI, 1994, 2003)

Apart from work life balance related policies that are governed under Indonesian Labour Law, employers are also important in supporting employees to achieve balance between work and family (life). To assist employees in balancing work and family (life) responsibilities, organisations in Indonesia are becoming more willing to offer flexible work options, which include flexitime, compressed working week, job sharing and home telecommuting (Murti, 2011; Solicha, 2011; Wawa, 2012; Winarko, 2010; Yustrianthe, 2008). Some organisations in Indonesia have given flexibility for their employees to vary their working time. Under Indonesian Labour Law, a standard working week is 40 hours per week. A standard working day for most organisations in Indonesia is 8 hours per day from 8 am to 5 pm from Monday to Friday (Yustrianthe, 2008). Organisations that offer flexitime allow their employees to vary these standard working times (Wawa, 2012). A compressed working week gives employees an option to reduce their working week to fewer days than the standard working week, and employees make up the full number of hours per week by working longer days, which in turn gives the employees more days off to engage with family (life) demands (Solicha, 2011; Winarko, 2010). Job sharing refers to a working arrangement in which two or more employees share a full-time job (Brocklebank & Whitehouse, 2003; Nickless, 2013). Although job sharing could occur across many industries (Nickless, 2013), in Indonesia, this working arrangement is more usually adopted in academia. Across universities in Indonesia, it is very common to have two or more lecturers share the responsibilities in teaching

one course in one teaching period (Topari, 2011). In addition, there is also a growing trend for telecommuting work among Indonesians, in which employees do not always come to the office to do their job; instead they are allowed to do the job outside the office (Wawa, 2012). However, the nature of the job would also affect the adoption of flexible work options (Yustrianthe, 2008).

Providing on site/ near site company child care is one of the work life balance policies that is provided by some organisations in Indonesia (Fazriyati, 2011; Rilis, 2012). In some organisations, the childcare arrangements were established to accommodate their employees' children only, however some of the childcare is now open for the public (Rilis, 2012). Providing childcare facilities for employees is intended to help employees with children. However, child care benefits and provision may be less valuable in Indonesian societies compared to Western societies. This is because in Indonesia, it is very common to have co-residence with one's parents or in-laws or even with extended families that could provide assistance in doing household work and taking care of the children. According to Hofstede (2001), unlike in individualist societies, a number of people living closely together, not just parents and children but also extended families (e.g., grandparents, uncles, aunts, and cousins) and other housemates are considered as a family. Moreover, having a personal nanny and or paid help at home is more affordable and common among Indonesian families. Additionally, in collectivistic culture, it is both a duty and a pleasure for grandparents to take care of the grandchild. If grandchildren are sent to child care, grandparents may get offended as they may feel that they are not trusted (Ayca, 2008). Although day care is not a common choice for parents in Indonesia, it is available and is the choice of some working parents.

Based on the work life balance policies identified in Indonesia, which are both mandated by Indonesian Laws and are initiated by firms, table 2.8 summarizes all the policies in the Indonesian context being investigated for the purpose of this research.

Table 2.8
List of Most Commonly Adopted Work Life Balance Policies in
The Indonesian Context

Policies
Flexible Work Options
Compressed working week
Flexitime
Job Sharing
Home telecommuting/ working from home
Specialized Leave Policies
Bereavement leave
Paid Maternity leave
Paternity leave
Sabbatical leave
Dependent Care Support
On-site/ near site childcare
Family allowance
*Religiosity Support
Longer break and or leave to do religiosity rituals
Religious Holiday Allowance

Note: *Very specific to the Indonesian context and added as the fourth category of work life balance policies for the purpose of this research

Source: (Fazriyati, 2011; Menaker-RI, 1994; Murti, 2011; Presiden-RI, 1994, 2003; Rilis, 2012; Solicha, 2012; Wawa, 2012; Winarko, 2010)

There are several triggers for employers to support employees upon work and family (life) issues. The bottom line is the employer's interest in recruiting and retaining valued employees (Lee & Hong, 2011; Otto & Kroth, 2011; Saltzstein et al., 2001). Related to this, assessing the actual impact of work life balance policies on both employers and employees is important. According to Roberts et al. (2004), studies on work life balance policies are classified into two types: (1) analysis of the impact of a specific policy on employees or employers and (2) studies on the comprehensive understanding of the whole work life balance policies that are not related to a specific outcome. This research combines these two types of research by assessing the impact of various work life balance policies on a wide range of employee attitudes and behaviours as well as on employees' level of work and family conflict in the Indonesian context. This research is located in the formal sector of Indonesian employment (i.e. higher degree education). The Indonesian laws and regulations on employment discussed in this thesis are meant to protect Indonesian workers in all

levels and sectors of employment (both formal and informal sectors) (Presiden-RI, 2003). However, the majority of the articles on those laws and regulations only cover Indonesian workers in the formal sector (Ady, 2012). Less consideration of the informal sector in the laws and regulations is probably because the majority of the Indonesian workers in the informal sector are not represented by trade unions (Manning & Roesad, 2007).

Together with work life balance policies, it has been acknowledged that the role of immediate supervisors is very important in dealing with employees' work and family (life) related issues. It has been argued that work life balance policies alone might not be sufficient in generating positive work attitudes and behaviours among employees without family-supportive supervisors (McDonald et al., 2005; Rodgers, 1993; Swody & Powell, 2007; Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). This is because supervisors are key persons in organisations in conveying information related to work life balance policies and giving approval on the utilisation of the policies (McCarthy, Darcy, & Grady, 2010; Swody & Powell, 2007). Furthermore, it is argued that informal support from supervisors for work and family (life) issue might be more important to employees than the provision of formal work life balance policies (Allen, 2001; Behson, 2005; Hammer et al., 2009; Kossek & Nichol, 1992). For this reason, this research will also investigate the impact of supervisor support on employees' work attitudes and behaviours as well as on employees' level of work family conflict along with assessing the impact of work life balance policies. Thus, to give more understanding about supervisor support that is specific to work and family (life), the following section of this chapter provides a discussion of the role of supervisor support. The discussion is then followed by the impact of both work life balance policies and family supportive supervisor behaviours on employees' work attitudes and behaviours, which is the central issue of this research. Hypotheses and a research model are then presented.

2.5 SUPERVISOR SUPPORT ON WORK AND FAMILY (LIFE)

Supervisor support is referred to as a form of informal organisational support (Hammer, Kossek, Zimmerman, & Daniels, 2007). There is a growing recognition that supervisor support can play an important role in assisting employees to balance work and family (life) responsibilities (e.g., Behson, 2005; Hammer et al., 2009). It has been argued that supervisor support plays an important role in helping employees to deal with work and family (life) issues (McDonald et al., 2005; Rodgers, 1993; Swody & Powell, 2007; Wang & Walumbwa, 2007) which is even more important than the provision of a range of work life balance policies (Allen, 2001; Behson, 2005; Hammer et al., 2009; Kossek & Nichol, 1992; McCarthy et al., 2010).

Despite the growing interest on the role of supervisor support on work and family (life) outcomes, most prior research has been based heavily on general measures of supervisor support, as opposed to specific supervisor support that is supportive of the family role (Hammer et al., 2009; Hammer et al., 2007). It is suggested that, compared to the general measures, family-supportive specific measures better predict work and family interaction outcomes due to the fact that the use of the latter provides more ‘fine-grained’ analyses of its impact on subordinates (Greenhaus et al., 2011). Thus, family specific supervisor support (i.e., family supportive supervisor behaviours/FSSB) developed by Hammer et al. (2009) is utilised in this research.

FSSB is defined as “ behaviours exhibited by supervisors that are supportive of families” (Hammer et al., 2009, p. 837). There are four dimensions of the measure (Hammer et al., 2009): emotional support, role modelling behaviour, instrumental support, and creative work-family management. Emotional support refers to the extent to which supervisors are able to make their subordinates feel comfortable discussing any issues related to family and express concern for the way that the work role has an impact on the family. This support also relates to the extent to which supervisors demonstrate respect, understanding, sympathy, and sensitivity in terms of family responsibilities.

Role modelling behaviour refers to the extent to which supervisors provide examples of strategies and behaviours that are believed by subordinates to lead to expected work-life outcomes. The importance of supervisors' roles in modelling behaviours is supported by social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) which argues that "the vast majority of human learning occurs through the observation of others rather than through direct experience" (Hammer et al., 2009, p. 841). In addition, sharing ideas or advice to subordinates related to successful experiences in juggling work and family (life) can be very beneficial (Hammer et al., 2009).

Instrumental support refers to the extent to which supervisors are reactive in providing day-to-day resources to help their subordinates in achieving balance between work and family roles. These may include reacting to scheduling requests for flexibility, interpreting organisation policies and managing routine work schedules to ensure the completion of the task (Hammer et al., 2009).

Creative work-family management is proactive, more strategic and innovative action to restructure work to support their subordinates in pursuing effectiveness on and off the job. These behaviours can involve major changes in the time, place and how the work is done to accommodate subordinates' work and family (life) responsibilities (Hammer et al., 2009).

Since little is known about the underlying process, the antecedents and the outcomes of FSSB (Hammer et al., 2009; Straub, 2012), a conceptual framework that explores and advances the understanding of FSSB has been developed recently by Straub (2012). The framework includes potential antecedents and outcomes of FSSB (table 2.9). The proposed antecedents are classified into individual-level factors and contextual-level factors. On the other side, the proposed outcomes are classified into employee-level outcomes and team-level outcomes. Yet, the conceptual framework still needs to be empirically tested (Straub, 2012). This research takes part in examining some of the employee-level outcomes. As has been stated in the previous section of this chapter, the effect of FSSB on a range of employee's attitudes and behaviours are examined together with the utilisation of a bundle of work life balance policies.

Table 2.9

Antecedents and Outcomes of FSSB in Organisations

Antecedents	Outcomes
<p>Individual-Level Factors</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Negative side of work-family interference Positive side of work-family interference Life course stage, family life stage Social identification Gender roles <p>Contextual-Level Factors</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Family supportive organisational culture Top management openness Rewards system Access to work-family infrastructure Leader member exchange (LMX) quality 	<p>Employee-Level Outcomes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Well-being Job and career satisfaction Job performance Organisational commitment Engagement Turn over intentions <p>Team-Level Outcomes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Team performance Team cohesion

Source: adapted from Straub (2012)

2.6 THE IMPACT OF WORK LIFE BALANCE POLICIES AND FSSB

Research related to the impacts of work life balance policies on employees' job-related attitudes and behaviour has mainly focused on the perceived availability of the forms of support. The actual application of policies has received limited attention in the literature (Allen, 2001; Hammer et al., 2005; Lapierre & Allen, 2006; Muse & Pichler, 2011; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004; Ratnasingam et al., 2012; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). It is argued that perceived availability of work life balance policies may be a necessary, yet insufficient condition to address work life balance issues and outcomes (McCarthy, Cleveland, Hunter, Darcy, & Grady, 2013). Thus, to contribute to the literature, the actual utilisation of work life balance policies is the focus of this study. Self-interest theory (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Sears & Funk, 1991) posits that employees' attitudes and behaviours are driven by their own personal gains and benefits. This may infer that the impact of work life balance policies on employees' attitudes and behaviours increase because of the direct benefits gained from policy use (Butts et al., 2013), thus, in this thesis, the study on the impact of work life balance policies is conducted on the actual use of the policies instead of the availability of the policies. Scholars (e.g., Casper & Harris, 2008; Lambert, 2000) argue that work life balance policies would be more effective in fostering employees' attitudes and behaviours when employees find that work life balance policies are personally useful. Or in other words, work life balance policies

are expected to make work and life more manageable when these policies are used (Kelly et al., 2008). Thus, extending research to determine the impact of the actual use of work life balance policies (beyond the availability of the policies) on employees' attitudes and behaviour will represent a research contribution.

Work attitudes and behaviours that are examined in this research include OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. These kinds of employee attitudes and behaviours are chosen to be tested in this research because it is generally claimed by employers that adopting both formal and informal organisational support on work and family (life) issues could increase these attitudes and behaviours, which then will benefit the organisations (Galinsky et al., 2008). There are several triggers for employers to adopt work life balance policies, which include increased employee commitment/engagement, positive productivity/performance outcomes and improved job satisfaction (Galinsky et al., 2008, p. 32). *Does the utilisation of work life balance policies and FSSB increase employees' positive attitudes and behaviours?* However, there is a lack of empirical research exploring the impact of utilisation (not only availability) of work life balance policies on employees' attitudes and behaviours (Casper & Harris, 2008; Hammer et al., 2005), especially on employees' performance (i.e., OCB and in-role performance) (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Butts et al., 2013; Muse & Pichler, 2011). Thus, this research is trying to address this question. To add more to the literature, this research attempts to address the scarcity of evidence on the links between organisational work-family (life) support on employee job performance, as not much research has reported effects of the supports on employees' performance as rated by supervisors (Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012). The use of supervisory rating for performance measures in this research is discussed in detail in the methodology chapter of this thesis. Furthermore, providing evidence of the link between organisational work and family (life) support and employees' job performance may stimulate organisations to not only offer the support but also encourage and facilitate the use of the support explicitly (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012).

Additionally, the impact of utilisation of work life balance policies and FSSB on employees' work family conflict will also be examined in this research. Several

studies (e.g., Byron, 2005; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999; Wang et al., 2011) show that adopting a wide range of work life balance policies and providing supervisor support can lessen the level of employees' work family conflict. However, considering the specific social and cultural beliefs in the Indonesian context, *does the utilisation of work life balance policies and FSSB reduce work family conflict among Indonesian employees?* Schein (1984) suggests that Eastern societies give greater priority to work as compared to Western societies. In Eastern societies, extra work may be legitimized or even encouraged (Hofstede, 2001). According to Chandra (2012), with the example of Japan and India, work is paramount for most Asian societies. When issues related to work life balance occur, for the sake of work and careers, Asians are inclined to sacrifice family (Chandra, 2012). Thus, how employees in collectivist countries experience work family conflict might be different with those in individualist countries, which in turn leads to different needs for work life balance support. Another consideration that needs to be taken into account is the family unit is larger in Indonesia and includes extended family members (e.g., grandparent, uncle, aunts, and cousins) and other housemates whom one can ask for support to meet work and family (life) demands. As has been highlighted previously in the previous section of this chapter (i.e., section 2.4), to get more support in order to meet the competing demands between work and family (life), it is common and relatively affordable among Indonesians to have a nanny and or paid helper at home. Thus, investigating the impact of utilisation of work life balance policies and family supportive supervisor behaviours on employees' work family conflict among Indonesians has yet to be tested.

Before presenting the research hypotheses for this research, a brief description of each of the work attitudes and behaviours examined as dependent variables in this research (i.e., organisational commitment, OCB, in-role performance and job satisfaction) and work family conflict are presented. The description provides the definitions of each of the attitudes and behaviours and their concepts and measures developments.

2.6.1 Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment has been studied from many perspectives. It is subject to different definitions and measurements. However, according to Mathieu and Zajac (1990), there is a common theme among the various definitions and measures of organisational commitment wherein organisational commitment is considered to be the individual attachment to the organisation. As has been advanced by Cohen (2007), one of the earliest approaches to explain the concept of organisational commitment is the *side-bet* theory from Becker (1960). According to Becker (1960, p. 32), side bets refer to ‘consequence of the person’s participation in social organisations’. This could be in terms of time, effort, money and skills. The side bet theory argues that it is the individual side bets or total valued investment which evolves over time that makes the individual commit to the organisation. If an individual leaves the organisation, these side bets would be lost. Thus, remaining in the organisation is the way to avoid losses such as the financial loss related to a pension fund, the loss of seniority, and the loss of ease in doing work (Becker, 1960). In short, the side bets theory views a close link between organisational commitment process and turnover process (Cohen, 2007). Some scholars (e.g., Alutto, Hrebiniak, & Alonso, 1973) provide support for the theory while others (e.g., Meyer & Allen, 1984) show contradictory evidence.

Porter and his colleagues (1974) offer an attitudinal approach in viewing organisational commitment (Cohen, 2007). According to Porter et.al (1974, p. 604) organisational commitment is defined as: “the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation. Such commitment can generally be characterized by at least three factors: (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; (c) a definite desire to maintain organisational membership”. To measure organisational commitment in this approach, an Organisational Commitment Questionnaire/ OCQ was developed (Porter et al., 1974). Although the OCQ followed the three-dimensional definition of organisational commitment from Porter and his colleagues (1974), the measure was used as a unidimensional tool by most scholars (Cohen, 2007).

The multidimensional approach of organisational commitment was first developed in 1980s. Two prominent studies in this approach are O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) and Meyer and Allen (1984). O'Reilly and Chatman (1986, p. 493) view organisational commitment as the individual psychological attachment to an organisation that may be predicted by three distinct dimensions: (a) compliance or instrumental involvement for specific, extrinsic rewards; (b) identification or involvement based on a desire for affiliation; and (c) internalization or involvement predicted on congruence between individual and organisational values. An organisational commitment measure was developed by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) based on these three distinct dimensions. Regardless of the remarkable approach to organisational commitment offered by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), some methodological problems of the measure were pointed out (see for example Vandenberg, Self, & Seo, 1994). One of the problems was it was difficult to differentiate it from the OCQ measure (Vandenberg et al., 1994).

Meyer and Allen (1984) suggested two dimensions of organisational commitment; namely affective commitment and continuance commitment. The third dimension of commitment, which is normative commitment, was proposed a few years later (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991). According to Allen and Meyer (1990, p. 1), affective commitment refers to "employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in, the organisation". Continuance component refers to "commitment based on the costs that employees associate with leaving the organisation". Normative commitment refers to "employees' feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation". The measure of Allen and Meyer's three components of organisational commitment is also not without criticisms. However, to date, the approach has become the dominant approach in studying organisational commitment (Cohen, 2007; Shen & Zhu, 2011). This research also utilised the Allen and Meyer's measure.

2.6.2 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and In-Role Performance

The term organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) was initially introduced in early 1980s by Organ and his colleagues (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). It was originally defined as “individual behaviour that is discretionally, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that, in the aggregate, promotes the effective functioning of the organisation” (Organ, 1988, p. 4). However, the definition then was revised as "performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place" (Organ, 1997, p. 95). Based on the revised definition, it is suggested that during performance appraisal, OCB may be acknowledged and rewarded (Organ, 1997). Since its inception, there has been enormous interest among scholars towards the organisational citizenship topic. However, it has been found that the terminologies which refer to organisational citizenship are inconsistent (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). Some overlapping terms for OCB include prosocial organisational behaviour (e.g., Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), extrarole behaviour (e.g., Pearce & Gregersen, 1991) , voice behaviour (e.g., Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003), organisational spontaneity (e.g., George & Jones, 1997), and contextual performance (e.g., Borman & Motowidlo, 1997).

Although OCB has been conceptualized in many different ways, two leading concepts are identified (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). The concepts are five dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour (Organ, 1988) and Williams and Anderson’s (1991) conceptualization of organisational citizenship behaviour. According to Organ (1988) organisational citizenship behaviour consists of five dimensions, namely altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue.

Based on the target of behaviour, Williams and Anderson (1991) classify OCB into OCB directed toward individuals (OCBI) and OCB directed toward the organisation (OCBO). Incorporated with the five dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour (Organ, 1988), it is identified (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002) that

altruism and courtesy dimensions both fit in OCBI, while conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue dimensions fit in OCBO.

Regardless of the diverse conceptualization of OCB, the five dimension OCB (Organ, 1988) has been identified as the most popular concept used among scholars (LePine et al., 2002). Some reasons for this are the concept has the longest history, and the measure of the concept that was developed by Podsakoff and his colleagues (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990) has been acknowledged as a very thorough measure (LePine et al., 2002). Thus, for this reason, the OCB measure from Podsakoff et al (1990) is utilized in this research with some adaptation that suits the Indonesian context.

In contrast to OCB, in-role performance refers to employee behaviours related to the job requirements that are recognized by a formal reward system (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Compared to OCB, it seems that in-role performance issues have gained less attention among scholars. Initial empirical evidence was found in Williams and Anderson's (1991) study to clarify that in-role performance and OCB are relatively different aspects of performance. There is still limited research on the impact of utilisation of work life balance policies on employee job performance (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Butts et al., 2013; Muse & Pichler, 2011) especially on supervisory rating (Ode-Dusseau et al., 2012), regardless of the claim that work life balance policies could potentially increase employee performance (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Muse & Pichler, 2011). This research examines the impact of the utilisation of work life balance policies and FSSB on employee's job attitudes and behaviours, including job performance. As both OCB and in-role performance have been categorized as different aspects of job performance (Williams & Anderson, 1991), both OCB and in-role performance are examined in this research. In order to minimize common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003), both OCB and in-role performance in this research are based on supervisory ratings.

2.6.3 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction refers to positive or negative emotional feelings related to one's job and job experiences (Locke, 1976). It is a "temporal orientation toward the past and present rather than toward the future" (Brown & Peterson, 1993, p. 63)

Antecedents of job satisfaction can be classified into two different categories: individual differences (or demographic), and organisational variables (Brown & Peterson, 1993). Individual variables include age, education and organisational tenure. Previous research (e.g., Janson & Martin, 1982; O'Brien & Dowling, 1981; Rhodes, 1983; Sarker, Crossman, & Chinmeteeputuck, 2003; Sarwar, Mirza, Ehsan, Khan, & Hanif, 2013) has suggested that age and organisational tenure have significant positive correlation with job satisfaction. Organisational variables include supervisor behaviours, pay, job autonomy, job variety and job involvement (e.g., Brashear, Lepkowska-White, & Chelariu, 2003; Brown & Peterson, 1993; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012; Straub, 2012)). In terms of supervisor behaviours, it is suggested that supportive supervisors could increase their subordinates' job satisfaction. (e.g., Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012; Straub, 2012). In general, varied jobs with greater amounts of involvement and autonomy and with higher pay are associated with higher job satisfaction (Brown & Peterson, 1993).

It has been argued that job satisfaction has correlation with several work outcomes. The work outcomes of job satisfaction include work performance, organisational commitment, intention to leave and turnover (Brashear, Lepkowska-White, & Chelariu, 2003; Brown & Peterson, 1993). Since low levels of job satisfaction are believed to have negative impacts on employee work behaviour, examination of the factors that determine the level of employees' job satisfaction has become of great interest among scholars and practitioners (Calvo-Salguero, Martinez-de-Lecea, & Carrasco-Gonzalez, 2011). From the practical point of view, managers are interested in designing organisations' policies and program that could improve employees' level of job satisfaction, which in turn could lead to more positive work behaviours (Calvo-Salguero et al., 2011).

Spector (1997) suggests that there are two different approaches in studying job satisfaction. The first approach deals with specific facets of the job, and the other approach deals with general aspects of the job. Job satisfaction as one of the dependent variables in this research is viewed from the general approach. Instead of examining the impact of work life balance supports (both formal and informal supports) on specific aspects of employee job satisfaction, this thesis attempts to examine the impact of those two kind of supports on the general emotional state of employees about their job.

2.6.4 Work Family Conflict

The interface between work and family (life) could take three major forms: work family conflict, work family facilitation, and work life balance (Mc.Millan, Morris, & Atchley, 2011; Shaffer, Joplin, and Hsu, 2011). Work family conflict is defined as a form of interrole conflict that occurs when role expectations from work and family domains are mutually incompatible (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). Work-family conflict is also termed as family role strain, work-family tensions, family/work role incompatibility, and interrole conflict (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991). It is widely believed that work family conflict has strong correlation with work life balance policies. One of the main benefits of work life balance policies that could be gained by employees is that the application of such policies could reduce employee level of work family conflict (Anderson et al., 2002; Lapierre & Allen, 2006; McDonald et al., 2005). Empirical evidences for this claim have been found (e.g., Byron, 2005; Fiksenbaum, 2013). In line with this, the present research focuses on work family conflict as one of the work life balance policy outcomes investigated. As will be discussed further in section 2.7.2, the reason for this could be drawn from role theory, as well as from conservation of resources theory and job demands-resources theory (JD-S theory) (Allen, 2001; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011).

Early studies in the 1980s have conceptualized work family conflict as a unidimensional construct; however, in the early 1990s the concept has changed (Eby et al., 2005; Geurts & Demerouti, 2003). The contemporary work family conflict construct sees this interrole conflict as bidirectional and producing negative effects

from one domain to the other domain (Michel et al., 2011). Related to this, there are two different directions of work-family conflict (e.g., Frone et al., 1992) namely work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict. Work-to-family conflict (also termed work interference with family conflict/ WIF) occurs when participation in the family domain is made more problematic from participation in the work domain. On the other hand, family-to-work conflict (also termed family interference with work conflict /FIW) occurs when participation in the work domain is hindered from participation in the family domain.

Based on a review of the literature, Greenhaus & Beutell (1985, p. 77) suggest three major forms of work family conflict: time-based conflict, strain-based conflict, and behaviour-based conflict. Time-based conflict occurs when time allocated for one role (work or family) makes it difficult to fulfil demands from another role. Strain-based conflict occurs when strain (e.g., tensions and fatigue) from one role makes it difficult to comply with requirements from another role. The third form of work family conflict occurs when specific behaviour (e.g., self-reliance of managerial stereotype) makes it difficult to comply with expectations from another domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). This taxonomy of work-family conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), however, is not without criticism. The taxonomy is more about a taxonomy of different types of causal antecedents of work family conflict rather than a taxonomy of different types of work family conflict (Bellavia & Frone, 2005).

Predictors of work family conflict can be classified into three types: work domain predictors, family domain predictors, and demographic or individual differences (Byron, 2005; Eby et al., 2005). The first predictors include job level (e.g., DiRenzo, Greenhaus, & Weer, 2011), manager/supervisor support and schedule flexibility (e.g., Anderson et al., 2002), and long working hours . The second predictors include family role conflict, family time demands, and family social support (e.g., Michel, Mitchelson, Pichler, & Cullen, 2010). Demographic and individual differences include gender, income, and coping styles and skills (Byron, 2005), and levels of individual initiative (e.g., Bolino & Turnley, 2005).

Work family conflict has detrimental impacts on both individuals and organisations (Russo & Waters, 2006; Taylor, Delcampo, & Blancero, 2009). Thus, providing

organisational support to help employees reduce their level of work family conflict has become an increased interest among practitioners and researchers in the field (Michel et al., 2011). In line with this, it is argued in this research that the utilisation of work life balance policies and supervisor support will decrease employees' level of work family conflict (this will be discussed further in the hypotheses development section of this chapter). Additionally, considering that work-to-family conflict occurred more often than family-to-work conflict (Galovan et al., 2010; Geurts & Demerouti, 2003), and work life balance support will have stronger impact on work-to-family conflict compared to its impact on family-to-work conflict (Hammer et al., 2005), this research only assesses work-to-family conflict (which is then referred to as work family conflict) instead of both directions of work family conflict.

Contrary to work family conflict, work family facilitation views the interaction between work and family from a positive perspective. Work family facilitation is defined as “a form of synergy in which resources associated with one role enhance or make easier participation in the other role” (Voydanoff, 2004, p. 399), or “the extent to which participation in one role is made easier by virtue of the experiences, skills, and opportunities gained and developed in another role” (Frone, 2003, p. 145). In other words, from the work and family facilitation perspective, interaction between work and family is viewed from a positive side. Similar to the construct of work family conflict, work family facilitation could originate from both work and family domains, thus the term is differentiated into two: work facilitation with family (WFF) and family facilitation with work (FFW) (Shaffer et al., 2011). WFF refers to the extent to which the resources gained or developed at work such as experiences, skills, and opportunities enhance home life (Frone, 2003). On the other side, FFW refers to the extent to which the resources received at home such as positive mood, and support positively affect the individual's work role (Frone, 2003). Work family (life) facilitation is not a variable of interest of this research. The reason includes there is still no consistent conclusion that could be drawn related to the link between work life balance policies and work family (life) facilitation because work family facilitation is still an emerging area of research (Mc.Millan, Morris, & Atchley, 2011). In addition, it is suggested from preliminary research that work family (life) facilitation processes and outcomes are not necessarily the same as work family conflict processes and outcomes (Morris, 2008).

Compared to the terms of work family conflict and work family facilitation, the definitions of work life balance is less conclusive. Researchers in the field of work and family (life) have been more diverse in defining the term of work life balance (Shaffer et al., 2011) resulting in a lack of conceptual clarity (Yuile, Chang, Gudmundsson, & Sawang, 2012). For example, work life balance is defined as “an individual’s ability to meet both their work and family commitments, as well as other non-work responsibilities and activities” (Parkes and Langford, 2008, p. 267). Work life balance has also been defined as “achieving satisfying experiences in all life domains” (Kirchmeyer, 2008, p. 81). Other scholars also defined work life balance as “the absence of unacceptable levels of conflict between work and non-work demands” (Greenblatt, 2002, p. 179). Moreover, to denote work life balance, researchers have used a related term such as work-family balance (e.g., Lyness and Kropf, 2005; Wierda-Boer et al., 2008). Since the definition of work life balance is still less conclusive and quite general, the measures for the construct are also varied (Shaffer et al., 2011). The existing measures of work life balance construct mostly rely on limited to a single item only (Fischlmayr & Kollinger, 2010). Since single item measures for psychological constructs (e.g., work life balance) are presumed to have unacceptably low reliability, it is typically discouraged to use such measures (Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997, p. 247). For this reason, and considering the work life balance measures have not been well established yet, it is preferred not to include work life balance construct in the outcome variables investigated.

2.6.5 Section Summary

Section 2.6 reviews the existing literature on the impact of work life balance policies as well as FSSB on employees’ work attitudes and behaviours. The actual utilisation of work life balance policies has received limited attention in the literature (Allen, 2001; Hammer et al., 2005; Lapierre & Allen, 2006; Muse & Pichler, 2011; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004; Ratnasingam et al., 2012; Thompson et al., 1999). Thus, to contribute to the literature, the impact of actual application of work life balance policies towards employees’ attitudes and behaviours is the focus of this study. The use of the policies instead of the availability of the policies is chosen to be examined because it is the direct benefits gained from policy use that could potentially increase employees’ attitudes and behaviours (Butts et al., 2013). This is

also in line with self-interest theory (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Sears & Funk, 1991) that posits employees' attitudes and behaviours are driven by their own personal gains and benefits.

Employees' work attitudes and behaviours that are examined in this study include OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Employees' level of work family conflict will also be investigated. Very limited research has examined the impact of work life balance policies (both availability and use) on employee's OCB and in-role performance (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Butts et al., 2013; Muse & Pichler, 2011) despite the claim that work life balance policies could potentially increase employees' performance (e.g., OCB and in-role performance) (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Muse & Pichler, 2011).

It is generally believed by employers that adopting both formal (work life balance policies) and informal organisational support (FSSB) on work and family (life) issues could increase employees' work attitudes and behaviours which then will benefit the organisations (Galinsky et al., 2008). However, since there is a lack of empirical research exploring the impact of utilisation (not only availability) of work life balance policies on employee attitudes and behaviour (Casper & Harris, 2008; Hammer et al., 2005), especially on employees' performance (i.e., OCB and in-role performance) (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Butts et al., 2013; Muse & Pichler, 2011),

the first research question in this study is:

“Does the utilisation of work life balance policies and FSSB increase employees' positive work attitudes and behaviours?”

Empirical evidence from several past studies (e.g., Byron, 2005; Thompson et al., 1999; Wang et al., 2011) show that adopting a wide range of work life balance policies and providing supervisor support (in this research is referred to as FSSB) can lessen the level of employees' work family conflict. However, considering specific social and cultural beliefs in the Indonesian context such as the presence of extended families and paid helpers that could provide extra support in juggling with work and

family responsibilities among Indonesian employees, following is the second research question in this study.

“Does the utilisation of work life balance policies and FSSB reduce work family conflict among Indonesian employees?”

To answer both research questions in this study, research hypotheses are developed in the following section of this chapter.

2.7 THEORIES AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

2.7.1 Work Life Balance Policies and FSSB Linkages to Employees' Attitudes and Behaviours

It is argued in this research that work life balance policies and FSSB have positive impacts on employees' work attitudes and behaviours. Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) is used to develop the rationale behind these relationships. Social exchange theory posits that all human relationships are formed by the use of a subjective cost-benefit analysis and the comparison of alternatives (Blau, 1964). Social exchanges involve trust, not legal obligations (Stanford, 2008) and are built on a reciprocity principle (Lambert, 2000; Wang et al., 2011). The reciprocity principle is a universal principle which is based on two assumptions: "(1) people should help those who helped them, and (2) people should not injure those who have helped them" (Gouldner, 1960, p. 171). Social exchange theory highlights the conditions under which individuals feel obligated to reciprocate when they benefit from other people, or other entities (Lambert, 2000). In the field of management and organisation, the theory has been used by scholars to understand and to improve the quality of the relationship between employees and employers (Lambert, 2000). Specifically, the theory has been applied to explain the rationale behind the formation of positive employee work attitudes and behaviours toward their organisations in response to beneficial actions taken by organisation that are directed to the employees (e.g., Allen, 2001; Kossek, Colquitt, & Noe, 2001; Lambert, 2000; Wang, Lawler, & Shi, 2011). The basic principle underlying social exchange theory is that an individual who provides rewarding services to another creates a sense of obligation to the latter person. In return, the latter person must give benefits to the person who supplies the services. This exchange will continue if both parties value what they receive from the other (Blau, 1964). Thus, the application of social exchange theory suggests that employees will have a sense of obligation to exert positive attitudes or behaviours to their organisations if they are treated favourably and if they gain benefits from them (Lambert, 2000; Wang et al., 2011) through co-operation, OCB, commitment and goodwill at work (Allen, 2001; Aryee et al., 2005; Beaugard & Henry, 2009; Lambert, 2000; Scheibl & Dex, 1998; Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). Based on prior research, it has been established that there are at least two social exchange

relationships that can be built by an employee at work: with the immediate supervisor, and with the organisation (Chen, 2010). Considering both work life balance policies and supervisor support as indicators of favourable treatment (Grover & Crooker, 1995), employees who benefited from that treatment (by using the treatment) will respond to the organisation in terms of positive work attitudes and behaviours. According to Butts et al. (2013), use of work life balance policies should relate to more positive work attitudes and behaviours among employees because of the direct benefits gained from the policies used.

Limited empirical evidence exists regarding the positive impact of the use of flexible work options on employees' attitudes and behaviours. This might be because most past research has focused more on the impact of availability of work life balance policies and less attention has been given to the examination of the impact of the actual use of the policies (e.g., Muse & Pichler, 2011; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004). However, the use of flexible work options has been associated with increased organisational commitment and job satisfaction (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Shepard, Clifton, & Kruse, 1996) and improved employee performance (Baltes et al., 1999). It is argued that the implementation of flexible work arrangements (e.g., flexitime and home telecommuting) gives employees more job autonomy (Baltes et al., 1999; Hill et al., 2003) which in turn leads to higher job performance (Baltes et al., 1999). Increased job performance through utilisation of flexible work options might also happen because employees may increase effort, work harder or work smarter to avoid losing a job that offers them the flexibility they need (Shepard et al., 1996). Taken together, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and past research suggestions, the following hypothesis is developed:

Hypothesis 1: Flexible work options will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance, (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction

Among other types of work life balance policies, the impact of specialized leave policies has not been explored (Casper & Harris, 2008; Thompson et al., 1999). However, the use of sabbatical leave, an example of specialized leave policies, is associated with improving organisational commitment among employees (Otto &

Kroth, 2011). Moreover, new skills that employees bring to organisations from the use of sabbatical leave might enhance employees' job performance (Otto & Kroth, 2011). Stemming from social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and considering suggestions from past studies, a range of specialized leave policies are also expected to have a positive impact on employees' work attitudes and behaviours. Therefore, the following hypothesis is suggested:

Hypothesis 2: Specialized leave options will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance, (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction

In terms of dependent care support, the utilisation of dependent care support has been reported to have a positive impact on employees' positive behaviours. Kossek and Ozeki (1999) highlight employees who benefited from dependent care support would be more likely to be committed to their organisations. In an empirical study among employees in varied occupations, Lambert (2000) found that the use of a range of dependent care benefits had a positive correlation with employees' OCB. It is also pointed out in the study (Lambert, 2000) that the more useful employees find the dependent care benefits, the more likely they are to be engaged in citizenship behaviours. Research on the effects of on-site childcare use among staff and faculty members of a large university (Ratnasingam et al., 2012) shows that users of the on-site childcare were satisfied with their job because they perceived their organisation as more supportive towards their family life. A very recent meta-analysis (Butts et al., 2013) found that the use of a bundle of dependent care benefits had positive correlations with job satisfaction and affective commitment. Stemming from the social exchange theory and some empirical evidence from past studies, it is proposed in this study that utilisation of dependent care support will lead to positive employees' attitudes and behaviours, including OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Thus the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 3: Dependent care support will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance, (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction

Indonesian society places a high value on religiosity and religion is considered as a part of individual identity among Indonesians (Colbran, 2010), and as such it is suggested in this study that use of workplace support related to religiosity (such as longer breaks or days off to do religious rituals and religious holiday allowances) would lead to positive employees' work attitudes and behaviours. Research related to religiosity in the field of work and family (life) is very scarce (Green & Elliott, 2010), and there has been no empirical evidence found to support the proposed link between religiosity support use and employees' attitudes and behaviour. However, like any other types of work life balance policies, this proposition is also drawn from the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Having religiosity support from a workplace that are in line with employees' personal values (beyond work-related values) and gaining benefit from that support, may result in positive feelings about their workplace which in turn create a sense of obligation to give a "better return" in the form of positive work attitudes and behaviours. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 4: Religiosity support will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance, (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction

Consistent with social exchange theory, Muse and Pichler (2011) argue that family supportive supervision should have a positive impact on in-role performance, as well as to OCB for the reason of a sense of obligation for reciprocity. When supervisors are supportive, employees demonstrate a felt responsibility to give back and help their supervisors to achieve organisation goals through increased performance. Among the limited studies (Hammer et al., 2009; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012) examining the impact of supervisor support that are specific to work and family issues, it has been found that FSSB has direct impact on organisational commitment, job satisfaction, intention to quit and performance among employees in a large hospital setting (Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012). It was also revealed that when employees perceived their supervisors to be supportive on work and family specific issues, their job satisfaction, organisational commitment, as well as their

performance will increase and their intention to quit will decrease. Based on the discussion above, following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 5: FSSB will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance, (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction

2.7.2 Work life Balance Policies and FSSB Linkages to Work Family

Conflict

It is generally expected that the use of a range of work life balance policies will be associated with lower work family conflict (Anderson et al., 2002; McDonald et al., 2005). The reason for this could be drawn from role theory, as well as from conservation of resources theory and job demands-resources (JDR theory) (Allen, 2001; Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011). Role theory (Kahn, 1964) suggests that the cumulative demands from multiple roles (both from work and family domains) often create interrole conflict. The theory also proposes that availability of resources derived from individual, family, and work-related sources could facilitate individuals to cope with the demands which in turn reduce the conflict. Conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) proposes that people strive to gain and maintain valued resources (i.e. objects, conditions or energies). According to the conservation of resources theory, when individuals feel they have accumulated many resources, their self-esteem might be elevated, and they do not inflate the threat or danger of potential hazards and difficulties, and vice versa (Harber, Einev-Cohen, & Lang, 2007). JD-R theory (Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer, & Schaufeli, 2003; Demerouti, Nachreiner, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2001). This view relies on the assumption that every occupation may have specific risk factors which are generally categorized into job demands and job resources. These risk factors are associated with job stress. JD-R theory posits that the interaction between job demands (e.g., high work pressure and unfavourable work environment) and job resources (e.g., role clarity, supervisor support, general organisation support) is important, in which job resources may buffer the negative psychological effect of job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Because work family conflict is a situation where the demands from the work reduce resources (e.g., time and energy) required to contribute in the family domain (Lapierre & Allen, 2006), individuals with greater access to workplace support (i.e., work life balance policies and FSSB) gain additional psychological resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) that provide a stress buffer to cope with pressure (Kossek et al., 2011) which in turn lessens their level of work family conflict.

In other words, the integration of role theory, conservation of resources theory and JD-R theory are effective in explaining the linkage between work and family (life) support and work family conflict in which if employees receive adequate organisational work and family (life) support they would have more resources to use for alleviating work family conflict. In short, based on the integration of role theory, as well as conservation of resources theory and JD-R theory, it is argued in this research that both work and family (life) balance policies and FSSB supports employees' coping with managing work and non-work roles that reduce work family conflict.

Related to flexible work options, it is argued that the use of flexitime would allow employees to reschedule their certain work-related demands so that more family-related demands can be fulfilled (Lapierre & Allen, 2006). Or in other words, it is believed that employees' level of work family conflict could be reduced by utilising a range of flexible work options that suit employees' needs. To support this, evidence shows that schedule flexibility in varied professions both in public and private sectors have been found to have significant impact on work family conflict (see Byron, 2005). It is argued in this study that, like flexible work options, utilisation of other types of work life balance policies (e.g., specialized leave options, dependent care support and religiosity support) will help employees to alleviate their level of work family conflict. Thus, the following hypothesis is developed:

Hypothesis 6: Work life balance policies: (a) flexible work options); (b) specialized leave options; (c) dependent care support; and (d) religiosity support will have a negative impact on work family conflict

Like work life balance policies, supportive supervisors should serve as employees' resources (Allen, 2001) that could help employees to deal with juggling work and family (life). Hammer et al. (2011) assert that having a supervisor who is supportive of work and family issues and exhibits family supportive behaviours could make it easier for employees in restructuring work in order to take care of family demands. Among a few studies examining consequences of FSSB, it is confirmed that such behaviour has a negative correlation with work family conflict and positive correlation with job performance (McCarthy et al., 2010; Muse & Pichler, 2011).

Based on the discussion above, it is proposed in this research that since supervisor support should serve as one of the employees' resources (Allen, 2001), thus having a supervisor who is supportive towards work and family issues will help employees to alleviate their work family conflict. Thus, the following hypothesis is developed:

Hypothesis 7: FSSB will have a negative impact on work family conflict

Based on the hypotheses developed for this research, a research model is outlined in figure 2.1.

2.8 RESEARCH MODEL

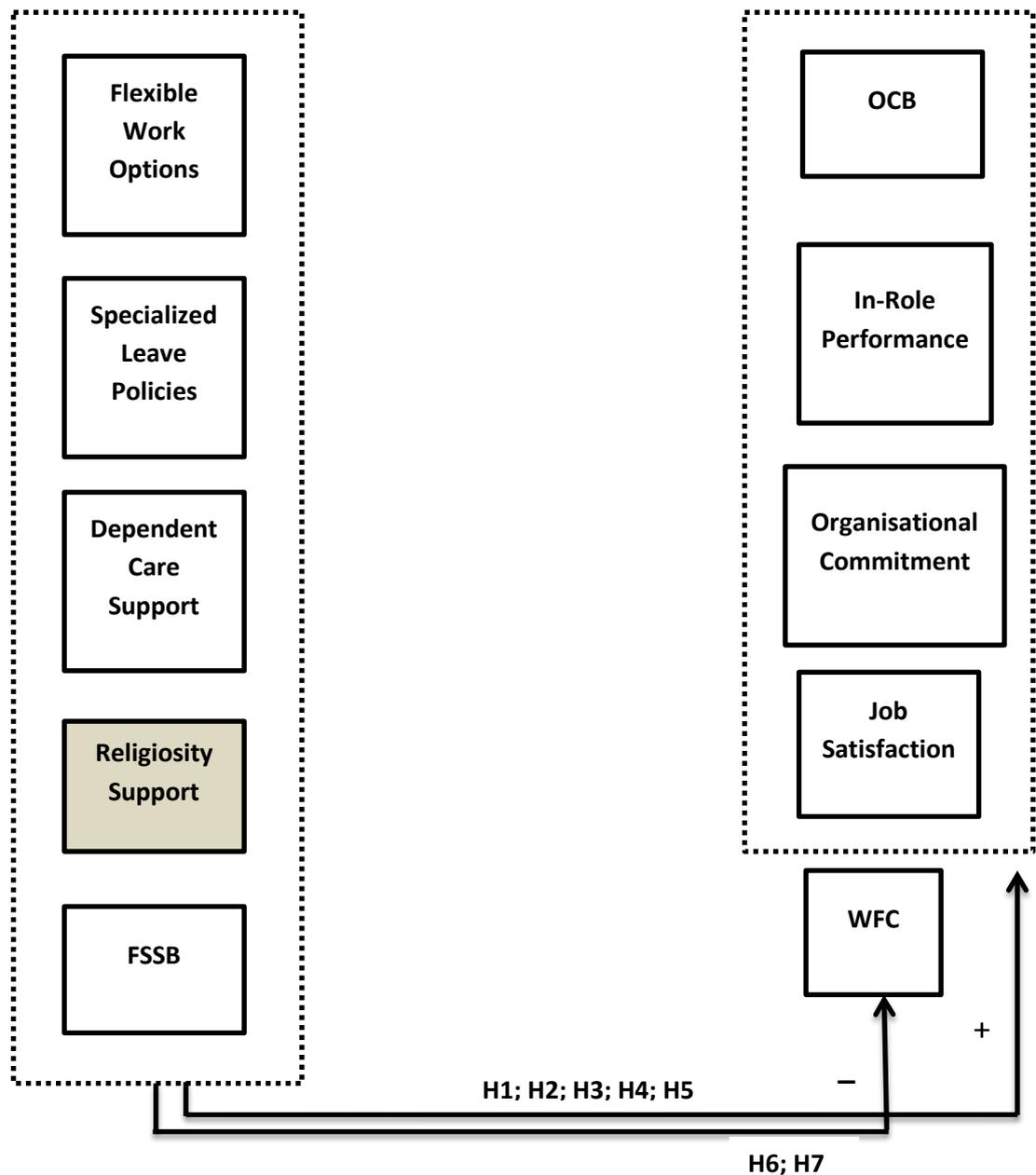


Figure 2.1 Proposed Research Model

This research attempts to examine the effect of utilisation of both formal and informal organisational support towards work life balance issues on a range of employees' attitudes and behaviours, as well as on employees' level of work family conflict. As depicted in figure 2.1, it is suggested that both formal (i.e., work life

balance policies) and informal support (i.e., FSSB) directly affect employees' attitudes and behaviours in a positive direction. These links are suggested based on social exchange theory and some empirical evidence from past studies. On the other hand, stemming from role theory, conservation of resources theory, and JDR theory, as well as from several previous studies, use of all types of work life balance policies and FSSB are predicted to have negative correlation with employees' work family conflict.

Work life balance policies as an organisational formal support that are included in this study are: flexible work options, specialized leave policies, dependent care support and religiosity support. The fourth category of work life balance policies being examined in this research, that is religiosity support, is very specific to the Indonesian context. This category is added in this research and would be considered as a significant contribution of this study to the literature. Since religion can be seen as a part of a cultural system which could shape family values (Sabatier, Mayer, Friedlmeier, Lubiewska, & Trommsdorff, 2011), it is believed that including religion related issues in the discussion of work and family (life) is appropriate. Furthermore, it is important to discuss religiosity support in work life balance policies in Indonesia because religion plays an important role in the everyday life of Indonesians, and is part of a person's identity and the nation's identity (Colbran, 2010, p. 678). It is also mandated by the Indonesian government through law that organisations in Indonesia need to accommodate and to support this value. In addition, to my knowledge, there have been no work life balance policies related to religiosity that have been explored in previous studies. Informal support in this study is supervisor support specific to work and family issues (i.e., FSSB). Employees' attitudes and behaviours that are included in this study are OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. The first two behaviours (i.e., OCB and in-role performance) are under-examined in the literature. Muse and Pichler (2011) highlighted that very limited research found in the literature has included employee job performance (e.g., OCB and in-role performance) in an integrative model of relationships between both formal and informal support and work family conflict despite the existence of supporting theories. Therefore, extending research to determine if work life balance policy utilisation is related to employees' performance outcomes is also beneficial.

2.9 CHAPTER CONCLUSION

As many organisations and employees seek ways to achieve a better work life balance, there has been growing body of research investigating work-family and work-life issues (Bardoel et al., 2008; Bianchi & Milkie, 2010; Chandra, 2012). This chapter highlights many of the important areas of previous work and family (life) research. The primary concern of the literature is the examination of work family conflict, that is an unfavourable relationship between work and family (life), which mainly focuses on assessing the potential outcomes of work family conflict on both individual and organisation (Amstad et al., 2011; Chang et al., 2010; Eby et al., 2005; Kelly et al., 2008; Michel et al., 2011). Research on the impact of work family conflict has led to increased initiatives among employers, public policy makers and international organisations on how to help employees (especially those who have family responsibilities) achieve work life balance (Hein, 2005; Michel et al., 2011). Considering potential benefits to organisations, legitimacy and social fitness as well as in response to employees' needs in juggling between work and family (life) responsibilities, many organisations are willing to implement various work life balance policies.

It is generally believed that implementing formal work life balance policies and providing supervisor support towards work and family (life) issues (in this research referred to as FSSB) could alleviate employees work family conflict as well as generate employees' positive work attitudes and behaviours. However, the existing research has largely focused on the examination of the availability of work life balance policies, with little concern on the actual utilisation of the policies (Allen, 2001; Hammer et al., 2005; Lapierre & Allen, 2006; Muse & Pichler, 2011; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004; Ratnasingam et al., 2012; Thompson et al., 1999). Research on supervisor support in the area of work and family (life) mainly relies on general measures of supervisor support (Hammer et al., 2009; Hammer et al., 2007). To get a more fine grained analysis, research utilising a specific measure of supportive supervisor support toward work and family (life) issues (e.g. FSSB) is needed (Greenhaus et al., 2011). Moreover, to date the literature is dominated by work life balance studies in the context of advanced economies. Considering differences in national policies, as well as social and cultural specific issues,

extending research beyond the context of western developed countries is beneficial in order to test the applicability of, and further develop, the literature with regard to the effects of work life balance support. For this research, the study and the context will be work life balance in Indonesia. To the researcher's knowledge, to date there is not any published research conducted in Indonesia, where religiosity is important in individual family and work lives, which may result in a unique work life balance support demand. From the discussion of work life balance policies in Indonesia, it was demonstrated that religiosity support is part of work life balance policies governed by the Indonesian law. This religiosity support is included in the work life balance policies examined in this thesis, which is considered as one of contributions of this research to the literature.

This research examines whether the utilisation (not only the availability) of work life balance policies and FSSB really increases employees' positive work attitudes and behaviours. Employees' work attitudes and behaviours included in this research are OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. This is yet to be tested since little research has examined the impact of actual use of the policies (Allen, 2001; Hammer et al., 2005; Lapierre & Allen, 2006; Muse & Pichler, 2011; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004; Ratnasingam et al., 2012; Thompson et al., 1999) especially on employees' performance, such as OCB and in-role performance (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Butts et al., 2013; Muse & Pichler, 2011). This research also examines whether the use of work life balance policies and FSSB could lessen the level of work family conflict among Indonesian employees. This needs to be tested considering social and cultural issues in Indonesia. The family unit is larger in Indonesia and includes extended families (e.g., grandparents, uncles, aunts and cousins) whom one can ask for support to better meet work and family (life) responsibilities. The support from the family domain could also be gained from the existence of paid help or a nanny at home, that is relatively more common and affordable for Indonesian employees.

Research hypotheses are developed based on several supporting theories (i.e., social exchange, role, conservation of resources and job demands-resources theories) and evidence from past research. The research hypotheses propose that the use of work life balance policies have a positive impact on employees' work attitudes and

behaviours. On the other side, the use of the policies and FSSB is expected to have a negative impact on employees' work family conflict.

To test the research hypotheses developed, this research relies on the collection of quantitative data obtained through questionnaire surveys. The following chapter of this thesis covers the research methodology of this study. It includes a discussion of the research process and data analysis procedures.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines the methodology employed in this thesis. The discussion will detail the research process and data analysis procedures. This thesis is centred on the collection of quantitative data through questionnaire surveys. This chapter commences with a discussion of the justification for the methodology. The third section discusses the research process, which includes a general overview of the research design, questionnaire development, research variables and the details of the pilot study. The fourth section explains the data collection procedures. The analysis of the data is discussed in the fifth section. Ethical issues are discussed in the sixth section. This chapter then ends with the conclusions and summary.

3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

The selection of a research methodology requires a philosophical framework (a research paradigm) that guides how research should be undertaken related to the research design, data collection method and data analysis (Cavana, Delahaye, & Sekaran, 2001; Collis & Hussey, 2003, 2009; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013; Zhang, Wang, Colucci, & Wang, 2011). Philosophy refers to 'the use of reason and argument in seeking truth and knowledge' (Collis & Hussey, 2009, p. 53). There are two main research paradigms or philosophies, namely: positivist and interpretivist (or phenomenological) (Collis & Hussey, 2003, 2009; Remenyi, Williams, Money, & Swartz, 1998). These two research paradigms or philosophies should be regarded as the two extremes of a continuum (Collis & Hussey, 2003, 2009). The underlying assumption of positivist paradigm is 'the researcher is independent of and neither affects nor is affected by the subject of the research' (Remenyi et al., 1998, p. 33). On the other hand, the interpretivist paradigm is underpinned by the belief that the researcher is not independent of the subject of the research, but is an intrinsic part of the research (Collis & Hussey, 2009; Remenyi et al., 1998). Several assumptions

that distinguish between the two research paradigms or philosophies are summarized in table 3.1.

Table 3.1
Assumptions of the Two Main Research Paradigms

Assumptions	Positivist	Interpretivist
Ontological (the nature of reality)	Reality is objective and singular, separate from the researcher	Reality is subjective and multiple as seen by participants in a study
Epistemological (the relationship between the researcher and that being researched – what constitutes valid knowledge)	Researcher is independent from that being researched	Researcher interacts with that being researched
Axiological (the roles of values)	Value-free and unbiased	Value-laden and biased
Rhetorical (the language of research)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formal • Based on set definitions • Impersonal (passive) voice • Use of accepted quantitative words 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Informal • Evolving decisions • Personal voice • Use of accepted qualitative words
Methodological (the process of research)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deductive process • Cause and effect • Static design-categorised isolated before study • Context-free • Generalisations leading to prediction, explanation and understanding • Accurate and reliable through validity and reliability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inductive process • Mutual simultaneous shaping of factors • Emerging design-categorised identified during research process • Context-bound • Patterns, theories developed for understanding • Accurate and reliable through verification

Source: Adapted from Creswell, 1994 cited in Collis & Hussey (2003, 2009)

3.2.1 Impact of Research Paradigms on Research Methodology

In relation to research methodology, it is argued that the two main research paradigms/philosophies lead essentially to two main different clusters of research strategy (general orientation in conducting social research) that are quantitative and qualitative research (Bryman, 2012; Bryman & Bell, 2003). Quantitative research is a means for examining objective theories by testing the relationship among variables using statistical and mathematical procedures, and involving a deductive approach (Cooper & Schindler, 2008; Creswell, 2009), implementing the framework of positivist paradigm (Bryman & Bell, 2003; Collis & Hussey, 2009; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Quantitative research methods include questionnaires, field and laboratory experiments, and also utilise statistical data gathered by organisations such as data from statistical bureau (Cavana et al., 2001).

Qualitative research is an inductive approach where the aim is to generate theories (Bryman & Bell, 2003; Creswell, 2009), reflecting an interpretivist research paradigm (Bryman & Bell, 2003; Collis & Hussey, 2009; Cooper & Schindler, 2008). Qualitative research methods include interviews, focus groups discussions, and observations (Cavana et al., 2001). Table 3.2 lists several key distinctions between quantitative research and qualitative research.

Table 3.2
Quantitative versus Qualitative Research

Features	Quantitative	Qualitative
Epistemological orientation	Positivist	Interpretivist
Principal orientation to the role of theory in relation to research (Research purpose)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deductive • Describe or predict; build and test theory • Concern with hypothesis testing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inductive • In-depth understanding-theory building
Sample design	Probability	Nonprobability; purposive
Sample size	Large	Small
Research design	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Determined before commencing the project • Uses single method or mixed methods • Consistency is critical • Involves either a cross-sectional or a longitudinal approach 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May evolve or adjust during the course of project • Often uses multiple methods simultaneously or sequentially • Consistency is not expected • Involves longitudinal approach
Participant preparation	No preparation desired to avoid biasing the participant	Pre-tasking is common
Data type	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Produce precise, objective, quantitative data • Reduced to numerical codes for computerized analysis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Produce 'rich', subjective, qualitative data • Reduced to verbal codes (sometimes with computer assistance)
Data analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Computerized analysis-statistical and mathematical methods dominate • Analysis maybe ongoing during the project • Maintains clear distinction between facts and judgement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Human analysis following computer or human coding; primarily non-quantitative • Forces researcher to see the contextual framework of the phenomenon being measured-distinction between facts and judgements less clear • Always ongoing during the project
Insight and meaning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited by the opportunity to probe respondents and the quality of the original data collection instrument • Insights follow data collection and data entry, with limited ability to reinterview participants 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deeper level of understanding is the norm; determined by type and quantity of free response questions • Researcher participation in data collection allows insights to form and be tested during the process

Research sponsor and involvement	Rarely has either direct or indirect contact with participant	May participate by observing research in real time or via taped interviews
Feedback turnaround	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Larger sample sizes lengthen data collection • Insight development follows data collection and entry, lengthening research process; interviewing software permits some tallying of responses as data collection progresses 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Smaller sample sizes make data collection faster for shorter possible turnaround • Insight are developed as the research progress, shortening data analysis
Findings	Allow findings to be generalized from the sample to the population	Allow findings to be generalized from one setting to another similar setting

Source: Bryman (2012); Bryman & Bell (2003); Collis & Hussey (2009); Cooper & Schindler (2008)

In this research a quantitative approach is undertaken. The purpose of this research is to examine the impact of work life balance policy usages, as well as family supportive supervisor behaviours (FSSB) on a range of employees' work attitudes and behaviours in the Indonesian context. There are a number of independent and dependent variables relationships proposed in this research. According to Creswell (2009) quantitative research is suitable for examining the relationships among variables. Hair et al (1998) argue that quantitative research provides the more sophisticated analytical statistical technique to examine such phenomena. Research hypotheses are developed for the purpose of this research through deductive process based on several supporting theories (i.e., social exchange, role, conservation of resources and job demands-resources/JDR theories) and evidence from past research. This research also attempts to test the applicability of the findings in Western industrialized countries into the specific context of this study (i.e. Indonesia). In short, the nature of this research suits the quantitative approach more, compared to the qualitative approach.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

3.3.1 Overview of Research Design

This research investigates the effects of work life balance policies and FSSB on organisational citizenship behaviour/OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and work family conflict among Indonesian university staff. The samples selected for this research are both academic and non-academic staff from several higher education institutions in Indonesia. Indonesian higher education has been claimed as the central element for Indonesian human resource development, although it only accounts for about 1% of the Indonesia workforce (Mutia & Yuwanto, 2010; Presiden-RI, 2012; Sirozi, 2013). This strategic role of Indonesian higher education is governed by the Indonesian Law number 12 of 2012 (Presiden-RI, 2012). The education sector has received attention from the Indonesian Government with additional funding being allocated for this sector. In accordance with the decision of the Constitutional Court number I 13/PUU-VI 2008, to meet the needs of national education, at least 20 per cent of the national and regional budgets have to be allocated for the education sector (Kemenkeu-RI, 2009), a 8.2 per cent increase of the Indonesian state budgets in 2007 (Maesaroh, 2012). With the increased budget for the education sector, getting a more highly qualified workforce in higher education, including women, is one of the aims of the Indonesian Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE) / ' *Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Tinggi (DIKTI)*' (DIKTI, 2013). The number of women participating in higher education has increased significantly. At least 20 per cent of high positions in Indonesian higher education are held by women (Yakub, 2013). This indicates the relevance of studying work family (life) issues in the context of Indonesian higher education. In addition, although higher education constitutes revealing a case for examining work family (life) related issues, research in this context is limited (Fox et al., 2011; Post et al., 2009).

A quantitative approach is used to examine the hypotheses developed in this thesis. Quantitative data was gathered through self-reporting and supervisory-reporting surveys. Multi sources data were applied in order to reduce common method

variance (Greenhaus et al., 2011; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). Common method variance refers to “variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the construct of interest” that has been widely recognized as one of the main sources of measurement error (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p. 879). Since one of the major causes of common method variance is obtaining data related to both independent and dependent variables from the same source (Podsakoff et al., 2003), data for this study were collected from two different sources: subordinates and supervisors.

This section comprises of four (4) parts. These are descriptions of the measures, scale modification, the process of translating the questionnaire from English to Indonesian and an explanation of the pilot study. This section ends with a presentation of the procedures used to test the measures’ validity and reliability, and then outlines the results of the tests.

3.3.2 Questionnaire Development

The variables and the construction of scales in this research are heavily based on the theoretical literature on work life issues. Some adaptations, especially for the work life balance policies, were made, based on the applied work life balance policies that suit the Indonesian context. According to Geisinger (1994), when the target population is different in terms of cultural background, country and language, to the original population where the scales or measurements were used, adaptations of the scales are required (Geisinger, 1994). In addition to the work life balance policies adaptation, language adaptation was also made. According to Geisinger (1994), the most common cross-cultural adaptation of scales is translation from the original language to other languages (Geisinger, 1994). The original questionnaires for this study were developed in English. They were translated into Indonesian by the researcher who is bilingual (in Indonesian and English), and then back-translated into English by another bilingual speaker who was employed to ensure cross-linguistic comparability of the scale-item contents (Brislin, 1980). This back-translation confirmed that no significant changes were required to the translation of the

questionnaires as both the English and Indonesian versions of the questionnaires had an equivalent meaning.

This thesis utilises multi sources data (i.e., self-reporting data from subordinates and supervisor rating data). Thus, the questionnaires are developed in matched pairs; one part is for subordinates (university staff) and the other part for their supervisors. This approach is used to minimise common method bias (Greenhaus et al., 2011; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Tharenou et al., 2007). Despite the potential advantages of utilising multi-sources data in reducing common method bias, there has been limited research that has utilised this method (Casper et al., 2007; Greenhaus et al., 2011; Kelly et al., 2008; Lyness & Judiesch, 2008). According to Podsakoff et al. (2003), this particular technique in obtaining data could reduce the willingness of respondents to participate. Moreover, if the data could not be gained from the pairs, it results in a loss of information. In addition, this particular technique requires more effort, time and cost on the part of the researcher.

University staff members answered the questions regarding the use of work life balance policies, FSSB, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and work family conflict. Supervisors were asked to rate their subordinates on the measures of OCB and in-role performance.

3.3.3 Measures

All measures used in this research are well established measures, except for FSSB measure which is a relatively new measure developed by Hammer et al. (2009). Some adaptation, especially for the work life balance policies were made based on the applied work life balance policies that suit the Indonesian context. Following are details of the measures employed in this thesis.

3.3.3.1 *Independent Variables*

3.3.3.1.1 Use of Work Life Balance Policies

A list of 12 work life balance policies which are categorized into four categories (see table 2.8 on chapter two) was given to respondents. The original categories included flexible work options, specialized leave policies and dependent care support. The fourth category of religiosity support was added to suit the Indonesian context including “longer break and or leave to do religiosity rituals” and “religious holiday allowance” (tunjangan hari raya/THR). “Family allowance (tunjangan keluarga)” is also added to the dependent care support category (see discussion of work life balance policies in the Indonesian context in chapter two). Respondents were asked to indicate policies that they currently use or had used in the past. Policies that were not used were coded as 0 while policies that were used were coded as 1. A total of policies used for each category score was computed by summing the number of policies used, checked by the respondents, so that higher scores refer to a greater number of policies used. This scoring scheme is adapted from Allen (2001) and Parker and Allen (2001). Several past studies (e.g., O'Driscoll et al., 2003; Thompson et al., 1999) have also used this scoring scheme.

Although the focus of this study is on the actual use of the policies, respondents were also asked to place a checkmark next to each work life balance policy to indicate whether such a policy is available in their organisations. This is to ensure that the work life balance policies included in the hypotheses testing are mostly available in all organisations being investigated. Policies that were not available were coded as 0 while policies that were available were coded as 1.

3.3.3.1.2 Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviours (FSSB)

Fourteen items from Hammer et al.'s., (2009) FSSB scale were used. The scale assesses subordinate perceptions of supervisor supportive behaviours specific to work and family in the dimensions of emotional support (four items), instrumental support (three items), role-model (three items), and creative work-family management (four items). The items are assessed on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Participants were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each item. The total score was used in the analysis (Hammer et al., 2011), with higher scores indicating a greater degree of FSSB.

3.3.3.2 Dependent Variables

3.3.3.2.1 Organisational Commitment

Six items from Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) Affective Commitment scale were used to measure employees organisational commitment. This scale has also been used to measure organisational commitment in several past studies (e.g., Allen, 2001; Aryee et al., 2005; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012). Affective commitment items measure employees' level of commitment as an affective attachment to the organisations. The items are assessed on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Participants in this research were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each item. The six items were summed to create a total score. Higher scores indicated a greater employee organisational commitment.

3.3.3.2.2 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

Three of the five OCB dimensions (i.e. altruism, conscientiousness and sportsmanship) developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) are used in this study. These three dimensions of OCB were chosen because they have been found to be the most relevant to the Asian context (Chen, Hui, & Segó, 1998). Moreover, altruism and conscientiousness have been central categories of OCB (Chen, Hui, & Segó, 1998). In total, eleven items of three OCB dimensions (i.e. altruism, conscientiousness and sportsmanship) from Podsakoff et al (1990) were used. Three items of the altruism dimension assessed subordinated discretionary

behaviours that have the effect of helping a specific other person with an organisationally relevant task or problem. Three items for the conscientiousness dimension assessed subordinate discretionary behaviours on the part of the employee in the areas of attendance, obeying rules and regulations, taking breaks, and so forth. Five items for the sportsmanship dimensions assessed willingness of the employee to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining.

The items are assessed on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Supervisors were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each item related to their subordinates being assessed. Higher scores indicated higher employee OCB.

3.3.3.2.3 In-Role Performance

Seven items from the in-role behaviours (IRBs) subscale of the performance scale (Williams & Anderson, 1991) were used to measure employees' in-role performance. The in-role behaviours (IRBs) subscale assesses employee behaviours that are recognized by a formal reward system and part of the job requirements. The measure is a supervisor rating scale. Supervisors were asked to indicate their responses on a five-point scale (1 = never; 5 = very often) on each item related to their subordinates being assessed. Higher scores indicated higher employee in-role performance.

3.3.3.2.4 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is measured with the three-item Overall Job Satisfaction scale from the Michigan Organisational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983). The items are assessed on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Individuals were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each item. Higher scores indicated greater employee job satisfaction.

3.3.3.2.5 Work Family Conflict

Five items from Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian's (1996) self-reporting work-to-family conflict scale were used. The items are assessed on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Participants in this research were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each item. Higher scores indicated greater employee work family conflict.

A summary of measurements of FSSB and dependent variables for this study are outlined in table 3.3.

Table 3.3
Summary of Measurement Used in This Thesis and Their Sources

Variables	Code of Items	Questions
Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviours (FSSB) Adapted from Hammer et al. (2009)	FSSB_ES1	My supervisor is willing to listen to my problems in juggling work and nonwork life
	FSSB_ES2	My supervisor takes the time to learn about my personal needs
	FSSB_ES3	My supervisor makes me feel comfortable talking to him or her about my conflicts between work and nonwork
	FSSB_ES4	My supervisor and I can talk effectively to solve conflicts between work and non work issues
	FSSB_IS1	I can depend on my supervisor to help me with scheduling conflicts if I need it
	FSSB_IS2	I can rely on my supervisor to make sure my work responsibilities are handled when I have unanticipated nonwork demands
	FSSB_IS3	My supervisor works effectively with workers to creatively solve conflicts between work and nonwork
	FSSB_RM1	My supervisor is a good role model for work and nonwork balance
	FSSB_RM2	My supervisor demonstrates effective behaviours in how to juggle work and nonwork balance
	FSSB_RM3	My supervisor demonstrates how a person can jointly be successful on and off the job
	FSSB_CM1	My supervisor thinks about how the work in my department can be organized to jointly benefit employees and the company
	FSSB_CM2	My supervisor asks for suggestions to make it easier for employees to balance work and nonwork demands
	FSSB_CM3	My supervisor is creative in reallocating job duties to help my department work better as a team
	FSSB_CM4	My supervisor is able to manage the department as a whole team to enable everyone's needs to be met

Organisational Commitment Adapted from Meyer et al. (1993)	OC_1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization
	OC_2	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own
	OC_3	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization
	OC_4	I do not feel emotionally attached to this organization
	OC_5	I do not feel like part of the family at my organization
	OC_6	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) Adapted from Podsakoff et al. (1990)	OCB_A1	Helps orient new employees even though it is not required as part of his or her job
	OCB_A2	Is always ready to help or to lend a helping hand to those around him or her
	OCB_A3	Willingly gives of his or her time to help others who have work-related problems
	OCB_C1	Is one of my most conscientious employees
	OCB_C2	Believes in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay
	OCB_C3	Takes fewer breaks at work than other employees
	OCB_S1	Consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters
	OCB_S2	Always finds fault with what the company is doing
	OCB_S3	Is the classic "squeaky wheel" that always needs greasing
	OCB_S4	Tends to make "mountains out of molehills"
In-Role Performance Adapted from Williams & Anderson (1991)	IRP_1	Adequately completes assigned duties
	IRP_2	Fulfils responsibility specified in job description
	IRP_3	Performs tasks that are expected of him/her
	IRP_4	Meets formal performance requirements of the job
	IRP_5	Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation
	IRP_6	Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform (R)
	IRP_7	Fails to perform essential duties (R)
Job Satisfaction Adapted from Cammann (1983)	JS_1	All in all, I am satisfied with my job
	JS_2	In general, I do not like my job (R)
	JS_3	In general, I like working here

Work Family Conflict (WFC) Adapted from Netemeyer et al. (1996)	WFC_1	The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life
	WFC_2	The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfil family responsibilities
	WFC_3	Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me
	WFC_4	My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfil family duties
	WFC_5	Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities

3.3.3.3 Control Variables

Several variables that are believed to have a possible influence on the relationships between the independent and dependent variables are treated as control variables in this research. This is to ensure the unique impact added by the independent variables can be determined without being contaminated by other variables (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013; Tharenou et al., 2007).

It is widely accepted in the literature that demographic variables, such as gender, marital status and having children, may influence the effects of work life balance policies and work family conflict on employees (see Lu, Siu, Spector, & Shi, 2009; Luk & Shaffer, 2005; Saltzstein et al., 2001; Swody & Powell, 2007. For example, women relatively have a more difficult time juggling work and home (Saltzstein et al., 2001). According to Saltzstein et al. (2001), young unmarried employees will be less likely to have work life conflict compared to those who are married and have big families or young children. Lu et al. (2009) assert that child care responsibility has long been treated as a main source of role overload in the family domain. In line with this, parental demand was found to have significant impact on family interference with work (Luk & Shaffer, 2005). Therefore, gender, marital status, age and number of children were treated as control variables.

Since religion is very important for Indonesians, and religion has been believed to have impact on how people shape their work and family, religion is also included as a control variable in this research. The existence of paid help who share the same

house with employees' families is also included in the control variable. As has been discussed in chapter two of this thesis, it is common to have one or more paid help among Indonesians, as they can provide great assistance with managing household work and the role of caring for the children.

Since data of this research are gathered from both academic and non-academic staff from private and public higher education institutions in Indonesia, job category (i.e., lecturer; lecturer who also holds an administrative position; and non-academic staff) and higher education category (i.e., public and private) are also included in control variables. The reason for controlling higher education category is related to the claim that compared to private organisations, public organisations are more sensitive to institutional pressures to offer work life balance policies (den Dulk, Groeneveld, Ollier-Malaterre, & Valcour, 2013). This is because public organisations are more likely to be evaluated based on government regulations (Antonsen & Jorgensen, 1997).

Gender, marital status, the existence of paid help, religion, job category and higher education category were coded as dummy variables in this research. Age was reported in years and coded in age groups. Religion was coded as a dummy variable based on 6 different categories that exist in Indonesia (i.e., Islam /Moslem, Christianity-Catholic, Christianity-Protestant, Hindu, Buddhism and Kong Hu Cu). These religions are legally acknowledged in Indonesia under Presidential Decree Number 6 of 2000 (Presiden-RI, 2000) and Government Regulation Number 55 of 2007 (Presiden-RI, 2007). Although some scholars considered Buddhism either as an ideology, philosophy or education rather than as a religion due to its non-theistic approach that does not focus on “the question of the origin of the world or the sense of existence” (Masel, Schur, & Watzke, 2012, p. 308), Buddhism is considered as a religion in this thesis. As mentioned, this is in line with the classification of religions adhered to by Indonesia. Moreover, support from scholars (e.g., Deneulin & Rakodi, 2011; Diener et al., 2011; von der Mehden, 1987) for considering Buddhism as a religion is also found. Details of the control variables (except for number of children variable) are summarized in table 3.4. Number of children reported is the actual number.

Table 3.4
Summary of Control Variables

Control Variables	Code	Remarks
Gender	1	Male
	2	Female
Marital Status	1	Single
	2	Married
	3	Divorce or Widow
Age (in years)	1	below 30
	2	30 – 40
	3	41 – 50
	4	51 – 60
	5	above 61
Religion (these classifications are in line with the classifications adhered to by Indonesia)	1	Islam (Moslem)
	2	Christianity-Catholic
	3	Christianity-Protestant
	4	Hindu
	5	Buddhism
	6	Kong Hu Cu
The existence of paid help	1	Have paid help
	2	Do not have paid help
Job Category	1	Lecturer (academic staff)
	2	Lecturer who also holds administrative position (this group is also considered as academic staff)
	3	Non-academic staff
Higher Education Category	1	Public
	2	Private

3.3.4 The Pilot Study

On the completion of the questionnaire based on the literature and some adaptation to suit the Indonesian context, a pilot study was conducted to test the face validity of the questionnaires, and to assess whether or not the instructions and questions were clear and understandable (Cavana et al., 2001). The pilot study was also conducted to determine the time required to complete the questionnaires. This approach was also conducted in past studies (e.g., Fiksenbaum, 2013; Md-Sidin, Sambasivan, & Ismail, 2010) to a small number of respondents to ensure that the survey questionnaire was clear and readable and could be completed in a reasonable time period.

Twenty (20) staff from Brawijaya University and their supervisors (4 supervisors in total) participated in the pilot study. Among those staff, 10 were from the Administrative Science Faculty, 4 were from the Faculty of Science and 6 were from the Faculty of Engineering. The results indicated that those employees and their supervisors did not have any difficulty understanding the items. Therefore, no significant changes were made to the instrument. In general, most of the respondents reported that it needed 15 – 20 minutes to complete the questionnaires. The final questionnaires were distributed to university staff through internal mail with the assistance of key personnel at several universities around Indonesia.

3.4 DATA COLLECTION

In survey research, questionnaires are the most common method of collecting data (De Vaus, 2002). This method is also used in this research to gather data. According to Frazer and Lawley (2000) questionnaires can be administered mainly by face to face (personally administered questionnaire), by mail (mail questionnaire), by telephone (telephone questionnaire) and by internet (internet questionnaire). For the purpose of the research, a mail questionnaire was used. The choice of mail questionnaire for the data collection method was because of the high ability of the method to reach geographically dispersed targeted respondents and the method could be done at relatively low cost compared to the other methods. The comparison of questionnaire communication methods is outlined on table 3.5.

Table 3.5

Comparison of Questionnaire Communication Methods

Criteria	Mail Questionnaire	Personally Administered Questionnaire	Telephone Questionnaire	Internet Questionnaire
Cost	Low	High	Moderate	Very low
Data collection speed	Slow	Immediate	Immediate	Fast
Ability to reach geographically dispersed regions	High	Very low	Medium	Very high Can reach globally
Questionnaire Length	Long (4-12 pages)	Long (30-60 minutes)	Medium(10-30 minutes)	Long (4-12 pages)
Question Complexity	Simple to moderate	Simple to complex	Simple only	Simple to moderate
Anonymous Respondent	Possible	Not possible	Not possible	possible
Rapport with respondents	None	High Can directly motivate respondent to participate	Moderate	None
Researcher bias	None	High	Medium	None
Need for researcher supervision	No	Yes	Yes	No
Response rate	Low A 30% response rate is quite acceptable	Very high Almost 100% response rate ensured	Moderate	Moderate

Note : the shaded column is the method used in this thesis

Source: Adapted from Frazer and Lawley (2000); Sekaran and Bougie (2013)

Data for this study were collected from higher education staff from thirty (30) higher education institutions in Indonesia, both public and private. The researcher used her Indonesian networks to obtain access to the participating institutions. Forty (40) Indonesian higher educations located in various regions were approached and thirty two (32) institutions agreed to participate. However, responses from two institutions were excluded due to missing pairs of responses. Details of the thirty (30) Indonesian higher education institutions who participated in this research project are summarized in table 3.6.

Table 3.6

Details of Higher Education Institutions who Participated in the Study

Features	Number	%
Category of Institution		
Public	23	76.67
Private	7	23.33
Total	30	100
Type of Institution		
University	28	93.34
Polytechnic	1	3.33
Institute	1	3.33
Total	30	100
Geographic Regions:		
Java	11	36.67
Sumatera	9	30
Kalimantan	4	13.33
Sulawesi	1	3.33
Bali	2	6.67
Lombok	2	6.67
Ambon	1	3.33
Total	30	100

From table 3.6, the majority of the institutions that participated in this research are public institutions. There was no initial intention of the researcher to target public institutions. The criterion for the inclusion was the size of the institution. The institutions chosen are considered as medium to large higher education institutions in Indonesia. This criterion was based on the assumption that because of greater demand and cost-effectiveness, medium and large organisations are more likely to adopt work life balance policies than small organisations (Galinsky et al., 2008; Swody & Powell, 2007). The information was gained from the official website of the Indonesian Directorate General of Higher Education/DGHE or 'Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Tinggi/ DIKTI' and from the university websites. The institutions that are categorized into medium and large institutions are those which have students between 5,000 to 10,000 and more than 10,000 students respectively (DIKTI, 2010).

Out of 13,466 islands of the archipelago of Indonesia (Menkokesra, 2012), there are five major islands in Indonesia, namely Sumatra, Java, Kalimantan (Borneo), Sulawesi (Celebes) and Irian Jaya. As revealed from table 3.6, the higher education institutions who participated in this study are located in quite dispersed regions (i.e., Java, Sumatera, Kalimantan, Sulawesi, Bali, Lombok and Ambon), representing most of the main islands of Indonesia.

The questionnaires were distributed to the employees (higher education staff) by mail through key personnel in each institution. The key personnel were obtained from the Indonesian networks. The key persons were initially approached via telephone and e-mail by the researcher to get their assistance in both distributing the research questionnaires and participating as respondents voluntarily. After getting the approval, a minimum of five sets questionnaires were sent to the key persons by mail. Those sets of questionnaires were accompanied by an information letter about the research to the respondents and a consent letter. Employees then forwarded one copy of the questionnaire regarding OCB and in-role performance to their supervisors or line managers. Questionnaires were coded in order to identify the match. Completed questionnaires were collected and returned by the key persons to the researcher via mail using the prepaid envelop. Participants were informed that their responses will be kept confidential and the data gathered will be used for research purposes only. However, organisations whose employees participated in the study were given an option to receive the overall findings of the research if required.

3.4.1 Participant Details

The mode of data collection for this thesis is by mail questionnaires. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013), in order to be considered acceptable, a minimum response rate of 30% is required for mail questionnaires. Of the 400 pairs of questionnaires distributed, 171 surveys were returned, for a response rate of 43%. The response rate is considered as satisfactory considering that the data came from different sources that need to be linked together. According to Podsakoff et al. (2003), this particular technique in obtaining data could reduce the willingness of respondents to participate. Moreover, if data could not be gained from the pairs, it

results in loss of information. In addition, this particular technique requires more effort, time and cost on the part of the researcher (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Despite these disadvantages, this technique was chosen to reduce the common method bias that has previously been outlined.

There were 12 matched pairs of the questionnaires that could not be included in the data analysis since they were incomplete. Thus, only 159 matched surveys were then analysed. A total of 159 subordinates (i.e., 109 academic and 50 non-academic staff) and 100 supervisors (i.e., 77 academic and 23 non-academic staff) completed the 159 matched surveys. Demographic information about the participants is shown in table 3.7.

Table 3.7
Demographic Information

Remarks	Subordinate		Supervisor	
	N	%	N	%
Gender				
Male	94	59.12	55	55.00
Female	65	40.88	45	45.00
Total	159		100	
Age				
<30	68	42.77	7	7.00
30 – 40	50	31.45	40	40.00
41 – 50	25	15.72	30	30.00
51 – 60	15	9.43	21	21.00
above 60	1	0.63	2	2.00
Total	159		100	
Religion				
Islam (Moslem)	130	81.76	82	82.00
Catholic	2	1.26	0	0.00
Christian	9	5.66	7	7.00
Hindu	17	10.69	11	11.00
Buddhism	1	0.63	0	0.00
Kong Hu Cu	0	0.00	0	0.00
Total	159		100	
Marital Status				
Single	29	18.24	14	14.00
Married	128	80.50	83	83.00
Divorce/Widow	2	1.26	3	3.00
Total	159		100	
Children				
<u>Have children</u>	112	70.44	84	84.00
One child	49		14	
Two children	38		32	
Three Children	18		30	
More than three children	7		8	
<u>Do not have children</u>	47	29.56	16	16.00
Total	159		100	

Paid Help				
Have paid help	32	20.13	31	31.00
Do not have paid help	127	79.87	69	69.00
Total	159		100	
Job Category				
Lecturer (academic staff)	76	47.80	0	0.00
Lecturer who also hold administrative position (this group is also considered as academic staff)	33	20.75	77	77.00
Non-academic staff	50	31.45	23	23.00
Total	159		100	
Higher Education Institution Category				
Public	124	78	78	78
Private	35	22	22	22
Total	159		100	

From the demographic, the proportion of males and females for subordinates and supervisors are quite balanced at 59.12 % : 40.88 % and 55% : 45 % respectively. While many of the past studies in the area of work and family/life intentionally sought females as research participants (Bagger & Li, 2012), this research expands the participant pools to include males, given the fact that experiences related to the conflicting demands from work and family/life are not unique to female employees (e.g., Bagger & Li, 2012; Gilbert, Holahan, & Manning, 1981). In addition, as mentioned, to ensure no contamination effect of gender on the relationships between independent and dependent variables investigated, gender is included as one of the control variables in this research.

Related to religion, table 3.7 reveals that the majority of respondents (both subordinates and supervisors) in this research is Moslem, as 81.76 % of subordinates being investigated are Moslem. Similarly, 82 % of the supervisors are Moslem. This is not surprising, given the fact that Indonesia has the largest Moslem population in the world (Colbran, 2010; Gupta, Surie, Javidan, & Chhokar, 2002; Loh & Dahesihsari, 2013), that is, over 85% of the Indonesian population are Moslem (Bennington & Habir, 2003; BPS-RI, 2010).

Since only 0.05 % of the Indonesian population are Kong Hu Cu (BPS-RI, 2010), it is not surprising either that none of the respondents (i.e., 0 % of both subordinates

and their subordinates) are Kong Hu Cu. Thus, Kong Hu Cu is excluded from the further analysis. No restriction related to any religions acknowledged by the Indonesian Government (e.g., Presidential Decree Number 6 of 2000; Government Regulation Number 55 of 2007) has been made in the sampling of this thesis. As mentioned, religion is also included as a control variable in this study.

3.5 METHOD OF ANALYSIS

In evaluating the quantitative data, various statistical techniques were applied in this study. Initially, statistical tests were conducted for screening and cleaning the data. The first step for this test was checking for errors so that no outliers were present. The step then followed by finding and correcting the error in the data file. In addition, scales that contain negatively worded items (R) were reversed.

Since this research uses multiple variables and investigates the relationship among them, measurement error issues could occur (Hair et al., 1998). Measurement error refers to “the degree to which the observed values are not representative of the true values” (Hair et al., 1998, p. 9). Ensuring both validity and reliability of the scales to the acceptable criteria is one of the ways to control or reduce the measurement error (Hair et al., 1998). Thus, on the completion of screening and cleaning the data, factor analysis and reliability tests were performed to assess both validity and reliability of the scales.

Validity is the degree to which a scale or measure exactly measures the intended concept (Hair et al., 1998; Sekaran, 2003; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). When well-validated measures are used, checking their validity again for each study is not necessary (Sekaran, 2003; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Although all the scales in this study are well-established (except for the FSSB which is a relatively new measure), it was decided to check validity of all the scales. This is due to differences related to respondents, time and location of the research (Cooper & Schindler, 2000). Moreover, validity tests are specific to a situation (Saks, Schmitt & Klimoski, 2000). Once validity is assured, reliability of the scale is required (Hair et al., 1998). Reliability of a scale indicates the degree to which the scale is free from random

error (Pallant, 2011). It is “an indication of the stability and consistency with which the instrument measures the concept and helps to assess the ‘goodness’ of a measure” (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013, p. 228). Depending on the sample, reliability of a scale can differ, thus it is required to check reliability scales in particular sample (Pallant, 2011).

On completion of validity and reliability tests, hierarchical regression analysis using software (IBM SPSS Statistic version 21) was then performed to examine the hypotheses. Hierarchical multiple regression is chosen to examine the ability of the model (which includes one or more independent variables) to predict one or more dependent variables, after controlling for a number of control variables (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2011; Pallant, 2011). In order for the results of a regression analysis to be generalized outside of the research sample, several underlying assumptions of the regression analysis were tested (Field, 2007; Pallant, 2011). The underlying assumptions examined in this research project include normality, absence of multicollinearity, homoscedasticity and independence (e.g., Field, 2007; Leech et al., 2011; Pallant, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Details of the steps taken in conducting the method of analysis mentioned as well as results of the analysis are presented in chapter four of this thesis.

3.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The data collection for this research was conducted during the researcher’s study period at University of South Australia (UniSA). In line with UniSA’s guidelines and regulations, authorization was obtained from the university’s ethics committee prior to the data collection (see appendix 1 for the ethics approval from UniSA). Prospective respondents were asked to participate in the survey voluntarily and were assured of anonymity. Ethical approval related to this research was also gained from Curtin University’s Ethics Committee due to the researcher’s study transfer (see appendix 2 for the ethics approval from Curtin University). In addition, all data related to the survey will continue to be kept either in the researcher’s locked filing

cabinet or password protected computer. All records of this research will be destroyed based on the universities archiving policies.

3.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discusses the research methodology of this study. The purpose of this research is to examine the impact of work life balance policies, as well as FSSB on a range of employees' work attitudes and behaviours in the Indonesian context. There are a number of variables relationships proposed in this research that need to be tested using a statistical technique which is more applicable for quantitative research. Research hypotheses are developed for the purpose of this research through deductive process based on several supporting theories (i.e., social exchange, role, conservation of resources and JDR theories) and evidences from past research. This research also attempts to test the applicability of the findings in Western industrialized countries into the specific context of this study (i.e. Indonesia).

The Indonesian higher education context is chosen for this study. Both academic and non-academic staff from several public and private higher education institutions in Indonesia were chosen for inclusion in the research. Indonesian higher education has a strategic role in the development of Indonesian human resources (Presiden-RI, 2012; Sirozi, 2013). The education sector including higher education has received increased funding from the Indonesian Government. At least 20 per cent of the national and regional budgets are allocated for the education sector (Kemenkeu-RI, 2009), an 8.2 per cent increase in the Indonesian state budgets in 2007 (Maesaroh, 2012). With the increased budget for the education sector, getting a more highly qualified workforce in the higher education, including women, is one of the aims of the Indonesian Directorate General of Higher Education (DGHE) /' *Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Tinggi (DIKTI)*' (DIKTI, 2013). The number of women participating in higher education has also increased significantly. As mentioned, at least 20 per cent of high positions in the Indonesian higher education are held by women (Yakub, 2013). These reveal the relevance of studying work family (life) issues in the context of Indonesian higher education. In addition, according to Fox et al. (2011) and Post et al.(2009), higher education is revealing a case for work-family

related issues, however, research in this context are limited (Fox et al., 2011; Post et al., 2009). Only medium to large institutions were included in the research based on an assumption that because of greater demand and cost-effectiveness, medium and large organisations are more likely to adopt work life balance policies than small organisations (Galinsky et al., 2008; Swoody & Powell, 2007). Considering that experience related to the conflicting demands from work and family/life is not unique to female employees (e.g., Bagger & Li, 2012; Gilbert et al., 1981), this research expands the participant pools to include males.

Research variables in this study are categorized into independent, dependent and control variables. Independent variables consist of the use of work life balance policies and FSSB. Dependent variables of this research are organisational commitment, OCB, in-role performance, job satisfaction and work family conflict. Control variables of this research are gender, marital status, age, number of children, religion, the existence of paid help, job category and higher education category.

The variables and the construction of scales in this research are heavily based on the theoretical literature on work life issues. Some adaptations, especially for the work life balance policies, were made, based on the applied work life balance policies that suit the Indonesian context. Moreover, language adaptation was also made. The original questionnaires for this study were developed in English. They were translated into Indonesian by the researcher who is bilingual (in Indonesian and English). In order to ensure cross-linguistic comparability of the scale-item contents, the questionnaires were then back-translated into English (Brislin, 1980) by another bilingual speaker who was employed for the purpose of this study.

The questionnaire is developed in matched pairs, one part is for subordinates (university staff) and the other part is for the supervisor. The questionnaires were distributed through the mail. University staff members (subordinates) answered the questions regarding use of work life balance policies, FSSB, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and work family conflict. Supervisors were asked to rate their subordinates on the measures of OCB, and in-role performance to get a

more objective assessment. This method is used to minimise common method bias (Greenhaus et al., 2011; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986).

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter sets out the results of the data analysis. This chapter commences with the results of validity assessment using factor analysis. The chapter then moves to presenting the results of reliability assessments. The fourth section illustrates the descriptive statistics for work life balance policies included in the analysis. The fifth section examines the assumptions of hierarchical regression that need to be met. The sixth section discusses the results of the hierarchal multiple regression analysis that is used to examine the fitness of the regression models, correlations among research variables and to test the research hypotheses. The seventh section discusses the analysis of the research findings. These sections will lead to the development of a conceptual model based on the findings and analysis. This chapter ends with the conclusions and summary.

4.2 VALIDITY ASSESSMENT

4.2.1 Steps in Conducting the Validity Assessment

In assessing validity of the scales, factor analysis was conducted. Factor analysis is used to confirm the underlying structures or dimensions of a set of variables (Pallant, 2011). In determining whether scale items were measuring a single latent construct, exploratory factor analysis was performed for each scale separately. Exploratory factor analysis may often be preferred by scholars as it provides rigorous confirmatory evidence on scale validity (DeVellis, 2012). It is argued that “if data from different samples of individuals on different occasions produce essentially identical factor analytic results using exploratory approaches, the likelihood of those results being a recurring quirk is quite small” (DeVellis, 2012, p. 153). Specifically, principal component analysis was chosen as it is “a psychometrically sound procedure” (Field, 2000, p. 434). In conducting factor analysis, three steps were taken as recommended by Pallant (2011):

4.2.1.1 Step 1: Assessing the Suitability of the Data

Sample size and the strength of the relationship between the items are the two main issues that need to be addressed in assessing the suitability of the data (Pallant, 2011). Field (2000) argues that the sample size can affect the reliability of factor analysis. It is suggested to have at least 300 cases to conduct factor analysis, however a smaller sample size (e.g., 150 cases) should be sufficient if factor loadings for several items are high (above 0.8) (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Instead of considering the overall sample size, some authors suggest considering the ratio of cases to items. Nunally (1978) suggests having a 10 to 1 ratio, that is ten cases for each item to be factor analysed. Tabachnick and Fidell, (2007) recommends having at least five cases per item. As has been advanced by Pallant (2011), two statistical measures for assessing the strength of the relationship among items include Bartlett's test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy. Pallant (2011) summarizes that in order to be considered appropriate factor analysis, Bartlett's test of sphericity should be significant ($p < 0.05$) and the KMO index ranges from 0 to 1 (minimum of 0.6). In this thesis, both the Bartlett's test of sphericity and the KMO measure of sampling adequacy are used.

4.2.1.2 Step 2: Determining the Factor Extraction Approach

Factor extraction relates to identifying (extracting) underlying factors numbers (Pallant, 2011). Principal component analysis is the most common approach in factor extraction (Field, 2000; Pallant, 2011). Since only statistically important factors are retained in an analysis, deciding the criterion used for examining the importance of the factors is required. According to Field (2000, p. 436), retaining factors with large eigenvalues is reasonable because eigenvalues associated to "a variate indicate the substantive importance of that factor". In relation to retaining factors based on their eigenvalues, there are a number of techniques that can be performed. To date, the most widely used technique is Kaiser's criterion (Pallant, 2011; J. Stevens, 1992). According to the Kaiser's criterion, only items with an eigenvalue of 1.0 or more are retained for further examination. Another approach that can be used to decide number of factors to be retained is through a scree test. Scree testing involves plotting a graph of each of the eigenvalues against their factors, then checking for a

point where the curve changes direction and becomes flat. Thus, all factors above this point are recommended to be retained (Catell, 1996 in Pallant, 2011). According to Gorsuch (1983), some conditions apply for getting more reliable results from the scree plots. The conditions include high communalities values, and several high factor loadings of variables for each factor. In addition, although scree test is a sound technique, it has been suggested not to use scree test alone for factor selection (Field, 2000). In line with this, in determining how many factors to extract, most researchers in practice seldom use a single criterion (Hair et al., 1998). In this thesis, both the Kaiser and scree test approaches are used.

4.2.1.3 Step 3: Determining the Factor Rotation Approach and Interpreting the Results.

In order to make the solution interpretation easier, rotation is used (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). It is widely accepted that the two main approaches to factor rotation are orthogonal and oblique rotations (e.g., Field, 2000; Pallant, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), compared to oblique rotation, orthogonal solutions are easier to interpret and report. However, the orthogonal approach assumes that the underlying constructs are not correlated. On the other hand, oblique rotation allows underlying constructs to be correlated. In practice, many researchers perform both approaches and then report the clearest and the most convenient solutions. In this study, both approaches were conducted with trial and error. Oblique rotation with direct oblimin was first performed to see whether it is reasonable to assume the factors to be independent or dependent. This is in line with Pallant's (2011) recommendation to start the analysis with oblique rotation for checking the degree of correlation between factors. If components are found to be strongly correlated (e.g., above 0.3), the result from oblique rotation would be more meaningful (Field, 2000; Pallant, 2011). On the other hand, if components are not strongly correlated, the results from orthogonal and oblique rotations would be similar (Pallant, 2011) and for this case, for simplicity reasons in interpretation, the result for orthogonal rotation will be reported. Varimax is one of the most commonly used methods to perform the orthogonal approach (e.g., Field, 2000; Pallant, 2011). According to Field (2000), the varimax method attempts to

maximize the distribution of loadings within factors which in turn result in more interpretable groups of factors. For oblique rotation, oblimin is considered as the most appropriate technique (e.g., Field, 2000; Pallant, 2011).

In order to be considered significant, the minimum factor loading should be 0.3 (Hair et al., 1998). In addition, for a set of items measuring unidimensional constructs, a single component should explain more than 40% of total variance and all items should have factor loading above 0.30 (Carmines & Zeller, 1979).

Following are the results from factor analysis for each variable used in this study (except work life balance policies variables).

4.2.2 Results of the Validity Assessment

4.2.2.1 Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviour (FSSB)

The fourteen items of four dimensions of FSSB were subjected to principal component analysis (PCA) using IBM SPSS Statistics version 21. Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of 0.3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was 0.891, exceeding the recommended value of 0.6, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance. PCA revealed the presence of three components with eigenvalues exceeding 1. (See appendix 12, for the inspection of correlation matrix, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO), Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and eigenvalues, for FSSB items).

However, an inspection of the scree plot (as shown in figure 4.1) revealed that the curve flattens out after the fifth component. Thus, it was decided to retain four components for further examination. This decision is in line with the concept of four dimensions of FSSB measure. The analysis was then redone with four components extracted.

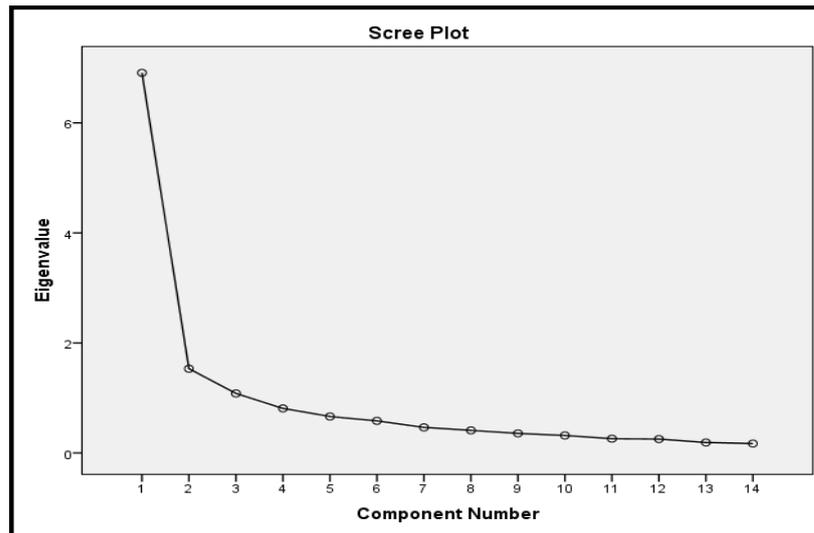


Figure 4.1
Scree Plot for FSSB (first analysis)

The four components account for 73.8% of the variance, with component one contributing 49.35%, component two contributing 10.94%, component three contributing 7.73% , and component four contributing 5.78%. Oblique rotation with Kaiser Normalization technique was performed since there were high correlations found ($R > 0.3$) among most of the components. The rotated solution (as shown in table 4.1) revealed four components showing a number of strong loadings and all variables (except FSSB_IS3) loading substantially on their component. Since variable FSSB_IS3 was not loading on its component, it was decided to omit the variable from the analysis and then redo the analysis in the absence of FSSB_IS3 variable.

Table 4.1
Factor Loadings for FSSB (first analysis)

Items	Component			
	1	2	3	4
FSSB_RM2	.846			
FSSB_RM3	.776			
FSSB_RM1	.746			
FSSB_IS3	.425*			
FSSB_IS2		.933		
FSSB_IS1		.835		
FSSB_ES1			-.829	
FSSB_ES3			-.816	
FSSB_ES2			-.775	
FSSB_ES4			-.685	
FSSB_CM4				.809
FSSB_CM3				.790
FSSB_CM2				.664
FSSB_CM1				.613
Total Variance Explained = 73.8%				

* FSSB_IS3 was not loading in its component

After omitting FSSB_IS3, the scree plot evaluation still revealed that the curve flattens out after the fifth component (as shown in figure 4.2).

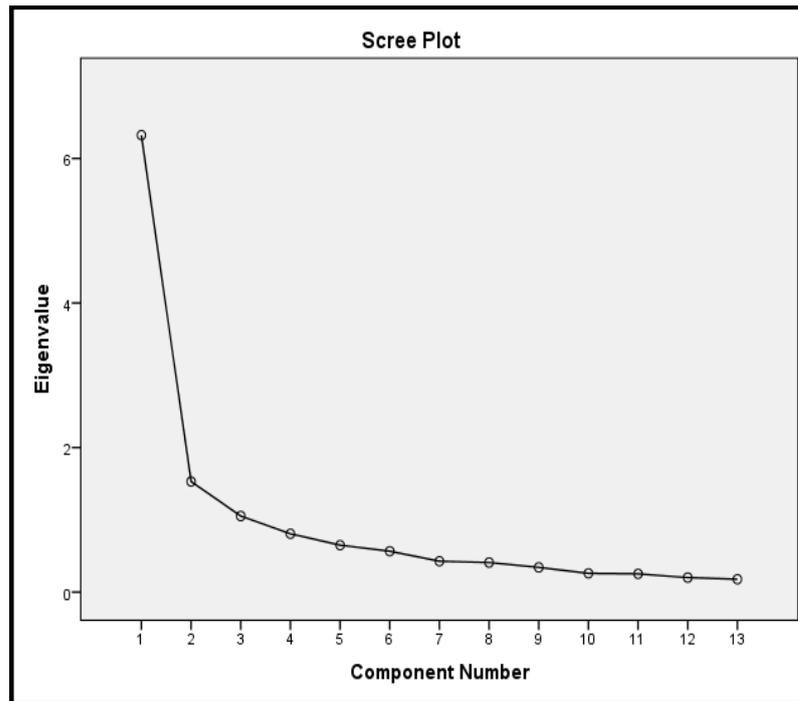


Figure 4.2
Scree Plot for FSSB (second analysis)

With the absence of FSSB_IS3, the final rotated solution shows the improvement on factor loading of four components of FSSB. The rotated solution revealed four components showing a number of strong loadings and all variables loading substantially on only one component. As shown on table 4.2, the lowest factor loading was 0.617. According to Hair et al. (1998), the minimum factor loading to be considered significant is 0.3. Thus, the validity of the FSSB scale in this study is considered high.

Table 4.2
Factor Loadings for FSSB (second analysis)

Items	Component			
	1	2	3	4
FSSB_CM4	.799			
FSSB_CM3	.787			
FSSB_CM2	.655			
FSSB_CM1	.617			
FSSB_IS2		.937		
FSSB_IS1		.834		
FSSB_ES3			-.825	
FSSB_ES1			-.815	
FSSB_ES2			-.755	
FSSB_ES4			-.710	
FSSB_RM2				-.835
FSSB_RM3				-.772
FSSB_RM1				-.720
Total Variance Explained = 74.71%				

4.2.2.2 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

The eleven items of three dimensions of OCB (i.e. altruism, conscientiousness, and sportsmanship) were subjected to principal component analysis (PCA) using IBM SPSS Statistics version 21. Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of the data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of 0.3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was 0.801, exceeding the recommended value of 0.6, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance. PCA revealed the presence of three components with eigenvalues exceeding 1 (i.e., 3.806, 1.623, and 1.249), explaining 34.6%, 14.75 and 11.36% of the variance respectively. (See appendix 13, for the inspection of correlation matrix, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO), Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and eigenvalues, for OCB items).

An inspection of the scree plot (as shown in figure 4.3) revealed the curve flattens out after the fourth component. Thus, both the eigenvalues and the scree plot support the same number of components to be retained, that is three components.

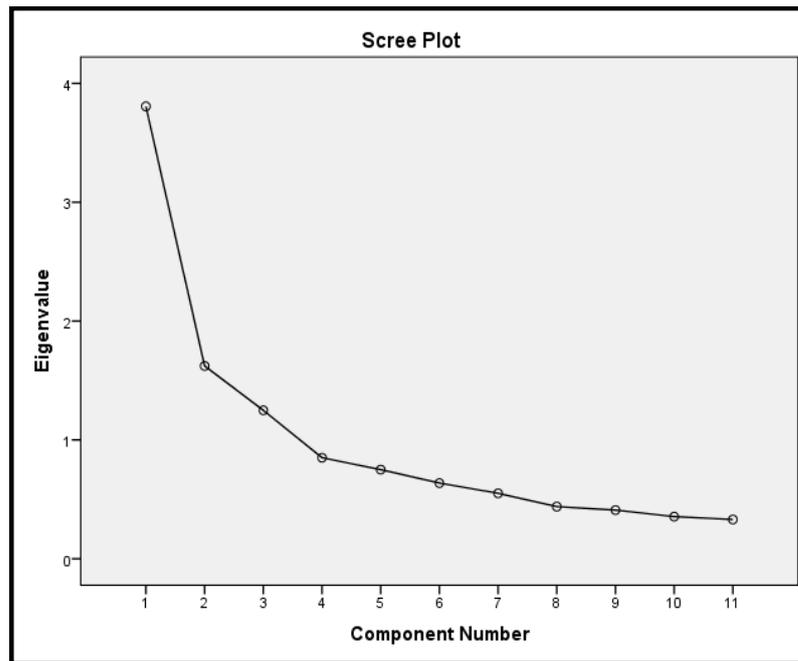


Figure 4.3
 Scree Plot for Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale
 (first analysis)

Oblique rotation with the Kaiser Normalization technique was performed since one of the correlations (i.e., between component 1 and component 3) was found to be high ($r = 0.31$). The initial rotated solution (as shown in table 4.3) revealed three components showing a number of strong loadings and all variables (except OCB_S3) loading substantially on their component. Since variable OCB_S3 was not loading on its component, it was decided to omit the variable from the analysis and then redo the analysis without OCB_S3.

Table 4.3
Factor Loadings for OCB (first analysis)

Items	Component		
	1	2	3
OCB_S2	.852		
OCB_S1	.762		
OCB_S5	.745		
OCB_S4	.658		
OCB_S3		.675*	
OCB_C2		-.629	
OCB_C3		-.601	
OCB_C1		-.539	
OCB_A2			.814
OCB_A3			.765
OCB_A1			.711
Total Variance Explained = 60.71%			

* OCB_S3 was not loading in its component

The second analysis revealed that after omitting OCB_S3 variable, the suitability of the data slightly improved. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value improved from 0.801 to 0.813. PCA still revealed the presence of three components with eigenvalues exceeding 1 (i.e., 3.806, 1.479 and 1.153), explaining 38.06%, 14.79% and 11.52% of the variance respectively. The scree plot evaluation still revealed that the curve flattens out after the fourth component (as shown in figure 4.4).

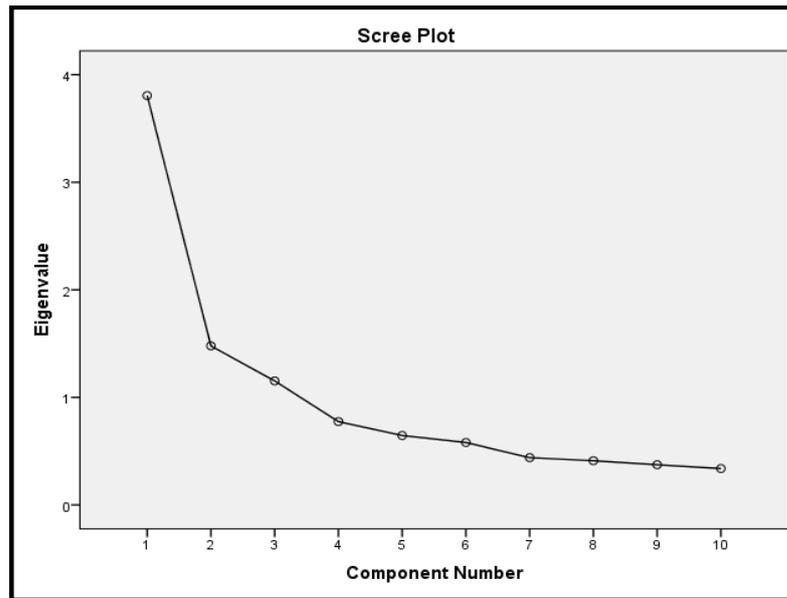


Figure 4.4
Scree Plot for Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale
(second analysis)

With the absence of OCB_S3, the final rotated solution shows an improvement on factor loading of three components of OCB. The rotated solution revealed three components showing a number of strong loadings and all variables loading substantially on only one component. As shown on table 4.4, the lowest factor loading was 0.6. According to Hair et al. (1998), the minimum factor loading to be considered significant is 0.3. Thus, the validity of the OCB scale is considered high.

Table 4.4
Factor Loadings for OCB
(second analysis)

Items	Component		
	1	2	3
OCB_C2	.836		
OCB_C3	.752		
OCB_C1	.700		
OCB_S5		-.810	
OCB_S2		-.792	
OCB_S4		-.724	
OCB_S1		-.654	
OCB_A2			.754
OCB_A1			.726
OCB_A3			.725
Total Variance Explained = 64.37%			

4.2.2.3 In-Role Performance

The seven items of in-role performance scale were subjected to principal component analysis (PCA) using IBM SPSS Statistics version 21. Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of 0.3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was 0.758, exceeding the recommended value of 0.6, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance. PCA revealed the presence of two components with eigenvalues exceeding 1. (See appendix 14, for the inspection of correlation matrix, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO), Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and eigenvalues, for IRP items).

However, an inspection of the scree plot (as shown in figure 4.5) revealed a clear break of the curve on the second component. Thus, based on the scree plot, it was decided to retain only one component. This decision is in line with the concept of in-role performance as a unidimensional scale.

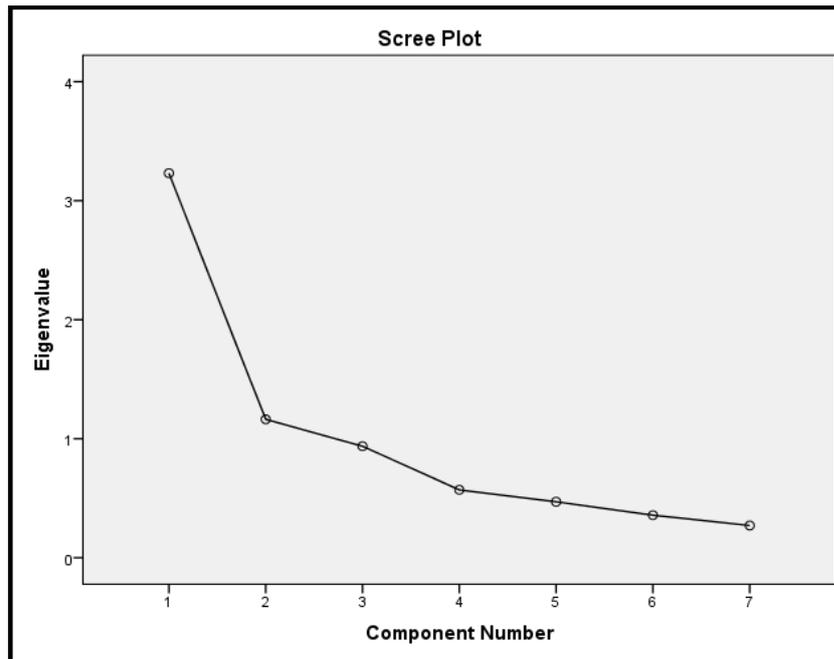


Figure 4.5
Scree Plot for In-Role Performance Scale

The analysis was redone with one component solution. According to Carmines and Zeller (1979), a single component should explain more than 40% of total variance. It is also suggested that all items should have factor loading above 0.30 (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Hair et al., 1998). The PCA result shows that a single component of in-role performance measure explained 46.159% of the total variance. From the component matrix (as shown in table 4.5), it is revealed that the lowest factor loading (without rotation) was 0.389. Thus, the validity of in-role performance scale is considered significant.

Table 4.5
Factor Loadings for In-Role
Performance Scale

Items	Component
	1
IRP_3	.823
IRP_2	.800
IRP_1	.794
IRP_4	.783
IRP_6	.531
IRP_7	.486
IRP_5	.389
Total Variance Explained = 46.16%	

4.2.2.4 Organisational Commitment

The six items of the organisational commitment measure were subjected to principal component analysis (PCA) using IBM SPSS Statistics version 21. Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of 0.3 and above. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was 0.82, exceeding the recommended value of 0.6, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance. PCA revealed the present one components with eigenvalues exceeding 1 (i.e., 3.308), explaining 55.1% of the variance. (See appendix 15, for the inspection of correlation matrix, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO), Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and eigenvalues, for OC items).

An inspection of the scree plot (as shown in figure 4.6) revealed the curve flattens out after the second component. Thus, both the eigenvalues and the scree plot support the same number of components to be retained, that is one component.

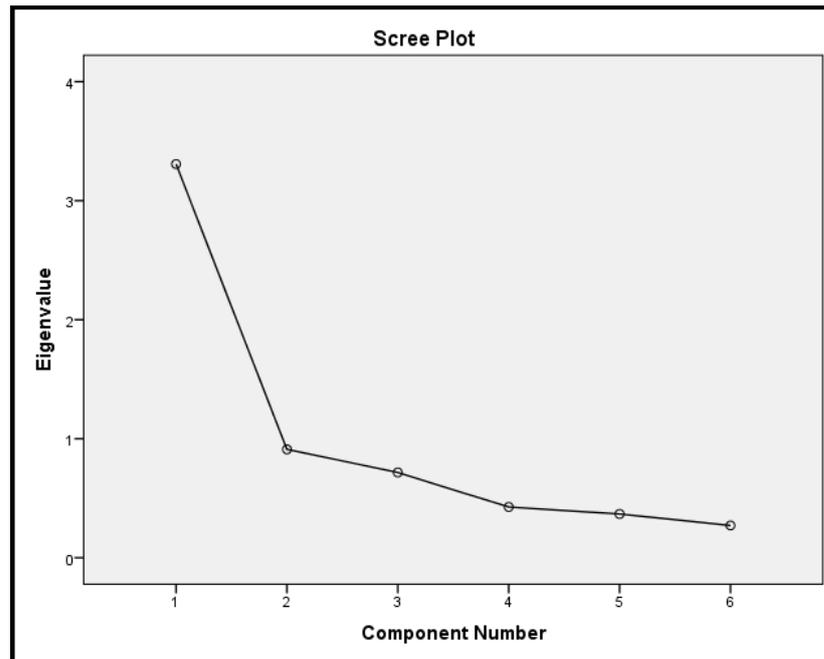


Figure 4.6
Scree Plot for Organisational Commitment Scale

Since only one component was extracted, the rotated solution was not available. According to Carmines and Zeller (1979), a single component of a unidimensional measure should explain more than 40% of total variance. It is also suggested that all items should have factor loading above 0.30 (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Hair et al., 1998). As mentioned, the PCA result shows that single component of organisational commitment explained 55.13 % of the total variance. From the component matrix (as shown in table 4.6), it is revealed that the lowest factor loading (without rotation) was 0.59. Thus, the validity of the organisational commitment scale is considered high.

Table 4.6
Factor Loadings for Organisational
Commitment

Items	Component
	1
OC_4	.840
OC_5	.830
OC_3	.765
OC_6	.749
OC_1	.645
OC_2	.592
Total Variance Explained = 55.13%	

4.2.2.5 Job Satisfaction

The three items of job satisfaction scale were subjected to principal component analysis (PCA) using IBM SPSS Statistics version 21. Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was 0.65 just above the recommended value of 0.6, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance. PCA revealed the presence of one component with an eigenvalue exceeding 1 (i.e., 1.8), explaining 59.99% of the variance. (See appendix 16, for the inspection of correlation matrix, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO), Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and eigenvalues, for job satisfaction items).

An inspection of the scree plot (as shown in figure 4.7) revealed the curve flattens out after the second component. Thus, both the eigenvalues and the scree plot support the same number of components to be retained, that is one component.

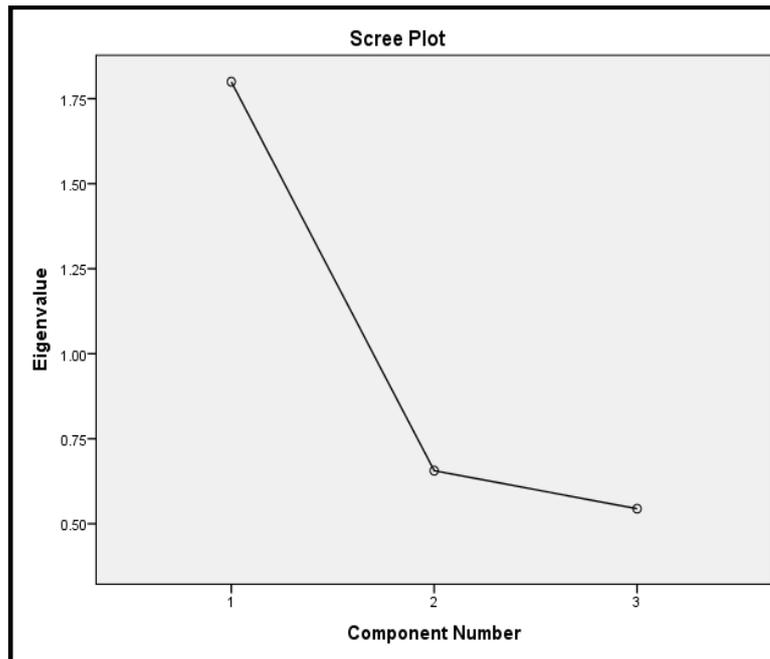


Figure 4.7

Scree Plot for Job Satisfaction Measure

Since only one component was extracted, the rotated solution was not available. Thus, the non-rotated factor matrices were examined. According to Carmines and Zeller (1979), for a set of items measuring unidimensional constructs, a single component should explain more than 40% of the total variance. It is also suggested that all items should have factor loading above 0.30 (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Hair et al., 1998). As mentioned, the PCA result shows that one component of job satisfaction measure explained 59.99% of the total variance. From the component matrix (as shown in table 4.7), it was revealed that the lowest factor loading (without rotation) was 0.739. Thus, the validity of job satisfaction measure is considered high.

Table 4.7
Factor Loadings for Job Satisfaction

	Component
	1
JS_1	.803
JS_2	.780
JS_3	.739
Total Variance Explained = 59.99%	

4.2.2.6 Work Family Conflict

The five items of work family conflict scale were subjected to principal component analysis (PCA) using IBM SPSS Statistics version 21. Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients above 0.3. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was 0.852, exceeding the recommended value of 0.6, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance. PCA revealed the presence of one component with an eigenvalue exceeding 1 (i.e., 3.314). (See appendix 17, for the inspection of correlation matrix, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO), Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and eigenvalues, for WFC items).

An inspection of the scree plot (as shown in figure 4.8) revealed the curve flattens out after the second component. Thus, both the eigenvalues and the scree plot support the same number of components to be retained, that is one component.

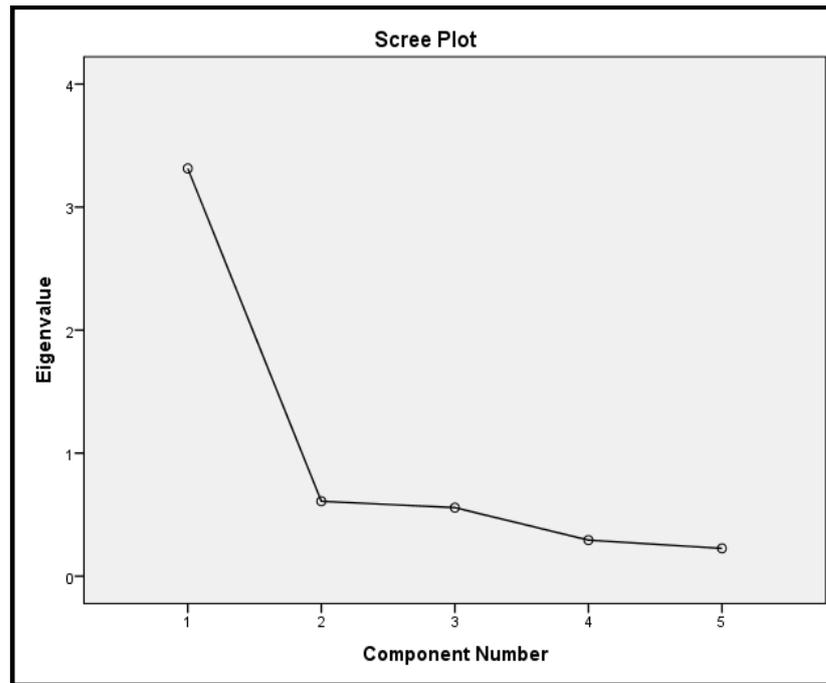


Figure 4.8
Scree Plot for Work Family Conflict Scale

Since only one component was extracted, the rotated solution was not available. Thus, the non-rotated factor matrices were examined. According to Carmines and Zeller (1979), a single component of a unidimensional construct should explain more than 40% of total variance. It is also suggested that all items should have factor loading above 0.30 (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Hair et al., 1998). Results revealed that one component of work family conflict scale explained 66.28% of total variance. From the component matrix (as shown in table 4.8), it was revealed that the lowest factor loading was 0.71. Thus, all items measured a single construct with high validity.

Table 4.8
Factor Loadings for Work Family
Conflict

Items	Component
	1
WFC_1	.728
WFC_2	.876
WFC_3	.884
WFC_4	.856
WFC_5	.710
Total Variance Explained = 66.28%	

4.3 RELIABILITY ASSESSMENT

Reliability of a scale indicates the degree to which the scale is free from random error (Pallant, 2011) and helps in evaluating the ‘goodness’ of a scale (Sekaran, 2003; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). One of the main issues related to reliability is internal consistency of the scale which refers to the degree to which the items are measuring the same underlying construct (Hair et al., 1998). It is widely accepted that the most popular indicator of internal consistency is Cronbach’s alpha coefficient. The acceptable reliability of scales range from 0.6 to 0.8, while good reliability is above 0.8 (Sekaran, 2003; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). In short, it is suggested that the higher the coefficient, the better the measurement (Sekaran, 2003; Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). Cronbach’s alpha coefficient is used in this study to assess the reliability of the scales. All variables in this study (except work life balance policies variables) are subject to reliability assessment. Since usage of any specific of work life balance policies was not expected to be related to usage of other policies in the list, assessment of the internal consistency (reliability) of each category of work life balance policies would not be appropriate (Brough, O’Driscoll, & Kalliath, 2005). Work life balance policies variables in this research are not subjected to reliability test. This approach is also adopted in previous studies (e.g., Allen, 2001; Hammer et al., 2005; Lapierre & Allen, 2006).

Following are results of the reliability tests for each of the variables of this research project (except for the use of work life balance policies):

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for FSSB (i.e., emotional support, instrumental support, role model, and creative work-family management) are 0.847, 0.818, 0.858, and 0.837 respectively. These Cronbach's alpha coefficients are considered high. Thus, it is confirmed that the four dimensions of FSSB measure have good internal consistency.

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for organisational commitment measure was 0.833. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient is high. Thus, it is revealed that the organisational commitment measure has good internal consistency.

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for OCB used in this research (i.e., conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and altruism) are 0.726, 0.79 and 0.688 respectively. Based on these Cronbach's alpha coefficients, it is confirmed that the three dimensions of OCB used have good internal consistency.

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the in-role performance measure was 0.789. This Cronbach's alpha coefficient is considered acceptable. Thus, it is shown in this research that in-role performance measure has acceptable internal consistency.

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the job satisfaction measure was 0.666. This Cronbach's alpha coefficient is considered low but still acceptable (Sekaran, 2003). The possible reason for the relatively low reliability of the job satisfaction measure could be because the measure comprises only three items. According to Tharenou, Donohue, and Cooper (2007), it may be difficult to get good internal consistency reliability for scales or measures with a small number of items (e.g., two or three items). Thus, the job satisfaction measure has acceptable internal consistency.

The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for work family conflict is 0.865. This Cronbach's alpha coefficient is considered high. Thus, it is confirmed that the measure of work family conflict has good internal consistency.

Summaries of both validity and reliability assessments are provided in table 4.9 and 4.10.

Table 4.9
Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis and Reliability Analysis
for Unidimensional Scales

Item	Factor Loading	Total V. (%)	α	Item	Factor Loading	Total V. (%)	α
Work Family		66.28	0.865	In-Role		46.16	0.789
Conflict				Performance			
WFC_1	0.728			IRP_1	0.794		
WFC_2	0.876			IRP_2	0.8		
WFC_3	0.884			IRP_3	0.823		
WFC_4	0.856			IRP_4	0.783		
WFC_5	0.71		IRP_5	0.389			
Org.		55.13	0.833	IRP_6	0.531		
Commitment				IRP_7	0.486		
OC_1	0.645			Job			
OC_2	0.592			Satisfaction			
OC_3	0.765			JS_1	0.803		
OC_4	0.84			JS_2	0.78		
OC_5	0.83		JS_3	0.739			
OC_6	0.749				55.99	0.666	

Remarks:

Org. Commitment = Organisational Commitment

Total V. = Total Variance

Table 4.10
Summary of Exploratory Factor Analysis and Reliability Analysis
for Multidimensional Scales

Item		Factor Loading				Total V. (%)	α
		1	2	3	4	74.71	
FSSB	Creative WF Mgt						0.837
	FSSB_CM1	0.617					
	FSSB_CM2	0.655					
	FSSB_CM3	0.787					
	FSSB_CM4	0.799					
	Instrumental support						0.818
	FSSB_IS1		0.834				
	FSSB_IS2		0.937				
	Emotional support						0.847
	FSSB_ES1			-0.815			
	FSSB_ES2			-0.755			
	FSSB_ES3			-0.825			
	FSSB_ES4			-0.71			
	Role modelling						0.858
	FSSB_RM1				-0.72		
FSSB_RM2				-0.835			
FSSB_RM3					-0.772		
OCB	Conscientiousness					64.37	0.726
	OCB_C1	0.700					
	OCB_C2	0.836					
	OCB_C3	0.752					
	Sportsmanship						0.79
	OCB_S1		-0.654				
	OCB_S2		-0.792				
	OCB_S4		-0.724				
	OCB_S5		-0.81				
	Altruism						0.688
	OCB_A1			0.726			
	OCB_A2			0.754			
	OCB_A3			0.725			

Remarks:

Creative WF Mgt. = Creative Work Family Management

Total V. = Total Variance

4.4 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR WORK LIFE BALANCE POLICIES

There are 12 work life balance policies included in the survey. The policies included are available in most higher education institutions in Indonesia. However, only 11 policies were included in the data analysis. It was decided to exclude ‘on site /near site childcare’, since only 34 per cent of the respondents reported that this policy was available in their organisations (see table 4.11), 66 per cent of the respondents indicated that there is no on site/near site childcare available in their organizations. This is not surprising because child care benefits and provision is seen to be less valuable in Indonesian societies as compared to Western societies. In Indonesia, it is very common to have co-residence with one’s parents or in-laws or even live with extended families that could provide assistance in doing household work and taking care of the children. In addition, having a nanny or a paid help to assist with taking care of the children as well as providing general help is relatively more affordable in Indonesia. Thus, many organisations and employees in Indonesia do not see the value of providing on-site/near site childcare for their employees yet.

Among 11 policies which are included in the analysis, 3 policies are specific to the Indonesian context which is based on Indonesian Labour Law (Presiden-RI, 1994, 2003). These policies are Family allowance/ ‘tunjangan keluarga’, longer break and or leave to do religiosity rituals, and Religious Holiday Allowance /’tunjangan hari raya (THR)’. Family allowance refers to an allowance for employees with dependents (wife/husband and children) who work for the Indonesian government (Presiden-RI, 1994). Children who are eligible for the allowances are those under 21 years of age who have never been married, do not have a permanent job and are still dependants of the employee (parent). Two is the maximum number of children that are covered in the allowances (Presiden-RI, 1994). Longer breaks and or leave to do religiosity rituals refers to longer breaks and or leave which employees are entitled to, for compulsory religious rituals without any pay reduction (Presiden-RI, 2003). Religious Holiday Allowance refers to allowances that have to be paid by employers in cash and/or other forms a week before their employees’ religious holiday celebrations (Menaker-RI, 1994). The availability frequencies of the policies are shown in table 4.11.

Table 4.11
Frequency of Work Life Balance Policies Availability

Work Life Balance Policies	Frequency of Policies Availability (%)
Flexible Work Options	
Compressed Working Week	56.6
Flexitime	69.2
Job Sharing	73.6
Home telecommuting/ working from home	60.4
Specialized Leave Policies	
Bereavement Leave	73.6
Maternity Leave	91.2
Paternity Leave	68.6
Sabbatical Leave	74.2
Dependent Care Support	
On-site/ near site childcare	34
Family allowance	74.8
Religiosity Support	
Longer break and or leave to do religiosity rituals	78.6
Religious Holiday Allowance	91.2

From table 4.11, it is revealed that 91.2 per cent of respondents have maternity leave and religious holiday allowance available in their organisations. What is interesting about this finding is that less than 100 per cent of respondents reported the availability of maternity leave and religious holiday allowance in their organizations, despite these two policies being mandated by Indonesian Law. This data implies that availability of some work life balance policies to individuals may differ because there is a possibility that particular policies are not well known through the organisation or the policy access is restricted by managers, or the laws are not being implemented at the workplace (Forsyth & Polzer-Debruyne, 2007; Wang et al., 2011). In addition, findings from past research (Prottas, Thompson, Kopelman, & Jahn, 2007) reveal that knowledge related to work life balance policies is highest

among employees for whom such policies would be most salient. Female employees, employees who are married-cohabitating, and employees with dependent care responsibility have been found to have greater awareness of the policies availability (Butts et al., 2013; Cook, 2009; Giannikis & Mihail, 2011; Prottas et al., 2007). In the context of this research project, as shown in table 3.7, the respondents (i.e., subordinates) who have been asked to indicate the availability of the work life balance policies in their organisations comprises 40.88 per cent of female employees and 59.12 per cent of male employees. About 70.44 per cent of subordinates reported that they have one or more children, and the rest of the respondents, about 29.56 per cent, do not have children. In addition, there are 18.24 per cent of respondents who are single. These data may imply that not all the respondents might have an awareness of or interest in finding information related to work life balance policies available in their organization, especially the policies that are specifically related for those who have spouses or dependents. Thus, the availability of the policies may be perceived differently among individuals.

The fact that availability of work life balance policies is perceived differently by respondents also supports the decision to focus the analysis of this research on the actual use of the policies instead of the availability of the policies. Thus, since the focus of this study is the use of work life balance policies, all variables in this study are analysed in individual levels of analysis, including the work life balance policies variable, although there is a possibility that work life balance policies could be analysed in organisation or group levels of analysis (Wang et al., 2011).

4.5 HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION ASSUMPTIONS TESTING

In order for the results of a regression analysis to be generalized outside of the research sample, there are several underlying assumptions that should be met (Field, 2007; Pallant, 2011). The underlying assumptions on hierarchical regression include normality, absence of multicollinearity, homoscedasticity and independence (e.g., Field, 2007; Leech et al., 2011; Pallant, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Following are the results of the examination of these assumptions.

4.5.1 Normality

Normality refers to the shape of the data distribution for an individual metric variable and its correspondence to a normal distribution (Hair et al., 1998). When the variation from the normal distribution is sufficiently large (i.e., when non-normality occurs), the results of statistical tests could be invalid (Hair et al., 1998; Pallant, 2011). In order to meet the normality assumption, the residuals should be normally distributed about the predicted dependent variables scores (Pallant, 2011). Residuals are the differences between obtained and predicted dependent variables (Pallant, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

There are several ways to examine normality. These include obtaining skewness and kurtosis values, inspecting the histograms of scores on each variable, examining Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistics and examining normal probability plots (Hair et al., 1998; Pallant, 2011). In addition, based on the central limit theorem (CLT), a sufficient large number of samples (i.e., at least 30) will be approximately normally distributed. The distribution of means will increasingly approximate a normal distribution as the sample size increases (Burns & Burns, 2008). Past studies (e.g., Kallenberg, 1997; Miao, Xu, & Peng, 2012) have provided supporting evidence of the central limit theory. It is safely assumed that for a sample size of 30 or more, the sampling distribution of means will approximate to a normal distribution (Burns & Burns, 2008).

The normality assumption in this research is assessed on the central limit theorem. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007, p. 123) the general rule of thumb for the sample size (N) to be considered as sufficient is $N \geq 50 + 8m$ (where m is the number of independent variables) for testing a regression. This research project consists of five independent variables, thus in order for the sample size of this research to be considered sufficient based on Tabachnick and Fidell (2007)'s general rule of thumb, the sample size required is 90 (i.e., $50 + (8 \times 5)$). The sample size of this research project is 159 pairs. Thus, based on the central limit theory, this research project uses a sufficiently large number of samples so that the data is approximately normally distributed. In short, the assumption of normality has not been violated.

4.5.2 An Absence of Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity occurs when there is a strong correlation between two or more independent variables in a regression model (Field, 2007; Pallant, 2011; Tharenou et al., 2007). The absence of multicollinearity is one of the underlying assumptions that should be met in multiple regression analysis. (Field, 2007). If there is multicollinearity among independent variables, it becomes impossible to obtain unique estimates of the regression coefficients because there are an infinite number of combinations of coefficients that work equally well. Moreover, high levels of collinearity increase the probability that a good predictor (independent variables) of the outcome (dependent variables) will be found non-significant and rejected from the model (Field, 2007, p. 174).

Examining the bivariate correlations is one method of checking for multicollinearity (Tharenou et al., 2007). According to Pallant (2011), variables that have bivariate correlations of 0.7 or higher may suffer from multicollinearity. If two variables are highly correlated, this suggests that the two variables are so similar that one should be removed from the analysis or they should be combined in some way (Pallant, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Based on the examination of the correlations among variables (table 4.15), it was shown that correlation between each of the independent variables is not too high (less than 0.7). The maximum correlation between independent variables in this research is 0.322. This means that no multicollinearity is found in the data based on the examination of bivariate correlations among the independent variables.

In addition to the examination of bivariate correlations, examining tolerance and variance inflation factors (VIF) values can be used to determine whether the independent variables have an acceptable degree of multicollinearity (Burns & Burns, 2008; Hair et al., 1998; Pallant, 2011). Tolerance is an indicator of how much of the variability of the specified independent variable is not explained by the other independent variables in the regression model (Pallant, 2011). A very small tolerance value (less than 0.1) indicating the possibility of multicollinearity (Pallant, 2011). VIF is the inverse of the tolerance value, in which high VIF value denotes high multicollinearity (Hair et al., 1998; Pallant, 2011). The commonly used cut-off points

for determining the presence of multicollinearity are a tolerance value of less than 0.1, or a VIF value of above 10 (Burns & Burns, 2008; Hair et al., 1998; Pallant, 2011). The examination of the tolerance and VIF values of the independent variables in all regression models (see appendix 18) indicated that no multicollinearity in the data (i.e., tolerance values are above 0.1 and VIF values are less than 10). These mean that assumption of the absence of multicollinearity has been met. Thus, all research variables are retained in the analysis.

4.5.3 Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity is an assumption which is related to the dependence relationships between variables (Hair et al., 1998). It refers to the assumption that dependent variables demonstrate equal levels of variance across the range of independent variables (Hair et al., 1998; Pallant, 2011). The word ‘homoscedasticity’ is derived from the conjunction of the Greek words *homos* which means ‘the same’ and *skedastikos*, which means ‘able to spread or scatter’ (Tharenou et al., 2007, p. 202). Violating this assumptions often makes ‘hypotheses tests either too conservative or too sensitive’ (Hair et al., 1998, p. 74). Diagnosing homoscedasticity can be done by analysing the pattern shown in the residuals scatterplots (Pallant, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Residuals scatterplots in this research project are obtained from IBM SPSS Statistics version 21. Both predicted scores and errors of prediction are standardized in SPSS (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). If it shows a consistent or a clear pattern (e.g., a diamond shaped pattern and triangle shaped in either directions) on the scatterplots, the variance is not constant (Hair et al., 1998) which means the occurrence of homoscedasticity violation (Hair et al., 1998; Pallant, 2011). Based on the examination of the scatterplots (see appendix 19 for homoscedasticity assessment) there is no clear or systematic pattern to the residuals shown for each dependent variable (i.e., organisational citizenship behaviours, in-role performance, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and work family conflict). Thus, the assumption of homoscedasticity has been met.

4.5.4 Independence

Independence refers to the assumption that all of the outcome (independent variables) values are independent (Field, 2007). Because data about in-role performance and OCB were gathered from supervisor ratings, there was a concern that the data may be nested within groups by supervisor. Thus, the data needed to be tested to see if in-role performance and OCB data were dependent on the supervisor. This was accomplished by analysing correlations between the number of evaluations completed by each supervisor and both in-role and OCB data to examine whether ratings of both in-role performance and OCB were dependent on the supervisor. This approach was also performed by researchers in previous studies (Muse & Pichler, 2011; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012) to deal with possible nested data. Results showed that the correlations were very low (r with in-role performance = 0.033; r with OCB = 0.051) and none of the correlations was significant. Thus, this reveals that nesting of both in-role performance and OCB within supervisor did not impact the result (Muse & Pichler, 2011). In addition, on average, one supervisor assessed OCB and in-role performance of 1.59 subordinates in this research project. The ratio between subordinates and supervisors in this research project is relatively low compared to the ratio in the study of Muse and Pichler (2011) that is 2.88. This might also contribute to the non-significant impact of the nesting data in this research project. Thus, it is assumed in this study that all the values of the dependent variables, including data related to OCB and in-role performance are independent. Thus, there is no violation of the independence assumption.

Table 4.12

Possibility for Nested Data

		In-Role Performance (IRP)	Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCB)
Number of Subordinates rated by Supervisor	Correlation	.033	.051
	Sig. (2 tailed)	.683	.521

4.6 Data Analysis Using Hierarchical Multiple Regression

All the hypotheses in this research were examined using hierarchical multiple regression. Hierarchical multiple regression is chosen to examine the ability of the model (which includes one or more independent variables) to predict one or more dependent variables, after controlling for a number of control variables (Leech et al., 2011; Pallant, 2011). Hierarchical multiple regression in this research is used to examine the ability of use of work life balance policies (i.e., flexible work options, specialized leave policies, dependent care benefits and religiosity support) and FSSB variables to predict employees' OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and work family conflict, after controlling for the research control variables (i.e., gender, marital status, age, number of children, existence of a paid helper, religion, job category and higher education category).

In conducting hierarchical multiple regression, control variables and independent variables are entered in steps or blocks in a predetermined order (Pallant, 2011). All the control variables in this research are entered into the first block of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis. This step has the effect of statistically controlling for the variables of gender, marital status, age, number of children, existence of paid helper, religion, job category and higher education category.

In the second step, the independent variables (i.e., the use of work life balance policies and FSSB) are entered into the model as a second block. This step is taken to examine whether the block of the independent variables are still able to explain some of the remaining variance in the dependent variables after eliminating the possible effect of the control variables that has been done in the first step. Table 4.13, 4.14, 4.15, 4.16 are summarized from the hierarchical multiple regression analysis performed for the purpose of this research. The tables are used to evaluate the fitness of regression model, to examine correlations among research variables and to test the research hypotheses.

4.6.1 The Fit of the Regression Model Evaluation

The fit of the regression models of this research are assessed using the model summary and analysis of variance (ANOVA) tables from SPSS (Field, 2007; Leech et al., 2011; Pallant, 2011). The fit of regression model assessment is used to examine whether the research model is successful (statistically significant) in predicting the dependent variable (Field, 2007). Following are the results of the regression models evaluation for each dependent variable of this research based on SPSS results. Model summaries and ANOVA tables are presented in table 4.13 and 4.14.

Table 4.13
Model Summary

Dependent Variable	Model	R Square	Change Statistics		
			R Square Change	F Change	Sig. F Change
OCB	1	0.092	0.092	1.908	0.063
	2	0.234	0.142	5.384	0.000
IRP	1	0.121	0.121	2.569	0.012
	2	0.213	0.093	3.412	0.006
OC	1	0.115	0.115	2.443	0.016
	2	0.223	0.108	4.027	0.002
JS	1	0.087	0.087	1.779	0.085
	2	0.165	0.079	2.733	0.022
WFC	1	0.198	0.198	4.626	0.000
	2	0.259	0.061	2.385	0.041

Remarks for Table 4.13:

Model 1 reflects the regression model that only includes control variables for each dependent variable

Model 2 reflects the regression model that includes control variables and independent variables for each dependent variable

OCB = Organisational Citizenship Behaviour; IRP = In-Role Performance;

OC = Organisational Commitment JS = Job Satisfaction;

WFC = Work Family Conflict

Table 4.14**ANOVA**

Dependent Variable	Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
OCB	1	Regression	276.068	8	34.509	1.908	0.063
		Residual	2713.290	150	18.089		
		Total	2989.358	158			
	2	Regression	700.899	13	53.915	3.416	0.000
		Residual	2288.460	145	15.782		
		Total	2989.358	158			
IRP	1	Regression	170.903	8	21.363	2.569	0.012
		Residual	1247.373	150	8.316		
		Total	1418.277	158			
	2	Regression	302.205	13	23.247	3.020	0.001
		Residual	1116.072	145	7.697		
		Total	1418.277	158			
OC	1	Regression	211.790	8	26.474	2.443	0.016
		Residual	1625.808	150	10.839		
		Total	1837.597	158			
	2	Regression	410.007	13	31.539	3.203	0.000
		Residual	1427.591	145	9.845		
		Total	1837.597	158			
JS	1	Regression	34.853	8	4.357	1.779	0.085
		Residual	367.423	150	2.449		
		Total	402.277	158			
	2	Regression	66.498	13	5.115	2.209	0.012
		Residual	335.778	145	2.316		
		Total	402.277	158			
WFC	1	Regression	451.155	8	56.394	4.626	0.000
		Residual	1828.669	150	12.191		
		Total	2279.824	158			
	2	Regression	590.104	13	45.393	3.895	0.000
		Residual	1689.720	145	11.653		
		Total	2279.824	158			

Remarks for Table 4.14:

Model 1 reflects the regression model that only includes control variables for each dependent variable

Model 2 reflects the regression model that includes control variables and independent variables for each dependent variable

df = degree of freedom; OCB = Organisational Citizenship Behaviour;
IRP = In-Role Performance; OC = Organisational Commitment; JS = Job Satisfaction;
WFC = Work Family Conflict

4.6.1.1 OCB as the Dependent Variable

It is shown from the model summary table 4.13 that model 1 explains 9.2 per cent of the variance (0.092×100) after control variables are entered in the first block. After independent variables are included in the second block, the model as a whole (model 2) explains 23.4 per cent of the variance (0.234×100). This means that the use of work life balance policies (i.e., flexible work options, specialized leave policies, dependent care support and religiosity support) and FSSB explain an additional 14.2 per cent of the variance in employees' organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), after the effects of control variables are statistically controlled for. This is a statistically significant contribution, as indicated by the Sig. F change value for this line which is 0.000 ($p < 0.001$). From the ANOVA table it is shown that the model as a whole (which includes both blocks of variables) is significant ($F(13, 145) = 3.416$, $p < 0.001$). Thus, with OCB as the dependent variable, the overall model is statistically significant.

4.6.1.2 In-Role Performance as the Dependent Variable

The summary table 4.13 shows that after control variables are entered in the first block, the overall model (model 1) explains 12.1 per cent of the variance (0.121×100). After independent variables are included in the second block, the model as a whole (model 2) explains 21.3 per cent of the variance (0.213×100). This means that the use of work life balance policies (i.e., flexible work options, specialized leave policies, dependent care support and religiosity support) and FSSB explain an additional 9.3 per cent of the variance in employees' in-role performance (IRP), after

the effects of the control variables are statistically controlled. This is a statistically significant contribution, as indicated by the Sig. F change value for this line is 0.006 ($p < 0.01$). From the ANOVA table it is shown that, the model as a whole (which includes both blocks of variables) is significant ($F(13, 145) = 3.020, p < 0.01$). Thus, with in-role performance as the dependent variable, the overall model is statistically significant.

4.6.1.3 Organisational Commitment as the Dependent Variable

The summary table 4.13 reveals that after control variables are entered in the first block, the model (model 1) explains 11.5 per cent of the variance (0.115×100). After independent variables are included in the second block, the model as a whole (model 2) explains 22.3 per cent of the variance (0.223×100). This means that the use of work life balance policies (i.e., flexible work options, specialized leave policies, dependent care support and religiosity support) and FSSB explain an additional 10.8 per cent of the variance in employees' organisational commitment, after the effects of control variables are statistically controlled for. This is a statistically significant contribution, as indicated by the Sig. F change value for this line which is 0.002 ($p < 0.01$). From the ANOVA table it is shown that, the model as a whole (which includes both blocks of variables) is a significant fit of the data overall ($F(13, 145) = 3.203, p < 0.001$). Thus, with organisational commitment as the dependent variable, the overall model is statistically significant.

4.6.1.4 Job Satisfaction as the Dependent Variable

It is shown from the summary table 4.13 that after control variables are entered in the first block, the overall model (model 1) explains 8.7 per cent of the variance (0.087×100). After independent variables are included in the second block, the model as a whole (model 2) explains 16.5 per cent of the variance (0.165×100). This means that the use of work life balance policies (i.e., flexible work options, specialized leave policies, dependent care support and religiosity support) and FSSB explain an additional 7.9 per cent of the variance in employees' job satisfaction, after the effects of control variables are statistically controlled for. This is a statistically significant

contribution, as indicated by the Sig. F change value for this line which is 0.022 ($p < 0.05$). From the ANOVA table it is shown that, the model as a whole (which includes both blocks of variables) is significant ($F(13, 145) = 2.209, p < 0.05$). Thus, with job satisfaction as the dependent variable, the overall model is statistically significant.

4.6.1.5 WFC as the Dependent Variable

The summary table 4.13 reveals that after control variables are entered in the first block, the overall model explains 19.8 per cent of the variance (0.198×100). After independent variables are included in the second block, the model as a whole explains 25.9 per cent of the variance (0.259×100). This means that the use of work life balance policies (i.e., flexible work options, specialized leave policies, dependent care benefits and religiosity support) and FSSB explain an additional 6.1 per cent of the variance in employees' work family conflict after the effects of control variables are statistically controlled for. This is a statistically significant contribution, as indicated by the Sig. F change value for this line which is 0.041 ($p < 0.05$). From the ANOVA table it is shown that, the model as a whole (which includes both blocks of variables) is significant ($F(13, 145) = 3.895, p < 0.001$). Thus, with work family conflict as the dependent variable, the overall model is statistically significant.

Based on the results of regression model evaluations for each dependent variable, it is revealed that all regression models in this research project are statistically significant in predicting the dependent variables. Thus, all of the regression models are included in the further analysis.

4.6.2 Correlations

Table 4.15 shows means, standard deviations, and a correlation matrix for demographic variables, independent variables and dependent variables of this research. This table was also used to examine whether or not multicollinearity exists in the data used in this research. As mentioned, no multicollinearity is found among the independent variables.

Table 4.15
Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Gender	1.59	0.49	1																
2. Religion	1.47	1.04	0.02	1															
3. Age	2.05	0.95	-0.104	0.212**	1														
4. Marital Status	1.83	0.41	-0.19**	-0.152*	0.184*	1													
5. Paid Help	1.20	0.40	0.13	0.15*	0.089	0.094	1												
6. Children Number	1.31	1.16	-0.088	0.015	0.519***	0.432***	0.151*	1											
7. Job Category	1.84	0.88	-0.17*	-0.019	0.04	-0.007	-0.103	0.006	1										
8. Higher Ed. Ctgr.	1.22	0.42	-0.052	0.007	-0.028	-0.039	-0.153*	-0.050	0.169*	1									
9. Flexi Use	1.94	1.37	0.106	-0.052	-0.051	0.073	0.135*	0.134*	-0.328***	0.044	1								
10. Leave Use	1.48	1.42	0.109	-0.008	-0.004	0.293***	0.284***	0.183*	-0.190**	-0.008	0.331	1							
11. Dependent Use	0.64	0.48	-0.152*	-0.247	0.068	0.422***	0.087	0.349***	-0.007	-0.007	0.207	0.292	1						
12. Religiosity Use	1.61	0.63	-0.048	-0.211**	-0.126	0.185	-0.038	0.141*	-0.151*	0.064	0.180	0.211	0.322	1					
13. FSSB	47.53	7.82	-0.19**	0.067	0.156*	-0.031	-0.052	0.166*	0.027	0.054	0.101	-0.022	0.145	0.019	1				
14. WFC	13.39	3.80	0.099	-0.181*	-0.192**	0.271***	0.189**	0.029	-0.078	0.025	0.250**	0.256**	0.185*	0.163*	-0.21**	1			
15. OCB	40.38	4.35	-0.013	-0.048	-0.005	-0.174*	0	-0.053	-0.211**	-0.015	0.120	-0.025	0.111	-0.101	0.313***	-0.083	1		
16. IRP	30.35	3.00	0.085	0.157*	0.016	-0.121	0.041	-0.033	-0.279***	-0.134*	-0.003	0.017	0.002	-0.193**	0.171*	-0.01	0.59***	1	
17. OC	24.62	3.41	-0.195**	-0.091	0.134*	-0.02	-0.073	0.099	-0.135*	0.020	-0.036	-0.168	0.107	-0.056	0.304***	-0.142*	0.223**	0.161*	1
18. JS	12.35	1.60	-0.065	0.120	0.134*	-0.131	-0.013	0.116	-0.081	0.054	0.021	-0.083	0.045	-0.109	0.296***	-0.21**	0.232**	0.192**	0.551***

Remarks for Table 4.15

M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviations;

Higher Ed. Ctgr = Higher Education Category;

Flexi Use= Use of Flexible Work Options; Leave Use = Use of Specialized Leave Policies; Dependent Use= Use of Dependent Care Support;

Religiosity Use = Use of Religiosity Support;

FSSB = Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviours; WFC = Work Family Conflict; OCB = Organisational Citizenship Behaviour;

IRP = In-Role Performance;

OC = Organisational Commitment;

JS = Job Satisfaction;

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

The examination of the correlations matrix (table 4.15) reveals some significant correlations between variables. The examination of demographic variables that are treated as control variables shows that the age range has significant positive correlation with the number of children ($r = 0.519$; $p < 0.001$). The assessment of control variables also reveals that number of children has significant positive correlation with the existence of paid help at home ($r = 0.151$; $p < 0.05$). These correlations may imply that older generations in this research tend to have more children. Those who have more children tend to have paid help.

The observation of correlations between demographic variables also reveals that marital status has negative significant correlation with gender ($r = -0.19$; $p < 0.01$). Gender was coded as a dummy variable (male = 1; female = 2). The negative correlation between marital status and gender in this research project may imply that the majority of male respondents are married while the majority of the female respondents are single.

The assessment of correlations between demographic variables and independent variables show that there are significant positive associations between the number of children and use of all types of work life balance policies. In detail, it is found that the number of children have positive correlations with use of flexible work options ($r = 0.134$; $p < 0.05$), as well as with use of specialized leave policies ($r = 0.183$; $p < 0.05$), with use of dependent care support ($r = 0.349$; $p < 0.001$) and with use of religiosity support ($r = 0.141$; $p < 0.05$). These findings confirm similar findings reported from past studies (e.g., Brough et al., 2005; Butts et al., 2013) that the use of work life balance policies is of most interest to those employees with dependents. In relation with research hypotheses, it is hypothesized that the use of work life balance policies will have positive impact on employees' work attitudes and behaviours. It is also hypothesized that the use of work life balance policies will reduce work family conflicts among employees. The examination of these hypotheses which is indicated by regression coefficient (β) is presented in the hypotheses testing section of this chapter.

It is also revealed from the examination of correlations between demographic variables and independent variables that job category (i.e., academic and non-

academic staff) has significant correlations with the use of flexible work options, the use of specialized leave policies and the use of religiosity support. The correlations value are -0.328 ($p < 0.001$); -0.190 ($p < 0.01$); -0.151 ($p < 0.05$) respectively. These correlations imply that academic staff (especially lecturers who do not hold administrative positions) tend to use more flexible work options, specialized leave policies and religiosity support compared to non-academic staff being surveyed.

The assessment of correlations between demographic variables and dependent variables also reveals an interesting finding. It is found that gender is correlated significantly with organisational commitment ($r = -0.195$; $p < 0.01$). Gender was coded as a dummy variable (male = 1; female = 2). The negative significant correlation between gender and organisational commitment found in this research implies that male respondents of this research tend to have greater organisational commitment than female respondents. However, this significant correlation will not affect the result of regression analysis for hypotheses testing because this effect has been controlled by treating the gender variable as one of the control variables in this research project. The possible reason for the tendency of male employees to have higher organisational commitment compared to their female counterparts is that in the context of a paternalistic country like Indonesia, males are expected to be the primary breadwinners. Thus, males are more committed to their work or their organization to comply with the Indonesian social norm that is the male has an obligation to work to support the family's need. On the other hand, as has been found in a previous studies (Azmi, Ismail, & Basir, 2012; Loh & Dahesihsari, 2013), the majority of Indonesian female employees thought that the family is their first priority. The study also reveals that Indonesian women thought working becomes an obligation for assisting their family in a case of an unemployed or terminally ill husband.

The assessment of correlations between demographic variables and dependent variables also reveals significant negative correlation between age and work family conflict ($r = -0.192$; $p < 0.01$) and significant positive correlation between age and job satisfaction ($r = 0.134$; $p < 0.05$). Age was reported in years and coded in age groups (1 = below 30; 2 = 30 – 40; 3 = 41 – 50; 4 = 51 – 60; 5 = above 61). The negative significant correlation between age and work family conflict found in this research

implies that the younger generation in this research tends to have higher levels of work family conflict compared to the older generation. On the other hand, the positive significant correlation between age and job satisfaction implies that older employees in this research tend to be more satisfied with their jobs than their younger counterparts. However, these significant correlations will not affect the result of regression analysis for hypotheses testing because this effect has been controlled by treating the age variable as one of the control variables.

The finding which is related to age and work family conflict supports the contentions from past studies (e.g., Demerouti, Peeters, & Van Der Heijden, 2012; Erickson, Martinengo, & Hill, 2010; Martinengo, Jacob, & Hill, 2010) that there is a link between individuals' life/career stages (i.e., generally defined by age, parental status or length of employment) and their work and family conditions which then lead to their level of inter-role conflict (i.e., work family conflict). It is suggested that due to high demands and low resources from both work and family domains, individuals in early adulthood will experience higher levels of work family conflict compared to those in the late adulthood (Demerouti et al., 2012). In the beginning of their career, younger employees are exposed to finding a way to fit in within their organizations and are exposed to meeting the competency requirements to fulfil their job expectations while they do not necessarily have access to high resources (Demerouti et al., 2012; Van Der Heijden, Schalk, & Van Veldhoven, 2008). Moreover, if the employees marry and/or have children, the demand from the family domain increases. The imbalance between demands and resources that younger employees have in both work and family domains may lead to high levels of work family conflict. On the other hand, due to average demands and high resources from both work and family demands, individuals in late adulthood will experience less conflict between the two domains (Demerouti et al., 2012). Demands from the work domain are relatively low to moderate for older employees because they tend to have better coping mechanisms in their work places as they build up job-related expertise or as they have more authority due to seniority (Demerouti et al., 2012; Van Der Heijden et al., 2008). In relation to the family domain, older employees tend to put more value on work-related activities (Goldstein & Goldstein, 1990).

The finding which is related to age and job satisfaction supports the findings from previous studies (e.g., Janson & Martin, 1982; O'Brien & Dowling, 1981; Rhodes, 1983; Sarker, Crossman, & Chinmeteeputuck, 2003; Sarwar, Mirza, Ehsan, Khan, & Hanif, 2013) that age was found to be one of the determinants of employees' job satisfaction. A possible explanation for the finding that job satisfaction increases with age is that older employees are more likely to have higher skill utilisation and higher responsibility. This could lead to higher income which in turn increases the level of their satisfaction on the job (O'Brien & Dowling, 1981). Since coping mechanisms at the workplace increase with age (Demerouti et al., 2012; Rhodes, 1983), job satisfaction tends to increase among older employees (Rhodes, 1983). In addition, as employees grow older, their satisfaction on the job will increase through seniority and experience (O'Brien & Dowling, 1981). This might also be the case in this research project, that is, through seniority, the level of job satisfaction of older employees' increases. The reason for this might be related to the Indonesian culture that places a great emphasis on respect for seniority (Pekerti & Sendjaya, 2010), which is quite similar to other Eastern countries like China (Newman & Sheikh, 2012).

The examination of correlations between independent variables and dependent variables shows there are significant positive correlations between FSSB and OCB ($r = 0.313$; $p < 0.001$), between FSSB and in-role performance ($r = 0.171$; $p < 0.05$); between FSSB and organisational commitment ($r = 0.304$; $p < 0.001$) and between FSSB and job satisfaction ($r = 0.296$; $p < 0.001$). FSSB is also found to have a significant correlation with employees' levels of work family conflict in a negative direction ($r = -0.21$; $p < 0.01$). These correlations imply that the more supportive supervisors are towards work and family/life issues, which are indicated by higher FSSB, the higher employees' level of OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. On the other hand, higher FSSB related to lower work family conflict among the respondents of this research project (i.e., subordinates). Indeed, FSSB is also hypothesized to have positive effects on employee's OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. In relation with employee's level of work family conflict, FSSB is hypothesized to have negative effect on work family conflict. The examination of

these hypotheses which is indicated by regression coefficient (β) is presented in the hypotheses testing section of this chapter.

4.6.3 Hypotheses Testing Results

Table 4.16 provides the summary of regression analysis to test the research hypotheses.

Table 4.16
Hierarchical Regression Result (for Hypotheses Testing)

	OCB	IRP	OC	JS	WFC
	B	β	B	β	B
Control Variables (Step 1)					
Gender	-0.020	0.057	-0.146	-0.041	0.063
Religion	-0.093	0.116	-0.139	0.066	-0.093
Age	0.012	-0.045	0.076	0.023	-0.172
Marital Status	-0.208*	-0.102	-0.075	-0.186*	0.241**
Paid Help	0.015	-0.022	-0.002	-0.007	0.148
Children Number	-0.065	-0.001	0.059	0.139	-0.024
Job Category	-0.249**	-0.327***	-0.260**	-0.150	0.031
Higher Education Category	0.014	-0.061	0.056	0.073	0.050
R ²	0.092	0.121	0.115	0.087	0.198
F	1.908	2.569*	2.443*	1.779	4.626***
Independent Variables (Step 2)					
Work Life Balance Policies:					
Flexible Used	0.026	-0.117	-0.089	-0.030	0.187*
Leave Used	-0.028	0.034	-0.167	-0.066	0.062
Dependent Used	0.211	0.148	0.121	0.116	0.034
Religiosity Used	-0.183*	-0.235**	-0.113	-0.129	0.036
FSSB	0.294***	0.185*	0.255**	0.239**	-0.173*
R ²	0.234	0.213	0.223	0.165	0.259
ΔR^2	0.142	0.093	0.108	0.079	0.061
ΔF	5.384***	3.412**	4.027**	2.733*	2.385*

All standardized regression coefficients are from the final step in the analyses, n = 159.

FSSB = Family Supportive Supervisor Behaviours; WFC = Work Family Conflict;

OCB = Organisational Citizenship Behaviour; IRP = In-Role Performance;

OC = Organisational Commitment; JS = Job Satisfaction

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Hypothesis 1 posits that flexible work options will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance, (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction. From table 4.16 it is revealed that after eliminating the possible effects of control variables, there is no significant impact from the use of flexible work options in increasing employees' OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Thus, hypothesis 1 (a, b, c, and d) is not supported.

Hypothesis 2 suggests that specialized leave options will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance, (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction. From table 4.16 it is revealed that after eliminating the possible effects of control variables, there is no significant impact from the use of specialized leave options in increasing employees' OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Thus, hypothesis 2 (a, b, c, and d) is not supported.

Hypothesis 3 predicts that dependent care support will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance, (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction. From table 4.16 it is revealed that after eliminating the possible effects of control variables, there is no significant impact from the use of dependent care benefits in increasing employees' OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Thus, hypothesis 3 (a, b, c, and d) is not supported.

Hypothesis 4 posits that religiosity support will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance, (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction. The results show that the use of religiosity support did not have significant impacts on employees' organisational commitment, neither on employees' job satisfaction. However, it is found that the use of religiosity support has significant effects on employees' OCB ($\beta = -0.183$; $p < 0.05$) and in-role performance ($\beta = -0.235$; $p < 0.01$) but negatively, in contradiction to the research hypothesis. Thus, hypothesis 4 (a, b, c, and d) is not supported.

Hypothesis 5 posits that FSSB will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance, (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction. The results reveal that FSSB has significant positive effects on employees' OCB ($\beta = 0.294$; $p < 0.001$), on employees' IRP ($\beta = 0.185$; $p < 0.05$) on employees'

organisational commitment ($\beta = 0.255$; $p < 0.01$), as well as on employees' job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.239$; $p < 0.01$). These results support hypotheses 5a, 5b, 5c, and 5d.

Hypothesis 6 suggests that work life balance policies: (a) flexible work options; (b) specialized leave options; (c) dependent care support; and (d) religiosity support will have a negative impact on work family conflict. The results show that flexible work options have significant impact on employees' work family conflict in a positive direction ($\beta = 0.187$; $p < 0.05$), contrary to the research hypothesis 6a. The results also show that there is no significant impact of the use of specialized leave options, dependent care support, and religiosity support on employees' level of work family conflict. From these results, hypothesis 6 (a, b, c, and d) is not supported.

Hypothesis 7 states that FSSB will have a negative impact on work family conflict. The regression results (table 4.16) reveal that FSSB has significant negative impact on work family conflict ($\beta = -0.173$; $p < 0.05$). Thus, hypothesis 7 is supported.

The summary of the findings for each research hypothesis is presented in table 4.17.

Table 4.17
Summary of the Findings for Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses	Test Result
<p>Hypothesis 1: Flexible work options will have a positive impact on employee:</p> <p>(a) OCB (b) in-role performance (c) organisational commitment (d) job satisfaction</p>	<p>Not Supported Not Supported Not Supported Not Supported</p>
<p>Hypothesis 2: Specialized leave options will have a positive impact on employee:</p> <p>(a) OCB (b) in-role performance (c) organisational commitment (d) job satisfaction</p>	<p>Not Supported Not Supported Not Supported Not Supported</p>
<p>Hypothesis 3: Dependent care support will have a positive impact on employee:</p> <p>(a) OCB (b) in-role performance (c) organisational commitment (d) job satisfaction</p>	<p>Not Supported Not Supported Not Supported Not Supported</p>
<p>Hypothesis 4: Religiosity support will have a positive impact on employee:</p> <p>(a) OCB (b) in-role performance (c) organisational commitment (d) job satisfaction</p>	<p>Not Supported (contrary to the hypothesis) Not Supported (contrary to the hypothesis) Not Supported Not Supported</p>
<p>Hypothesis 5: FSSB will have a positive impact on employee</p> <p>(a) OCB (b) in-role performance (c) organisational commitment (d) job satisfaction</p>	<p>Supported Supported Supported Supported</p>

<p>Hypothesis 6: Work life balance policies: (a) flexible work options (b) specialized leave options (c) dependent care support (d) religiosity support will have a negative impact on work family conflict</p> <p>Hypothesis 7: FSSB will have a negative impact on work family conflict</p>	<p>Not Supported (contrary to the hypothesis)</p> <p>Not Supported</p> <p>Not Supported</p> <p>Not Supported</p> <p>Supported</p>
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4.7 ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS

From the results of hierarchical multiple regression analysis, it is found that the use of a range of work life balance policies (i.e., flexible work options, specialized leave policies, and dependent care support) did not have significant impact on employees' work attitudes and behaviours (i.e., organisational commitment, in-role performance, OCB and job satisfaction) as expected in the research hypotheses. Similar findings were also found by Muse & Pichler, (2011) that the use of a range of work life balance policies had no effect on employees' in-role performance. In terms of religiosity support, the usage of the support also did not have significant impacts on organisational commitment or on employees' job satisfaction. However, it is found that the use of religiosity support had significant effects on employees' OCB and in-role performance but in a negative direction, contradictory to the research hypotheses. These findings suggest that in the context of Indonesian employees in higher education, work life balance policies are not effective in improving positive employee work attitudes and behaviours as expected.

The ineffectiveness of the implementation of formal work life balance policies in this research may be influenced by employees' perception of the importance of work life balance policies. The offered policies that are examined in this research project might be perceived as less valuable for the employees. Individual perceived values of work life balance policies may vary because of individual circumstances. In relation with how work life balance policies affects employees' work attitudes and behaviour, Hatrup, Mueller and Aguirre (2007) argue that individual values are believed to be

an explanation for behaviour, such that important values to the individual occupy more attention and have more significant influence on their behaviour and unimportant values, by contrast, have little or no influence on behaviour. In line with this, it is argued that the adoption of work life balance policies with less evaluation on the actual need could limit the benefits of the policies (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002). However, the role of this perceived value of work life balance policies in the relationship of implementation of work life balance policies and employees' work attitudes and behaviours need to be tested in future research. From the practical point of view, it is suggested that in order to generate the intended outcome (i.e., improving employee's positive work attitudes and behaviours), it is beneficial for organisations to evaluate the actual needs of their employees in relation to the adoption of work life balance policies.

The role of family support in the Indonesian context, which is not directly examined in this research project, might also contribute to the ineffectiveness of work life balance policies in generating positive employees' work attitudes and behaviours. The support that employees receive from organisations in the form of work life balance policies might be overshadowed by employees' family support. As mentioned, in Indonesia it is very common to have co-residence with one's parents or in-laws or even with extended families that could provide assistance in doing household work and taking care of the children. According to Hofstede (2001), unlike in individualist societies, a number of people living closely together, not just parents and children but also extended families (e.g., grandparents, uncles, aunts, and cousins) and other housemates are considered as a family. According to Brough, O'Driscoll, & Kalliath (2005), family members have unique contributions in providing both emotional and instrumental support for employees outside of their work environments. It is asserted that organisations influence employees' work commitment indirectly through spouses/partners and children (Orthner & Pittman, 1986). Employees who perceive that their children and/ or spouses/partners are adjusting well to organisational demands are most likely to have greater family support for career commitments, which in turn leads to the increased level of organisational commitment (Orthner & Pittman, 1986). In the context of this research, the existence of children is treated as one of the research control variables which could deplete resources instead of being viewed as one of the family

resources. In the future, this might need to be viewed from both sides. It is suggested to integrate the role of family support together with workplace support (e.g., work life balance policies and supervisor support) and it is necessary to examine the relative contributions of those support on work related outcomes.

Related to the use of flexible work options, one possible reason for the ineffectiveness of the policies might be because the degree of flexibility among respondents is high due to the nature of the job itself and this might reduce the positive effects of the policies. According to Baltes, Briggs, Huff, Wright, & Neuman (1999), too much flexibility may actually decrease the positive effects of the policies on employees' work attitudes and behaviours. In this research, the majority of the samples are academic staff. As shown in table 3.7 (i.e., demographic information table) the subordinates being investigated comprise 68.55 per cent of academic staff (both lecturers who hold administrative positions and lecturers only) and 31.45 per cent of non-academic staff. In the Indonesian tertiary education sector, academic staff have a high degree of flexibility (Yustrianthe, 2008). This flexibility is mostly related to the teaching schedule. Although the teaching schedule is allocated at the beginning of the semester, in practice, the schedule still can be changed based on an agreement with the students. Although it is not specifically tested in the hypothesis, from the examinations of the research variables correlations (table 4.15), it is revealed that job category (i.e., academic and non-academic staff) has a correlation with the use of flexible work options. The correlation is statistically significant ($r = -0.328$; $p < 0.001$). This correlation indicates that the use of flexible work options is higher among academic staff.

In terms of religiosity support, giving employees longer break or days off to do religious related activities and giving religious allowances had a negative correlation with both employees' OCB and in-role performance. This may be because employees do not see work life balance policies that are specific, to support employees' religiosity concern, as an 'extra benefit' from the organisation. It is more about policies that 'must' be provided by organisations in Indonesia as a religious country. Thus, it failed to encourage employees to perform 'extra'-role behaviours (i.e., OCB). In fact, the religiosity support provided by the Indonesian organisations is mandated by the Indonesian law. As mentioned, under the Indonesian Labour Law,

number 13 of 2003, where article 80 of the law states that the employer must provide enough time for their employees to do compulsory religious rituals without any pay reduction. Under article 80 of the law, employees should be given opportunities to do their compulsory religious rituals and there should be no pay reduction for the employees related to this. Additionally, to support employees and their families celebrate religious holidays, under Indonesian Minister of Manpower Regulation Number PER-04/MEN/1994, it is mandatory for employers to pay a religious holiday allowance (Tunjangan Hari Raya/ THR) in cash and/or other forms at least a week before their employees' religious holiday celebrations (Menaker-RI, 1994).

In relation to the contradictory finding of the negative correlation between religiosity support usage and employees' performance specific to the job requirements (in-role performance), it may be because the utilisation of the policies may mean sacrificing working hours. This may lead to decreasing job performance. It seems that employees often take for granted their responsibilities to perform better after receiving the policy benefits. In relation to the sacrificing of working hours, in Ramadan, the fasting month for Moslems, there is a one hour reduction of working hours each day in the full month for employees (especially those who work for the Government in all sectors and levels of employment). The implementation could be starting working hours one hour later or finishing one hour earlier. This has become the national policy (Johara, 2012).

From a policy point of view, the issue related to religiosity support is very challenging. Organisations in Indonesia cannot simply terminate the religiosity support policies (even if they want to). Any religiosity related issue is very sensitive in the Indonesian context (Colbran, 2010) and the provision of religiosity support is governed under the Indonesian Law and regulation. In the Indonesian context, terminating the religiosity support could also possibly worsen employees' job performance because inability to perform religious activities may potentially decrease employees' subjective well-being. It may negatively affect employees' positive feelings (e.g. enthusiasm and joviality) and increase employees' negative feelings (e.g. anxiety and nervousness) which in turn may influence their performance in doing the job related tasks. A previous study shows that enhancement of employee well-being through promoting positive feelings and minimizing

negative ones can result in improved job performance (Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman, & Haynes, 2009). In a religious country, religiosity is related to greater social support, feeling respected, and meaning in life so that religious people in religious countries tend to have higher subjective well-being indicated by higher life satisfaction, more positive feelings, and reduced negative feelings (Diener et al., 2011). The challenge here for organisations then is how to continuously manage religiosity support for employees while ensuring that employees successfully fulfil their expected job performances.

A relatively weak internal quality assurance mechanism which is also related to a weak employees' performance evaluation in the Indonesian higher education sector (Yuningsih, 2012) might also contribute to the contradictory finding related to the negative correlation between the use of religiosity support and employees' job-related performance (i.e., in-role performance). As a result of the relatively weak performance evaluation, as mentioned, it seems that employees often take for granted their responsibilities to perform better after receiving the policy benefits. As shown in table 3.7, the majority of respondents in this research (i.e., 78 per cent) work for a public university, thus they are acknowledged as 'pegawai negeri sipil/PNS' or public/civil servants. A performance evaluation for all Indonesian civil servants is conducted annually based on a performance evaluation measure called 'Daftar Penilaian Pelaksanaan Pekerjaan/ DP-3' or List of Work Implementation Assessment which emphasizes the loyalty to Pancasila (i.e., the official ideology of Republic of Indonesia) and the Constitution among other things (i.e., job performance, responsibility, commitment, honesty, cooperation, initiative, and leadership) (Azmi et al., 2012). This *DP-3* is governed under the Indonesian Government Regulation number 10 of 1979 (Presiden-RI, 1979). The result of this performance evaluation is used as one of the determinants for employees' promotions. Since the current performance evaluation measure for employees (i.e., public/civil servants) is more focused on employees' personality rather than on job-related performance and the performance evaluation is often conducted as a process of 'formality' (i.e., something that has to be done as usual) (Abizaid, 2012), thus it is most likely ineffective in encouraging high levels of job performance. In relation with this, the Indonesian Government has been working to improve the performance evaluation measures for employees. Government regulation number 46 of 2011, a new

performance evaluation for civil servants, focuses more on job performance and will be implemented on 1st January, 2014 (Presiden-RI, 2011). However, to what extent the performance evaluation measures in Indonesian public/civil services affect employees' performance has still to be tested.

It was found that family supportive supervisor behaviours (FSSB) had a positive impact on employee's OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction. This finding is in line with the expectation of hypothesis 5. This is also consistent with past research in Western Industrialized countries (Ode-Dusseau et al., 2012) which found that FSSB has direct impact on organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and performance among employees in a large hospital setting (Ode-Dusseau et al., 2012). The finding which is related to the positive impact of FSSB on employee work attitudes also supports the past studies which showed that supportive supervision leads to positive results on the job (e.g., Clark, 2001). The positive effects of strong support from supervisors related to work and family/life issues on work attitudes and behaviours may result from the fact that supervisors are seen by their subordinates as agents of the organisation who have responsibility for directing and evaluating employees' performance (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). As a result, when employees perceive their supervisors as being supportive, it increases their satisfaction towards their jobs. Employees also exhibit greater feelings of attachment (commitment) towards their organisations, greater work performance (both in-role performance and OCB) if those employees perceived their supervisors as supportive towards work and family/life issues. These findings highlight the importance of the supervisor-subordinate relationship in Indonesian organisations, resulting from the influence of Indonesian culture which places a great emphasis on respect for seniority, which is quite similar to other Eastern countries like China (Newman & Sheikh, 2012).

The finding of hypothesis 5 also implies that compared to formal work life balance policies provided by organisations, supervisor support for work and life specific issues is more effective in generating positive employees' work attitudes and behaviours (Behson, 2005). It has also been argued that work life balance policies alone might not be sufficient in generating positive work attitudes and behaviour among employees without family-supportive supervisors (McDonald et al., 2005;

Rodgers, 1993; Swody & Powell, 2007; Wang & Walumbwa, 2007). In short, the finding of this research project shows the important role of supportive supervisors towards work and family/ life issues in generating positive employees' work attitudes and behaviours. It is argued that an organisation can establish a core value of caring about its employees through adopting work life balance policies. However, the adoption of these policies might not be effective without managerial value enactment.

From the result of hypothesis 6 testing, it is found that the use of flexible work options had significant positive impact on employees' work family conflict ($\beta = 0.187$; $p < 0.05$), contrary to what is expected. This result shows that among respondents of this research project, the use of flexible work options increases the level of their work family conflict. It is not totally clear why the use of flexible work options would lead to increased rather than decreased employees' work family conflict in this research. However, a similar finding was found from a past study (Galovan et al., 2010) also in an Asian society context (i.e., Singapore). One explanation for this surprising finding could be that the use of flexible work options might lead to increased awareness of the existence of work family conflict that was not legitimately recognized previously (Brough et al., 2005). In fact, the level of work family conflict reported in this research is quite moderate (mean = 13.39 of the total scores of five items on a 5-point Likert-type). This level of work family conflict supports the findings from past studies, that despite long working hours that are normally the practice in most Asian countries, employees in eastern countries reported relatively low levels to moderate levels of work family conflict (Hassan, Dollard, & Winefield, 2010). In line with this, Schein (1984) suggests that Eastern societies give greater priority to work rather than Western societies. In Eastern societies, extra work may be legitimized or even encouraged (Hofstede, 2001) and may be viewed as self-sacrifice made for the family (Galovan et al., 2010). Because of this perspective, work family conflict among individuals in Eastern societies may not be as highly considered as in Western societies (Galovan et al., 2010).

Another possible explanation could be that the offered flexibility may mean shorter working hours that could cause an income loss. As mentioned, in Asian societies, in which Indonesia is included, work is considered as a way to support the family

(Galovan et al., 2010; Hassan et al., 2010). This also means that income from paid work is considered as a main financial resource to support the family. Thus, income loss as the results of the use of flexible work options could possibly increase work family conflict among respondents. Moreover, the income loss would have more effect on those who have dependents (e.g., children). From the demographic table (i.e., table 3.7), about 70.44 per cent of the respondents have one or more children. Thus, it is believed that the possibility of income loss due to shorter work hours related to the usage of flexible work options could increase the level of work family conflict among respondents.

Alternatively, the unexpected positive relationship between flexible work option use and work family conflict might be because many employees who choose to work reduced hours could face greater challenges as they have less hours to work but do not necessarily have reduced workloads or expectations from management about their contribution. As a consequence, the levels of job stress among these employees are high which in turn increases their work family conflict. Support for the link between job stress and work family conflict are found in the literature (e.g., Byron, 2005; Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, & Baltes, 2011; Stoeva, Chiu, & Greenhaus, 2002).

The use of flexible work options may also mean working at inconvenient times (e.g., evenings). This could contribute to the increased level of work family conflict. Indonesian higher education enrolments have increased over the past decade, from 14.4 per cent in 2001 to 23.1 per cent in 2010 (Hill & Wie, 2012). On the other hand, one of the challenges for Indonesian higher education institutions is an insufficient number of qualified academic staff (Yuningsih, 2012). With the increased number of students, the work load for both academic and non-academic staff in most higher education institutions in Indonesia also increases. To cope with the work load, working at inconvenient times (e.g., evenings) sometimes could not be avoided. This might contribute to the increased level of work family conflict among respondents of this research project. Previous studies (e.g., Barnett, Gareis, & Brennan, 2008; Grosswald, 2003; Tuttle & Garr, 2012) found negative correlation between working at evenings with work family conflict, especially for women employees. It is also found that working at inconvenient times was associated with difficulties in building

family ties (La Valle et al. (2002) in Tuttle & Garr, 2012). Alternatively, the use of flexible work options in this study led to increased work family conflict because work life balance policies offered by organisations were simply ineffective in alleviating the interference from work domains to family responsibilities, which would suggest a need for more targeted interventions and policies.

The use of other work life balance policies (i.e., specialized leave policies, dependent care support and religiosity support) was found to have no significant impact on employees' level of work family conflict. As mentioned, the reason for this could be the ineffectiveness of the policies. The relatively low to moderate levels of work family conflict among respondents of this research may also contribute to the ineffectiveness of the policies in reducing work family conflict. Similar findings from past studies (e.g., Muse & Pichler, 2011; Youngcourt & Huffman, 2005) have also been found except for the effect of use of religiosity support, due to the scarcity of published research examining religiosity/spirituality in the workplace (Sprung et al., 2012), even in the context of a country which put a great emphasis on religiosity/spirituality like Indonesia (Pekerti & Sendjaya, 2010).

In relation with the impact of FSSB on employees' work family conflict, it is found that FSSB has significant negative impact on employees' level of work family conflict ($\beta = -0.173$; $p < 0.05$). This means that in the context of this research, the higher the support from supervisor related to work and family/life issues, the lower the level of their subordinate's work family conflict. This result gives strong support to the proposition that the supervisor has a great contribution towards helping their subordinates to deal with their work and family issues. This is in line with several past studies which found that supervisor support had a greater impact on employees' work family conflict compared to formal work family/life balance policies (Behson, 2005; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012). Hammer et al. (2011) assert that having a supervisor who is supportive in work and family issues and exhibits family supportive behaviours could make it easier for employees in restructuring work in order to take care of family demands. In addition, in a paternalistic culture, in which Indonesia is included, often, managers are expected to be the mediator in employees' family disputes (Aycan, 2008).

4.8 DEVELOPING A CONCEPTUAL MODEL

Based on the findings and analysis of this research project, a conceptual model for future research into work life balance programs in Indonesia is suggested (figure 4.9).

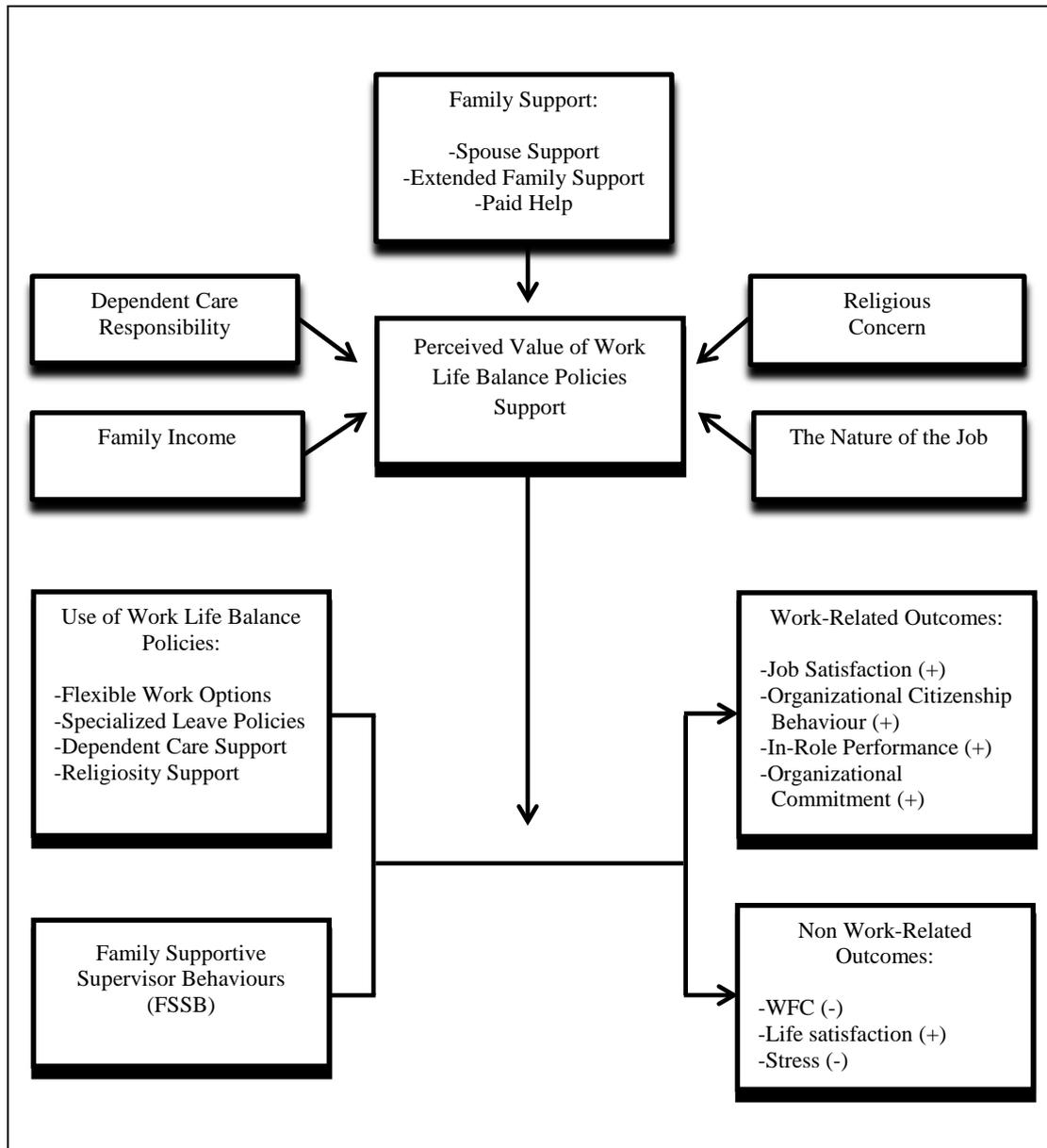


Figure 4.9
The Conceptual Model from the Research Findings

The conceptual model suggests that the use of work life balance policies as well as FSSB will have an impact on employees, both on work and non-work related-outcomes. These impacts will be moderated by the employees' perceived value of work life balance support.

Perceived value of work life balance policies refers to the employees' perception of the importance of the work life balance policies. Individual perceived values of work life balance policies may vary because individual circumstances differ. Related to this, it is also suggested in the model that perceived value of work life balance policies support is determined by several factors (i.e., family support, the nature of the job, family income, religious concern and dependent responsibility). Clancy and Tata (2005) argue that social and cultural beliefs often have a major impact on the ability of individuals to successfully balance work and family issues. Studies (e.g., Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000) have found that work family conflict is higher among those who have less family support. It is argued that family support may be more instrumental in helping employees balance work and home roles (e.g., Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Md-Sidin et al., 2010; Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshalk, & Beutell, 1996). According to Hofstede (2001), unlike in individualist societies, a number of people living closely together, not just parents and children, but also an extended family (e.g., grandparents, uncles, aunts, and cousins) and other housemates, are considered as family. In Indonesian families, co-residence with one's parents or in-laws or even with other extended families allows married employees to reduce the burden of household work through the assistance of the people they are living with. Thus, it is believed that this type of family support is one factor that could shape employees' perception on the importance of work life balance support provided by their organisations. The more family support employees have, the more likely it is that they put less value on the organisation's work life policies related to dependent care benefits.

Dependent care responsibilities such as having children, elderly and even grandchildren who live together may influence employees' behaviour towards the utilisation of work life balance policies. Hill (2002) asserts that flexible work options are more important for older women who continue to juggle work and home, because they more likely to have dependents such as adults and grandchildren. Thus, it is

assumed that those who have high dependent care responsibility would value work life balance policies related to their needs, which includes flexible work options and dependent care support.

Choi (2008) argues that an employee's level of income and their family situation may determine employee behaviour towards work life balance issues. According to Hochschild (1997, in Saltzstein et al., 2001), higher family incomes have allowed many families to substitute purchased household and family-care services for their own efforts, allowing a better settlement of work and family demand. Thus, it is predicted in this proposed model that employees will put less value on work life balance support in the form of policies that could reduce their income (e.g. part-time work), unless they feel that they are secure enough in terms of income to support their ideal standard of living. In addition, Indonesians believe that hard work is the primary means to obtain family wealth.

As mentioned, religious aspects should be considered by organisations in providing work life balance policies for employees in the Indonesian context. This is because religion is a big concern in Indonesia. Thus, it can be said that religious aspects make a big contribution for Indonesian employees in valuing the support provided by organisations in term of work life policies.

Perlow (2001) suggests that the nature of the job itself has an impact on the ability of employees to balance their work and life. Related to this, Thompson and Prottas (2005) assert that employees would achieve better work life balance when they have a job that gives autonomy and discretion in how and when the job gets done. Thus, it is assumed that if the nature of the job employees have already helps them in balancing their work and life, they would put less value on work life balance policies provided by their organisation, which in turn would affect their decision in utilizing such policies. In addition, from the findings of this research, job category (lecturer/academic staff; academic staff who also hold administrative positions, and non-academic staff) was found to have a significant correlation with the use of work life balance policies.

In relation to how work life balance policies affect employees' work attitudes and behaviour, Hatstrup, Mueller and Aguirre (2007) argue that individual values are one explanation for behaviour, such that important values to individuals occupy more attention and have more significant influence on their behaviour, and unimportant values, by contrast, have little or no influence on behaviour. Therefore, it is proposed in the conceptual model (figure 4.9) that perceived value of work life balance support will have a moderating effect on the relationship between the use of work life balance policies as well FSSB and employee (in terms of work and non-work-related) outcomes. It is predicted that the relationship between the use of work life balance policies as well as FSSB and the outcomes will be stronger for employees with a higher perceived value of work life balance support. According to Ashforth, Kreiner, and Fugate (2000) the nature and the strength of the relationship between individual experiences in work and family domains might be influenced by norms and values related to the cultural meaning of work and family. The correlations among variables suggested in the conceptual model have yet to be tested.

4.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Prior to hypotheses testing using IBM SPSS statistic version 21, preliminary analyses were conducted to examine the validity and reliability of the data of this research. Examination of the regression assumptions to check the ability of research findings to be generalized out of the sample was also conducted as a part of preliminary analysis.

Based on validity assessments, it was revealed that all measurements that are used in this study have high validity with factor loadings above 0.5, except for items IRP_5 and IRP_7 with factor loadings of 0.389 and 0.486 respectively. According to Hair et al. (1998), the minimum factor loading to be considered significant is 0.3. However, due to cross loading, two items (i.e., one item of OCB and one item of FSSB measures) were omitted from further analysis. Hinkin (1995) highlights that even with a commonly used measure and well thought-out item development procedures, it is often found in several studies that through factor analysis, the items of the measures were not perceived to tap into their predicted constructs, thus were deleted

from the measure. In addition, past studies in the Indonesian university context (e.g., Ariani, 2012; Yuningsih, 2012) have also reported some deleted items of well-developed measures used in their study. Nevertheless, this is a shortfall of this research project that will be acknowledged in the limitation section of this thesis.

Results of reliability tests show that all measurements that are used in this study are considered as being acceptable in terms of their reliability. The Cronbach's alpha are above 0.7, except for job satisfaction and altruism (one of OCB dimensions) with Cronbach's alpha of 0.666 and 0.688 respectively. According to Sekaran (2003), the acceptable reliability of scales range from 0.6 to 0.8, while good reliability is above 0.8. The higher the coefficient, the better the measurement in terms of their reliability (Sekaran, 2003). Work life balance policies variables in this research are not subjected to reliability testing because usage of any specific work life balance policies was not expected to be related to usage of other policies in the list, thus assessment of the internal consistency (reliability) of each category of work life balance policies would not be appropriate (Brough et al., 2005).

The regression assumptions that were tested in this research project include normality, an absence of multicollinearity, homoscedasticity, and independence. As the sample size of this research project is 159 pairs, which is considered as sufficiently large (Burns & Burns, 2008; Stevens, 2009; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), it can be said that there is no violation to the normality assumption. This is because according to the central limit theorem, a sufficiently large number of samples will be approximately normally distributed. Based on the examination of the correlations among variables of this research, it is revealed that correlation between each of the independent variables is not too high (less than 0.7). The examination of the tolerance and VIF values showed that the tolerance and VIF values are above 0.1 and less than 10 respectively. These suggest no multicollinearity was found in the data (Pallant, 2011) which means that the assumption of the absence of multicollinearity has been met. Related to the homoscedasticity assumption, based on the examination of the scatterplots, there is no clear or systematic pattern to the residuals shown for each dependent variable (i.e., OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and work family conflict). This means that there is no violation to the homoscedasticity assumption. In addition, to ensure there is no violation to the

independence assumption, examination of correlations between the number of evaluations completed by each supervisor and both in-role and OCB data was conducted following the approach that was performed by researchers in previous studies (Muse & Pichler, 2011; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012). Results shown that the correlations were very low and none of the correlations was significant, thus nesting of both in-role performance and OCB within supervisors did not impact on the result (Muse & Pichler, 2011).

To ensure that regression models are statistically significant, the fitness of the regression models were tested using the model summary and analysis of variance (ANOVA) tables from SPSS (Field, 2007; Pallant, 2011). The fit of regression model assessment is used to examine whether the research model is successful (statistically significant) in predicting the dependent variable (Field, 2007). Examinations of the regressions model variables revealed that the overall models for each dependent variable are statistically significant.

All the hypotheses were examined using hierarchical multiple regression. Hierarchical multiple regression is used to examine the ability of use of work life balance policies (i.e., flexible work options, specialized leave policies, dependent care support and religiosity support) and FSSB variables to predict employees' organisational commitment, OCB, in-role performance, job satisfaction and work conflict, after controlling for the research control variables (i.e., gender, marital status, age, number of children, existence of paid helper, religion, job category and higher education category).

In relation to religiosity support that are specific to the Indonesian context, the use of the support did not have a significant impact on generating positive employee work attitudes and behaviours, nor reducing employees' level of work family conflict. In fact, the use of the support was found to lessen employees' performance (both OCB and in-role performance). Thus, this is a very challenging issue for organisations. Any religiosity related issue is very sensitive in the Indonesian context (Colbran, 2010) and the provision of religiosity support is governed under the Indonesian Law and regulations. Although some results were contrary to the expectations in this

research project, this study is beneficial in that it contributes to an under-researched and important issue related to religiosity in the workplace.

Overall, the findings of this research do not support the suggestion that the use of work life balance policies leads to positive work outcomes, nor do they reduce employees' work family conflict. The results of this research indicate that a supportive supervisor towards work and family/life issues is indeed a key predictor of positive work attitudes and behaviours (i.e., OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction), as well as work family conflict among a sample of Indonesian higher education staff. The findings of this research suggest that organisations interested in designing programs and initiatives to increase employees' work attitudes and behaviours and to reduce work family conflict should consider FSSB as a key target and resource.

Based on the findings, a conceptual model is developed. The conceptual model suggests that the use of work life balance policies as well as FSSB will have an impact on employees, both on work and non-work related-outcomes. These impacts will be moderated by the employees' perceived value of work life balance support. Perceived value of work life balance policies is the employees' perception of the importance of the work life balance policies. It is also suggested in the model that the perceived value of work life balance policies support is determined by several factors (i.e., family support, the nature of the job, family income, religious concern and dependent responsibility).

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This thesis investigated an under-researched topic of work life balance support at the workplace (i.e., work life balance policies and family supportive supervisor behaviours/FSSB) in the context of Indonesia. The impact of the support on employees' work attitudes and behaviours as well as on work family conflict was the focus of examination. The work life balance policies investigated were transmitted from the Western economies and were adapted to suit the Indonesian context. The adaptation was done considering the specific cultural, social, and legal issues in Indonesia. Instead of investigating the availability of the policies, this thesis concentrated on the actual usage of the policies, which has been previously overlooked (Allen, 2001; Hammer et al., 2005; Lapierre & Allen, 2006; Muse & Pichler, 2011; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004; Ratnasingam et al., 2012; Thompson et al., 1999). As discussed in chapter two, the rationale for choosing the use of the policies to be examined was the view that it is the direct benefits gained from policy use that could potentially increase employees' attitudes and behaviours (Butts et al., 2013). Work life balance policies would be more effective in fostering employees' attitudes and behaviours when employees find work life balance policies are personally useful (e.g., Casper & Harris, 2008; Lambert, 2000). This was also in line with the self-interest theory (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Sears & Funk, 1991) that posits employees' attitudes and behaviours are driven by their own personal gains and benefits.

The aims of this thesis were twofold. First, to examine the impact of work life balance policies usage as well as FSSB on a range of employees' work attitudes and behaviours (i.e., organisational citizenship behaviours/OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction) in the Indonesian context. The inclusion of OCB and in-role performance into employees' work attitudes and behaviours investigated also represented a contribution to the literature. This is because, as reviewed in chapter two, there is a scarcity of evidence on the links between organisation work family (life) support on employee job performance, as

not much research has reported effects of the support on employees' performance (e.g., OCB, in-role performance) as rated by supervisors (Ode-Dusseau et al., 2012). The second aim of this thesis was to investigate the impact of work life balance policies usage as well as FSSB on employees' work family conflict in the Indonesian context. In order to address these aims, the researcher took a quantitative approach. The research methods employed on this thesis were outlined in chapter three.

This final chapter summarises the relationship between the research aims as identified in chapter one and research outcomes and findings discussed in chapter four. This leads to the identification of the contributions arising from this thesis, limitations and suggestions for future research. A conclusion is drawn at the end of the chapter.

5.2 ADDRESSING THE RESEARCH AIMS

To achieve the research aims stated above, and considering the unique cultural factors of Indonesia, two research questions were developed:

1. Does the utilisation of work life balance policies and FSSB increase employees' work positive attitudes and behaviours?
2. Does the utilisation of work life balance policies and FSSB reduce work family conflict among Indonesian employees?

In order to address the research questions, hypotheses were developed in chapter two based on some supporting theories (i.e., social exchange theory, role theory, conservation of resources theory and job demands-resources/JD-R theory) and past empirical findings. As mentioned, a quantitative approach using hierarchical regression analysis in chapter four was conducted to examine the hypotheses. The following hypotheses were tested:

1. Flexible work options will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance, (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction
2. Specialized leave options will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance, (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction
3. Dependent care support will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance, (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction
4. Religiosity support will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance, (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction
5. FSSB will have a positive impact on employee (a) OCB, (b) in-role performance (c) organisational commitment and (d) job satisfaction
6. Work life balance policies: (a) flexible work options); (b) specialized leave options; (c) dependent care support; and (d) religiosity support will have a negative impact on work family conflict
7. FSSB will have a negative impact on work family conflict.

The research questions were addressed through hypotheses testing and the following section reports on the research findings.

5.2.1 Does the Utilisation of Work Life Balance Policies and FSSB Increase Employees' Work Positive Attitudes and Behaviours?

To address the first research question, hypothesis 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 were tested. The examination of results for hypothesis 1, 2, 3 and 4 in chapter four answered the first research question related to the impact of work life balance policies usage on employees' attitudes and behaviours at the workplace. The examination of results of hypothesis 5 answered the first research question related to the impact of FSSB on employees' work attitudes and behaviours. The assessment results of hypothesis 1, 2, 3 and 4 revealed that in the context of Indonesia, none of the policies usages were related to increased employees' positive attitudes and behaviours at the workplace. In fact, the use of religiosity support had negative correlations with OCB and in-role performance. These were revealed in the results of testing hypothesis 4a and 4b. Some possible explanations for these were discussed in the analysis of the results section in chapter four. The examination of results of hypothesis 5 showed that in the

context of Indonesia, FSSB had significant impact in increasing employees' work attitudes and behaviours. In short, the answers for the first research question are:

1. In the Indonesian context, work life balance policies usage did not increase employees' work attitudes and behaviours at the workplace.
2. In the Indonesian context, FSSB increased employees' work attitudes and behaviours at the workplace.

5.2.2 Does the utilisation of work life balance policies and FSSB reduce work family conflict among Indonesian employees?

To address the second research question, hypotheses 6 and 7 were tested. The examination of results of hypothesis 6 in chapter four answered the second research question related to the impact of work life balance policies usage on employees' level of work family conflict. The examination of results of hypothesis 7 answered the second research question related to the impact of FSSB on employees' level of work family conflict. The assessment of results of hypothesis 6 revealed that in the context of Indonesia, none of the policies usages were related to a decreased level of employees' work family conflict. In fact, the use of flexible work options had positive correlation with employees' work family conflict, contrary to hypothesis 6a. Some possible explanations for this were discussed in the analysis of the results section in chapter four. On the other hand, the examination of results of hypothesis 7 showed that in the context of Indonesia, FSSB had significant impact in reducing employees' work family conflict. In short, the answers for the second research question are as follows:

1. In the Indonesian context, work life balance policies usage did not lessen employees' level of work family conflict.
2. In the Indonesian context, FSSB decreased employees' level of work family conflict.

5.3 CONTRIBUTION OF THE RESEARCH

This thesis has made several contributions in terms of theoretical, conceptual, methodological and practical contributions to the topic. This section sets out these contributions.

5.3.1 Theoretical Contributions

The literature reviewed and investigated in this thesis was interdisciplinary, and crossed boundaries of organisational behaviour, human resource management, gender studies, sociology, industrial relations, and religiosity/spirituality. However, the emphasis was on human resource management and organisational behaviours. The literature reviewed was largely sourced from peer-reviewed journal articles, which mainly discussed about work and family (life) related issues in the Western economies. A highlight from chapter two was that very limited discussion on the topic in the Indonesian context was found in the extant literature. To the researcher's knowledge, this is one of the pioneer research studies in the area of work life balance policies conducted in Indonesia. This is considered as an important area of research that needs to be explored in more detail. Indonesian government documents were the main sources used to discuss and analyse the Indonesian work life balance policies. Expanding research on work life balance support outside the Western industrialised countries addresses an important gap in the literature. The concentration of research in a specific group of countries (e.g., Western industrialised countries) is problematic since findings could not necessarily be generalized to other locales, particularly those with different cultures (Chang et al., 2010; Poelmans, Spector, et al., 2003).

As discussed, the findings of this thesis related to the impact of work life balance policies that were transmitted from Western economies (i.e., flexible work options, specialized leave policies and dependent care support) on employees' work attitudes and behaviours, as well as on employees' level of work family conflict, revealed that none of the policies usages had significant impact on increasing employees' work attitudes and behaviours, neither on decreasing employees' work family conflict among Indonesian employees being investigated. These were revealed in testing the results for hypotheses 1, 2 and 3 and testing results of hypotheses 6a, 6b and 6c

respectively. These suggested that the majority findings from an extensive research of the literature in Western countries, which is dominated by the US, related to the impact of formal work life balance policies on employees, are not applicable in the Indonesian context. It was found from chapter two that both theoretically and empirically, the actual use of a wide range of work life balance policies had a positive impact on several employees' work attitudes and behaviours (e.g., Baltes et al., 1999; Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Butts et al., 2013; Byron, 2005; Casper & Harris, 2008; Hill et al., 2003; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Kossek et al., 2011; Lambert, 2000; Lapierre & Allen, 2006; Otto & Kroth, 2011; Ratnasingam et al., 2012; Shepard et al., 1996; Thompson et al., 1999). It is also found from the literature review that the use of the policies also lessens employees' work family conflict (e.g., Anderson et al., 2002; Byron, 2005; Kossek et al., 2011; Lapierre & Allen, 2006; McDonald et al., 2005). As discussed in the analysis of the results in chapter 4, the inapplicability of the findings from the Western context to the Indonesian context were mainly influenced by social and cultural differences. Thus, the findings of this thesis contributed to the literature in terms of providing additional evidence that social and cultural issues matter in studying work and family (life) related issues. Specifically, it is claimed that due to varied cultures, lifestyles and levels of economic development in each country, employees might be in need of different work life balance support.

The findings of this thesis revealed that the use of work life balance policies did not necessarily related to positive employees' work attitudes and behaviours. This may imply that although the norm of reciprocity which is the basis of social exchange theory is universal, but it would only work in a certain condition. In relation to work life balance policies, only valuable policies could create reciprocity in a positive way. Employees will only value specific policies that are professionally and personally valuable for them (Lambert, 2000). The same policies could be valued differently by individuals. The more useful employees find the policies provided by their organisations, the more they should want to give something back to the organisations (Lambert, 2000). In addition, this is reaffirming the importance of investigating perceived value of work life balance policies in order to be able to evaluate the impact of the policies on employees, which is also suggested in a conceptual model of this thesis.

The literature review in chapter two revealed that research examining religiosity/spirituality in the workplace is still very limited (Sprung et al., 2012) and this is an important omission given the significant role that religiosity/spirituality plays in many individuals' lives in Indonesia (Deneulin & Rakodi, 2011; Diener et al., 2011; Naimon et al., 2013; Sprung et al., 2012). The work life balance policies examined in this thesis include religiosity support. This kind of support is very specific to the Indonesian context and has not been examined in any past published research. The findings related to religiosity support (i.e., testing results of hypotheses 4 and 6d) showed that the usage of the support did not have significant impact on employees' work attitudes and behaviours, nor on employees' work family conflict. The findings did not support the hypotheses. In fact, the usage of the support was negatively related to employees OCB and in-role performance, contradicting the hypotheses (i.e., hypotheses 4a and 4b). Some possible explanations for these findings were addressed in chapter four. Despite the unsupported hypotheses related to the usage of religiosity support, the findings and the analysis revealed that Indonesians set high value on religiosity. Religion is part of individual identity among Indonesians. Indonesian laws and regulations assure the religiosity support at the workplace. The discussion and analysis of religiosity support in the context of Indonesia is one of the main contributions of this thesis to the literature.

As has been advanced by Straub (2012), chapter two identified research on the impact of family supportive supervisor behaviours (FSSB) on employees, which is still not much investigated. This might be because the concept and measurement for FSSB have only been developed in 2009 (Hammer et al., 2009). The findings of this thesis (i.e., testing results of hypotheses 5 and 7) in chapter 4 confirmed the view in the literature examining FSSB (McCarthy et al., 2010; Muse & Pichler, 2011; Odle-Dusseau et al., 2012) that FSSB indeed had significant impact on increasing employees' work attitudes and behaviours as well as reducing employees' level of work family conflict.

5.3.2 Conceptual Contributions

Based on the findings and analysis of this thesis, a conceptual model for examining the impact of work life balance policies in the Indonesian context was developed in chapter four. The model could be used to understand the process by which specific work life balance policy can most benefit both employees and organisations in Indonesia. The conceptual model suggests that the perceived value of work life balance policies might moderate the impact of work life balance policies usage as well as FSSB on employees' work and non-work related outcomes. It is argued that employees will perceive the importance of the work life balance policies offered by their organisations differently. Several factors that might determine the perceived value of the policies includes dependent care responsibility, family support, family income, the nature of the job and religious concern. It is suggested that the relationship between the use of work life balance policies as well as FSSB and the outcomes will be stronger for employees with a higher perceived value of work life balance support.

5.3.3 Methodological Contribution

This thesis included employees' performance (i.e., OCB and in-role performance) measures rated by supervisors. The use of this supervisory rating provided additional research data utilising multi sources data, which has been a call from scholars in the field (e.g., Casper et al., 2007; Greenhaus et al., 2011; Kelly et al., 2008; Lyness & Judiesch, 2008). Chapter two identified that work and life literature has been dominated by research which relies on a single source (i.e., self-report) data only. Chapter three discussed that multi sources data (i.e., self-reporting data from subordinates and supervisor rating data) were used in this thesis to minimise common method bias (Greenhaus et al., 2011; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Tharenou et al., 2007).

This thesis used the FSSB measure to assess supervisor support on subordinates' work and family (life) related issues. As mentioned in chapter two, the FSSB measure is a relatively new measure and has been claimed to be a fine grained measure that has not been applied widely. The result of validity assessment on the

FSSB measure in chapter four revealed one cross-loaded item of the four dimensions of FSSB. This might indicate that the measure has not translated really well from its original context to the Indonesian context. Thus, this research supports the call (Hammer et al., 2009) for cross-validating the FSSB measure in a range of industries as well as in diverse cultures. In addition, further testing through interviews and or focus group discussion and refinement of the questionnaire instrument is needed to provide support for the adaptation of the measure in the Indonesian context.

5.3.4 Practical Contributions

It is revealed from the findings of this thesis that the availability of some work life balance policies to individuals was reported differently to the policies that are governed by the Indonesian laws and regulations. This implies that the laws and regulations that are related to employment in Indonesia are not being implemented at all workplaces. Thus, there is a need to reinforce the laws and regulations in order to ensure that all employees could gain the benefits of the work life balance policies.

As mentioned, this thesis showed that in the context of a religious country like Indonesia, where religion is fundamental to people's lives and contributes greatly in the way people see things, religiosity support in the workplace is essential. Considering the usage of the support did not relate to positive attitudes and behaviours in the workplace (i.e., testing results of hypothesis 4) nor did it reduce the employees' level of work family conflict (i.e., testing results of hypothesis 6d), the challenge for organizations in Indonesia is then how to continuously manage religiosity support for employees while ensuring that the intended outcomes could be achieved.

The findings of this thesis could provide an insight for organisations which operate internationally. They need to be aware that culture is an important factor in understanding the work and family (life) interface. The findings regarding the impact of various work life balance policies usage on employees in this research may need to be seen as an indication that caution for cultural context should be taken for global companies to implement work and family (life) related policies. In order to get the intended outcomes from the implementation of the policies, the needs of the

employees are necessary to be fully understood first. Work and family (life) in Eastern-collectivist cultures could have different meanings than in the Western-individualistic cultures. An organisation may provide a wide range of organisational work life balance policies, but if the policies do not meet the needs of the employees, then the policies are ineffective. Thus, instead of applying the '*one size fits all*' strategy, greater customization to fit the individual country's needs related to work life balance policies is required.

The findings of this thesis also indicate that supportive supervisors towards work and family/life issues are a key predictor of positive work attitudes and behaviours (i.e., OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction), as well as work family conflict. This suggests that organisations that are interested in designing and implementing organisational supports to increase employees' work attitudes and behaviours and to reduce work family conflict should focus on FSSB. Given the importance of supportive supervisor behaviours, it might be beneficial for organisations to develop ways (e.g., training) to improve supervisors' skills related to how to be a supportive supervisor towards work and family (life) issues.

5.4 LIMITATIONS

This thesis has several limitations. First, the use of structured questionnaires restricted the scope of the research. The restriction is related to the depth of the data collected. However, this limitation is justifiable since the hypotheses of this research project required answers to scope, rather than depth, and the data from the sample are used to draw inferences about the population (Roberts, 1999). In addition, to assess the effect (and or relationship) of several independent variables on one or more dependent variables while taking into account other variables (e.g., control variables such as individual's demographics), a survey method using questionnaires is most suitable (Tharenou et al., 2007).

The second limitation of this thesis is the use of cross-sectional design. Since the research model and hypotheses of this research project infer cause and effect relationships, a longitudinal design (i.e., data are gathered with an intervening time period) would better demonstrate causality (Fiksenbaum, 2013; Jones et al., 2008;

Tharenou et al., 2007). It is claimed that cross-sectional design has a limitation related to its ability to make strong inferences on the causal directions of the relationships between independent and dependent variables being investigated (e.g., Bagger & Li, 2012; Fiksenbaum, 2013). However, using other variables (e.g., control variables) could strengthen a cross-sectional design (Tharenou et al., 2007), which is also applied in this research. Several control variables (i.e., gender, marital status, age, number of children, the existence of paid helper, religion, type of job, and university category) that are believed could have an impact on the dependent variables are included in the analysis of this research. This is to ensure the unique impact added by the independent variables can be determined without being contaminated by the control variables (Tharenou et al., 2007). In addition, the use of multiple sources of data (i.e., subordinate self-reported data and supervisor rated data) in this research has the potential to strengthen the research findings (Fiksenbaum, 2013).

The third limitation of this thesis is related to the use of both self-assessment and supervisor assessment to generate data. Self-assessment data were used for employees' organisational commitment, job satisfaction and work family conflict. As a result, self-report bias may be inherent in the data. Respondents of this research may have answered the questions in a way that they thought would make them look good or be socially acceptable. Responses that might be considered as not socially desirable may have been under-reported by the respondents (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002). Consequently, the observed correlations may differ from the real correlations between the variables examined (Podsakoff et al., 2003). To minimise the self-assessment bias, the questionnaires for employees used in this thesis allowed anonymity. Moreover, the questionnaires were distributed and returned in sealed envelopes. These methods were conducted to maintain strict confidentiality, as well as to encourage respondents to answer all of the questions as objectively as possible (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002; Doty & Glick, 1998). In addition, supervisor-assessment on employees' performance (i.e., OCB and in-role performance) was also used to reduce the self-report bias (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002; Greenhaus et al., 2011; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Tharenou et al., 2007). To minimise the possibility of subjective assessments from supervisors, the questionnaires for supervisors were

also anonymous and distributed as well as returned in sealed envelopes. Coding was used to match the questionnaires from subordinates and their supervisors.

The fourth limitation of this thesis is related to the adaptation of the language applied in the questionnaires. The questionnaires were distributed in Indonesian (or Bahasa Indonesia), the official language of Indonesia. As these research measures were originally developed in English, a translation and back translation were applied (Brislin, 1980). Despite all efforts to ensure that the translation and back translation of the research questionnaires were correct, there is a possibility that some nuances were lost in translation.

Data for this research were gathered only from one sector (i.e., Indonesian higher education) and a set of occupations (i.e., academic and non-academic staff). This research also applies only to the formal and regulated sector of the economy. Thus the results may be generalizable only to that population. More research is necessary involving respondents of various organisations from different sectors/industries to externally validate the research findings. However, although this research focused on only one sector and one set of occupations, this research involves 30 organisations representing both public and private institutions in quite dispersed regions (i.e., 5 main islands in Indonesia). Nonetheless, the sample size (n=159 matched survey) is appropriate for this research, allowing relationships between variables to be tested and examined. In addition, for this cohort, it is found that the level of work family conflict was low, hence it is most likely that work life balance policies would not be an issue. However, similar cases are also found in most Asian countries (Hassan, Dollard, & Winefield, 2010).

Another limitation of this research is the exclusion of family support as one of the variable investigated. Given the fact that family support plays an important role in the Indonesian context and how that might negate the value or impact or perceived value of various work life balance policies, it would have been useful to explore this as a variable of interest in the current study. However, a conceptual model from the research findings which provides an alternative to address this issue was developed for the future research directions.

An overall factor analysis of all items under investigation to ensure the items load to the variable of interest was not conducted in this research. However, an exploratory factor analysis for each scale separately to determine whether scale items measuring a single latent construct (DeVellis, 2012) was performed. Similar approach was also found in past studies (e.g., Clark, 2001; Yuningsih, 2012). Results from the exploratory factor analysis showed all the scales utilised in this study were valid. In addition, an exploratory factor analysis provides rigorous confirmatory evidence on scale validity (DeVellis, 2012).

Lastly, the generalizability of the findings may also be restricted since two items (i.e., one item of OCB and one item of FSSB measures) were deleted through factor analysis due to cross loading. However, Hinkin (1995) highlights that even with a commonly used measure and well thought-out item development procedures, it is often found that through factor analysis, the items of the measures were not perceived to fit into their predicted constructs, thus were deleted from the measure. In addition, past studies in the Indonesian university context (e.g., Ariani, 2012; Yuningsih, 2012) have also reported some deleted items of well-developed measures used in their research.

5.5 FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Religiosity support in the workplace is an important issue to be addressed in the context of a religious country like Indonesia. A qualitative study is clearly needed to get an in-depth analysis about the religiosity support related issues and its consequences on both employees and organisations in the Indonesian context. Considering that Indonesia has become the largest Muslim population in the world which tolerates other religions (Colbran, 2010; Gupta et al., 2002; Loh & Dahesihsari, 2013), it will be interesting to get a deeper understanding through a qualitative study about religiosity support and religious activities in the Indonesian workplace. In addition, research that examines religiosity/religion related issues in the workplace was found to be lacking in the literature (Sprung et al., 2012), even in the context of a country which put a great emphasis on religiosity/spirituality, such as Indonesia (Pekerti & Sendjaya, 2010). Considering the significant role that religiosity/spirituality plays in many individuals' lives and given the amount of time

individuals spend at the workplace (Deneulin & Rakodi, 2011; Diener et al., 2011; Naimon et al., 2013; Sprung et al., 2012), it is consequently demanded that “consideration of the subject of religion can no longer be avoided” (Deneulin & Rakodi, 2011, p. 45).

The conceptual model that was developed based on the research findings of this thesis might be interesting to examine in the future. The conceptual model suggests that the employees’ perceived value of work life balance support moderates the impact of work life balance policies usage as well as FSSB on employees’ work and non-work related-outcomes. In the context of Indonesia, it is suggested that several factors (i.e., family support, the nature of the job, family income, religious concern and dependent responsibility) could determine the employees’ perceived value of work life balance policies support. This could give a further explanation related to how work life balance policies might work in increasing positive work attitudes and behaviours as well as reducing work family (life) conflict in the Indonesian context. In order to test the model, a contextual measure of perceived value of work life balance support needs to be developed.

5.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This research is one of the first systematic investigations on the topic of work life balance policies in the Indonesian context. The research focuses on the impact of work life balance support usage (i.e., work life balance policies and FSSB) on employees. The findings of this research have implications for both practitioners and academics. While the findings of this research are limited to the Indonesian context, strong evidence was made indicating that contextual factors are important in studying work and family (life) balance. It is indicated from the research that the Indonesian contextual factors are very different from the Western societies. One of the prominent differences is that, unlike in the Western societies, religiosity support in workplaces in Indonesia are important, thus the support is included in the work life balance policies implemented in organisations. In relation to this, it is strongly recommended that consideration of cultural context should be addressed by global companies to develop work and family (life) related policies.

Overall, the findings emerging from this research indicate that work life balance experiences in Indonesia do not positively align with the findings reported in academic literature pertaining to Western societies, where the use of work life balance policies leads to positive work outcomes and a reduction in employees' work family conflict. What was confirmed though was the importance of FSSB in Indonesia. These suggest that the '*one size fits all*' strategy does not work for work life balance policies. Greater customization to fit the individual actual needs related to work life balance policies is undeniably required. The composition of the cohort (e.g., gender and marital status) would also need to be considered. Furthermore, supervisor support towards work and family/life issues is indeed a key predictor of positive work attitudes and behaviours (i.e., OCB, in-role performance, organisational commitment and job satisfaction), as well as work family conflict. Thus, it is recommended to consider FSSB as a key target and resource for organisations that are interested in designing work based support to increase employees' work attitudes and behaviours and to reduce work family conflict.

Lastly, this research offers a conceptual model that is worthy of further examination. The model was developed based on the findings of this research. The model could be used to better understand the process by which specific work life balance policy can most benefit both employees and organisations in Indonesia.

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Every reasonable effort has been made to acknowledge the owners of copyright material. I would be pleased to hear from any copyright owner who has been omitted or incorrectly acknowledged.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Ethics Approval-University of South Australia

From: no_reply@unisa.edu.au [no_reply@unisa.edu.au]
Sent: Wednesday, August 03, 2011 2:58 AM
To: Afrianty, Tri Wulida - afrty001
Cc: Researchcompliance@unisa.edu.au; Afrianty, Tri Wulida - afrty001; Shruti Sardeshmukh
Subject: Human Ethics: Application approved

Dear Applicant

Re: Ethics protocol "WORK LIFE BALANCE POLICIES IN THE INDONESIAN CONTEXT"

Thank you for submitting your ethics protocol for consideration. Your protocol has been considered by the E2 Committee Review Group.

I am pleased to advise that your protocol has been granted ethics approval and meets the requirements of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research.

Please note that the E2 Committee Review Group's decision will be reported to the next meeting of the Human Research Ethics Committee for endorsement.

Please regard this email as formal notification of approval.

Ethics approval is always made on the basis of a number of conditions detailed at http://www.unisa.edu.au/res/forms/docs/humanresearchethics_conditions.doc; it is important that you are familiar with, and abide by, these conditions. It is also essential that you conduct all research according to UniSA guidelines, which can be found at <http://www.unisa.edu.au/res/ethics/default.asp>

Please note, if your project is a clinical trial you are required to register it in a publicly accessible trials registry prior to enrolment of the first participant (e.g. Australian New Zealand Clinical Trials Registry <http://www.anzctr.org.au/Survey/UserQuestion.aspx>) as a condition of ethics approval.

Best wishes for your research.

Vicki Allen
Executive Officer
UniSA's Human Research Ethics Committee
CRICOS provider number 00121B

This is an automated email and cannot be replied to. Please direct your query to the relevant person.

Appendix 2: Ethics Approval-Curtin University



Memorandum

To	Professor John Burgess, Management, Management
From	Professor Stephan Millett, Chair, Human Research Ethics Committee
Subject	Protocol Approval HR 152/2012
Date	18 December 2012
Copy	Tri Wulida Afrianty, Management

Office of Research and Development
Human Research Ethics Committee

TELEPHONE 9266 2784
FACSIMILE 9266 3793
EMAIL hrec@curtin.edu.au

Thank you for your application submitted to the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) for the project titled "Work Life Balance Policies in The Indonesian Context". The Committee notes the prior approval by University of South Australia HREC and has reviewed your application consistent with Chapter 5.3 of the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research*.

- You have ethics clearance to undertake the research as stated in your proposal.
- The approval number for your project is **HR 152/2012**. Please quote this number in any future correspondence.
- Approval of this project is for a period of twelve months **18-12-2012 to 18-12-2013**. To renew this approval a completed Form B (attached) must be submitted before the expiry date **18-12-2013**.
- If you are a Higher Degree by Research student, data collection must not begin before your Application for Candidacy is approved by your Faculty Graduate Studies Committee.
- The following standard statement **must be** included in the information sheet to participants:
This study has been approved by the Curtin university Human Research ethics Committee (Approval Number HR 152/2012). The Committee is comprised of members of the public, academics, lawyers, doctors and pastoral carers. If needed, verification of approval can be obtained either by writing to the Curtin University Human Research Ethics Committee, c/- Office of Research and Development, Curtin University, GPO Box U1987, Perth, 6845 or by telephoning 9266 2784 or by emailing hrec@curtin.edu.au.

Applicants should note the following:

It is the policy of the HREC to conduct random audits on a percentage of approved projects. These audits may be conducted at any time after the project starts. In cases where the HREC considers that there may be a risk of adverse events, or where participants may be especially vulnerable, the HREC may request the chief investigator to provide an outcomes report, including information on follow-up of participants.

The attached **FORM B** should be completed and returned to the Secretary, HREC, C/- Office of Research & Development:

When the project has finished, or

- If at any time during the twelve months changes/amendments occur, or
- If a serious or unexpected adverse event occurs, or
- 14 days prior to the expiry date if renewal is required.
- An application for renewal may be made with a Form B three years running, after which a new application form (Form A), providing comprehensive details, must be submitted.

Yours sincerely

Professor Stephan Millett
Chair Human Research Ethics Committee

Appendix 3: Information to the Respondent (in English)

My name is Tri Wulida Afrianty, a PhD candidate at the School of Management, University of South Australia, Australia. For your information, my thesis title is “Work Life Balance Policies in the Indonesian Context”.

This research will explore work life balance policies adopted in Indonesian organisations and their effects on a range of work and non-work outcomes. Findings have potentials to contribute to the work life balance literature and significant implications for organisations in Indonesia as well as in other developing nations to develop better work life policies. For that purpose, I would like to invite you to take part in this research.

Confidentiality

- This survey is anonymous, as the questionnaire does not ask for names of participants. You are requested not to write your name in the survey.
- Responses to the survey are strictly confidential and can only be seen by the researcher and her PhD Supervisor.
- No individual’s identity will be revealed during and after the survey.
- Participants are free to withdraw from the research project at any stage without affecting their status or employment relationship with the organization, either now or in the future.
- In all reported results, within the university or through external publications or presentations, identifies of the participants will never be identified nor will any individual demographic data be reported.
- Aggregate demographic data will be used to describe the participants in greater detail.
- No individual demographic data or information will be revealed or reported anywhere in the final report.
- The summary (total aggregated results) of the findings will be provided on completion of the study on request of the participating organizations.
- The research project will be completed at the end of 2012. The participant can contact the researcher Tri Wulida Afrianty at School of Management, University of South Australia, North Terrace, SA 5000, Australia or at aferty001@students.unisa.edu.au; t_wulida@yahoo.com at the end of 2012 to receive the summary of the results.
- The participation in this survey is voluntary. The completion and return of the survey indicates your voluntary participation in the research.

Completion and general guidelines

- The questionnaires are developed in pairs, one part is for subordinates (university staff) and the other part is for the supervisors. Each questionnaire consists of 2 parts. Part 1 is about demographical information, while part 2 represents work life balance supports (for subordinates only) and its outcomes on work and non-work related behaviours (for subordinates and the supervisors).
- The time needed to answer all statements is about 30 minutes or less than that.
- There is no right or wrong answer. Participant only has to provide a suitable rating on each statement provided.
- For this research to be successful, your honest responses are important, even if the information that you may provide is not favourable.

- Please place the completed survey in the enclosed envelope and seal the envelope. The researcher will be collecting the sealed envelope personally from you.

Retention of data

- All information collected as part of the study will be retained for five years in the office of School of Management, University of South Australia (UniSA). All forms (paper) of data will be stored in locked cabinets.
- The researcher and her PhD Supervisor, Associate Professor Jie Shen at School of Management, University of South Australia will have access to the data

Ethics and safety

- The project has been approved by the University of South Australia's (UniSA) Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any ethical concerns about the research or questions about your rights as a participant, please contact the Executive Officer of this Committee, Tel: 61 8 8301 3118, email: Vicki.allen@unisa.edu.au.
- There is no risk to the participants beyond those encountered during everyday life as a result of their involvement in the research.

If you have any questions about the research, please contact me at email: aferty001@students.unisa.edu.au; t_wulida@yahoo.com or my PhD supervisor, Associate Professor Jie Shen at Tel: 61 8 8302 7228 (office), email: jie.shen@unisa.edu.au.

Thank you for your time and cooperation. Your participation is highly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Tri Wulida Afrianty

Appendix 4: Information to the Respondent (in Bahasa Indonesia)

Nama saya adalah Tri Wulida Afrianty, kandidat PhD pada School of Management, University of South Australia, Australia. Sebagai informasi, judul thesis saya adalah '*Work Life Balance Policies in the Indonesian Context*' (Kebijakan Keseimbangan Kerja dan Kehidupan Pribadi/Keluarga dalam Konteks Indonesia).

Penelitian ini akan mengeksplorasi kebijakan '*work life balance*' (Keseimbangan kerja dan kehidupan pribadi/keluarga) yang diadopsi oleh organisasi di Indonesia beserta dampak kebijakan tersebut terhadap karyawan. Hasil penelitian ini nantinya diharapkan dapat memberikan kontribusi kepada literatur terkait dengan topik keseimbangan kerja dan kehidupan di luar kerja. Penelitian ini juga nantinya diharapkan dapat memberikan kontribusi kepada organisasi di Indonesia maupun organisasi di negara berkembang lainnya agar dapat mengembangkan kebijakan '*work life balance*' yang lebih baik. Untuk tujuan tersebut, maka saya mengharapkan kesediaan anda untuk turut berpartisipasi dalam penelitian ini.

Kerahasiaan

- Survey ini *anonymous*. Anda tidak diharapkan untuk menulis nama anda pada kuesioner ini.
- Jawaban anda dalam survey ini dijamin kerahasiaannya dan hanya dapat dilihat oleh peneliti beserta pembimbingnya.
- Tidak akan ada identitas individu yang akan disebar/disebutkan selama maupun setelah berlangsungnya survey ini.
- Partisipan penelitian ini dapat mengundurkan diri kapan saja tanpa adanya konsekuensi apapun terhadap status dan hubungan kerja dengan organisasinya baik saat ini maupun di masa datang.
- Identitas partisipan maupun data demografi individual tidak akan pernah disebutkan atau dilaporkan dalam semua bentuk laporan terkait hasil penelitian ini baik di dalam lingkungan universitas tempat peneliti menempuh studinya maupun dalam publikasi eksternal ataupun presentasi.
- Data demografi akan dipergunakan secara agregat untuk mendeskripsikan seluruh partisipan penelitian ini secara lebih detail.
- Tidak akan ada data demografi individu ataupun informasi individu yang akan disebutkan atau dilaporkan dalam laporan akhir penelitian ini.
- Ringkasan hasil penelitian akan diberikan kepada organisasi yang turut berpartisipasi dalam penelitian ini (hanya berdasarkan permintaan) setelah studi berhasil diselesaikan.
- Penelitian ini diharapkan akan selesai pada akhir tahun 2012. Organisasi yang turut berpartisipasi dalam penelitian ini dapat menghubungi peneliti Tri Wulida Afrianty pada School of Management, University of South Australia, North Terrace, SA 5000, Australia atau pada aferty001@students.unisa.edu.au; t_wulida@yahoo.com pada akhir tahun 2012 untuk memperoleh ringkasan hasil penelitian ini.
- Partisipasi dalam survey ini bersifat sukarela. Pengisian dan pengembalian survey ini mengindikasikan kesukarelaan partisipasi anda dalam penelitian ini.

Pengisian dan Petunjuk Umum (Tatacara) Pengisian

- Kuesioner ini dibentuk berpasangan, satu bagian adalah untuk diisi oleh bawahan (staf universitas) dan bagian lainnya untuk diisi oleh atasan. Masing-masing kuesioner terdiri atas 2 bagian. Bagian pertama adalah tentang informasi demografi dan bagian kedua terdiri atas beberapa butir pertanyaan terkait dengan kebijakan *work life balance* (hanya untuk bawahan) dan outcomenya terhadap karyawan (untuk bawahan dan atasannya)
- Untuk menjawab seluruh pertanyaan dalam kuesioner ini dibutuhkan waktu kurang lebih 30 menit.
- Tidak ada jawaban yang benar maupun salah. Partisipan hanya dimohon untuk memberikan jawabannya berdasarkan skala yang menurutnya paling sesuai.
- Anda dimohon untuk memasukkan kuesioner yang telah terisi ke dalam amplop tertutup yang telah disediakan. Peneliti ataupun asisten peneliti nantinya akan mengambil/mengumpulkan kuesioner tsb dari anda.

Penyimpanan Data

- Seluruh informasi yang diperoleh untuk penelitian ini akan disimpan selama 5 tahun di ruang kerja peneliti di School of Management, University of South Australia (UniSA). Semua data yang berbentuk *hard copy* akan disimpan dalam loker yang terkunci.
- Hanya Peneliti dan pembimbingnya, Associate Professor Jie Shen pada School of Management, University of South Australia yang akan memiliki akses terhadap data penelitian ini.

Etika dan Keselamatan

- Penelitian ini telah disetujui oleh *University of South Australia's (UniSA) Human Research Ethics Committee*. Jika anda memiliki pertanyaan seputar masalah kode etik penelitian ini, anda dapat menghubungi *the Executive Officer of this Committee*, Tel: 61 8 8301 3118, email: Vicki.allen@unisa.edu.au.
- Tidak akan ada resiko pada partisipan penelitian ini yang diakibatkan oleh keterlibatannya dalam penelitian ini (selain terkait waktu yang diluangkan).

Jika anda memiliki pertanyaan tentang penelitian ini, anda dapat menghubungi peneliti pada aferty001@students.unisa.edu.au; t_wulida@yahoo.com atau pembimbing peneliti, Associate Professor Jie Shen pada Tel: +61 8 8302 7228, email: jie.shen@unisa.edu.au.

Terimakasih atas waktu dan kesediaan anda untuk berpartisipasi dalam penelitian ini. Partisipasi anda sangatlah dihargai.

Salam,

Tri Wulida Afrianty

Appendix 5: Consent Letter

Project Title : **WORK LIFE BALANCE POLICIES IN THE INDONESIAN CONTEXT**

Researcher's name : Tri Wulida Afrianty (Tri), PhD scholar
Email: aferty001@mymail.unisa.edu.au
School of Management, University of South Australia

Supervisor's name : Associate Professor Jie Shen
Email: jie.shen@unisa.edu.au

Or
Dr Shruti Sardeshmukh
Email: shruti.sardeshmukh@unisa.edu.au
School of Management, University of South Australia

- I have read the participant information sheet and the nature and the purpose of the research project have been explained to me. I understand and agree to take part thus I give the permission to the researcher to conduct research at the institution where I work.
- I understand that I may not directly benefit from taking part in the project.
- I understand that I can withdraw from the study at any stage and that this will not affect my status now or in the future.
- I confirm that I am over 18 years of age.
- I understand that the questionnaire will be stored by the researcher safely in her office. Only the researcher and her PhD supervisors will have the access to the questionnaires. The questionnaires will not be used for any purposes other than this particular PhD research. All information collected as part of the study will be retained for five years in the office of School of Management, University of South Australia (UniSA), City West Campus, North Terrace, Adelaide, SA 5000, Australia according to UniSA guidelines.

Name and position of participant:

.....

Name of University:

.....

Signed and date:

.....

Appendix 6: Consent Letter (in Bahasa Indonesia)

Judul Penelitian : *'WORK LIFE BALANCE POLICIES IN THE
INDONESIAN CONTEXT'*
(KEBIJAKAN KESEIMBANGAN KERJA DAN
KEHIDUPAN PRIBADI/KELUARGA DALAM
KONTEKS INDONESIA)

Nama Peneliti : Tri Wulida Afrianty (Tri), PhD scholar
Email: aferty001@mymail.unisa.edu.au
School of Management, University of South Australia

Nama Pembimbing : Associate Professor Jie Shen
Email: jie.shen@unisa.edu.au

Dr Shruti Sardeshmukh
Email: shruti.sardeshmukh@unisa.edu.au
School of Management, University of South Australia

- Saya telah membaca lembar informasi untuk partisipan dan tujuan penelitian ini telah disampaikan secara jelas. Saya memahami dan setuju untuk turut berpartisipasi dalam penelitian ini dan memberikan izin kepada peneliti untuk melakukan penelitian di lingkungan kerja saya.
- Saya memahami bahwa saya tidak akan secara langsung memperoleh manfaat dari keikutsertaan saya dalam penelitian ini.
- Saya memahami bahwa saya sewaktu-waktu dapat mengundurkan diri dari keikutsertaan saya dalam penelitian ini dan hal itu tidak akan berdampak terhadap satus kerja saya saat ini dan dimasa dating.
- Saya menyatakan bahwa saya berusia di atas 18 tahun.
- Saya memahami bahwa seluruh kuesioner penelitian ini akan disimpan secara aman oleh peneliti di ruang kerjanya. Hanya peneliti dan pembimbingnya yang memiliki akses terhadap data penelitian ini. Kuesioner ini tidak akan dipergunakan untuk kepentingan apapun diluar kepentingan penelitian ini. Seluruh informasi yang diperoleh sebagai bagian dari penelitian ini akan disimpan selama jangka waktu lima tahun di ruang kerja peneliti di of School of Management, University of South Australia (UniSA), City West Campus, North Terrace, Adelaide, SA 5000, Australia sesuai dengan aturan dari UniSA .

Nama dan Posisi Partisipan:

.....
.....

Nama Universitas:

.....

Tandatangan dan tanggal:

.....

A. The questions below have answers from the scale of five. Please tick mark (√) from the scale of 5, the most appropriately matching scale with you.

		Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
1.	My supervisor is willing to listen to my problems in juggling work and nonwork life	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	My supervisor takes the time to learn about my personal needs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	My supervisor makes me feel comfortable talking to him or her about my conflicts between work and nonwork	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	My supervisor and I can talk effectively to solve conflicts between work and non work issues	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	I can depend on my supervisor to help me with scheduling conflicts if I need it	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	I can rely on my supervisor to make sure my work responsibilities are handled when I have unanticipated nonwork demands	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	My supervisor works effectively with workers to creatively solve conflicts between work and nonwork	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

		Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
8.	My supervisor is a good role model for work and nonwork balance					
9.	My supervisor demonstrates effective behaviors in how to juggle work and nonwork balance					
10.	My supervisor demonstrates how a person can jointly be successful on and off the job					
11.	My supervisor thinks about how the work in my department can be organized to jointly benefit employees and the company					
12.	My supervisor asks for suggestions to make it easier for employees to balance work and nonwork demands					
13.	My supervisor is creative in reallocating job duties to help my department work better as a team					
14.	My supervisor is able to manage the department as a whole team to enable everyone's needs to be met					

B. This part is asking about the availability of work life balance policies in your organisation and whether or not you have used the policies. Please indicate the most appropriately matching options with you.

		Not available (1)	Available, but I have not used it (2)	Available, and I have used it (3)
A.	Compressed work week , that is a work arrangement when employees have a fixed starting time entailing more than eight-hour workdays in order to work fewer days during the week or pay period	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Flexitime , that is a framework within which employees are allowed some freedom to choose their starting and finishing times instead of working the traditional fixed times associated with full time employment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Job sharing , that is an arrangement where two employees share the work of one full-time position, including sharing salary and benefits	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Home telecommuting/working from home , that is periodic work at home (out of the principal office), one or more days a week	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B.	Bereavement leave , that is a leave without deduction of pay on each occasion of the death of a person being concerned	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Paid maternity leave , that is paid leave for mother to take care of her newborn	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Paid Paternity leave , that is paid leave for father when his wife is giving birth or during the first year of his	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Sabbatical Leave , that is paid leaves for personal and professional development	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

		Not available (1)	Available, but I have not used it (2)	Available, and I have used it (3)
C.	On site/near site company care , that is care facility provided by organisations for their employees' children			
	Family allowance (tunjangan keluarga) , that is allowance for employees with dependents (wife/husband and children) who works for the Indonesian government			
D.	Religious allowances/salary bonuses or (tunjangan hari raya/THR) , that is allowance that have to be paid by employer in cash and/or other forms a week before their employees religious holiday celebration			
	Longer break or day off due to religious matter , that is a longer break and or leave which employees are entitled for, to do compulsory religious rituals without any pay reduction			

C. The questions below have answer from the scale of five. Please tick mark (√) from the scale of 5, the most appropriately matching scale with you.

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.	All in all, I am satisfied with my job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	In general, I do not like my job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	In general, I like working here	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

D. The questions below have answer from the scale of five. Please tick mark (√) from the scale of 5, the most appropriately matching scale with you.

		Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
1.	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	I do not feel emotionally attached to this organization	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	I do not feel like part of the family at my organization	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

E. The questions below have answer from the scale of five. Please tick mark (√) from the scale of 5, the most appropriately matching scale with you.

		Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
1.	The demands of my work interfere with my home and family life	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Your participation in this research is highly appreciated. Should you be interested in a summary of the findings of this research, please do not hesitate to contact me at: aferty001@mymail.unisa.edu.au or t_wulida@yahoo.com. Thank you.

End of Questionnaire

8. Apakah anda memiliki : a) Ya, jumlah: orang
 PRT (pembantu rumah tangga) yang tinggal bersama di rumah anda? b) Tidak

A. Pernyataan berikut memiliki jawaban dengan rentang skala lima. Pilihlah dengan memberikan tanda rumput (√) pada pilihan skala yang tersedia menurut jawaban yang paling sesuai dengan anda. Seluruh data dari penelitian ini tidak akan digunakan untuk tujuan administratif atau kepentingan apapun diluar kepentingan penelitian ini.

		Sangat Tidak Setuju (1)	Tidak Setuju (2)	Netral (3)	Setuju (4)	Sangat Setuju (5)
1.	Atasan saya bersedia mendengarkan permasalahan saya dalam menjalankan peran di kantor dan peran dalam kehidupan pribadi saya.					
2.	Atasan saya meluangkan waktu untuk mengetahui kebutuhan pribadi saya.					
3.	Atasan saya membuat saya merasa nyaman berbicara dengannya mengenai konflik antara pekerjaan dan hal di luar pekerjaan yang saya hadapi.					
4.	Saya dan atasan saya dapat berbicara secara efektif untuk mengatasi konflik antara pekerjaan dan non pekerjaan yang saya hadapi.					

		Sangat Tidak Setuju (1)	Tidak Setuju (2)	Netral (3)	Setuju (4)	Sangat Setuju (5)
5.	Jika saya butuhkan, saya dapat mengandalkan atasan saya untuk membantu saya menyelesaikan masalah terkait dengan jadwal kerja yang bertabrakan dengan jadwal kegiatan di luar kerja.					
6.	Saya dapat mengandalkan atasan saya untuk memastikan pekerjaan saya terselesaikan ketika saya memiliki kepentingan tak terduga di luar pekerjaan					
7.	Atasan saya bekerja secara efektif dengan bawahannya untuk menyelesaikan konflik pekerjaan dan non pekerjaan secara kreatif.					
8.	Atasan saya merupakan suri tauladan atau contoh yang baik dalam menjalankan peran ganda secara berimbang sebagai pekerja dan sebagai pribadi di luar pekerjaan.					
9.	Atasan saya menunjukkan perilaku yang efektif dalam menjalankan pekerjaan dan peran individu secara berimbang.					
10.	Atasan saya menunjukkan bagaimana seseorang dapat menjadi sukses pada pekerjaan dan kehidupan pribadinya sekaligus.					

		Sangat Tidak Setuju (1)	Tidak Setuju (2)	Netral (3)	Setuju (4)	Sangat Setuju (5)
11.	Atasan saya berpikir tentang bagaimana pekerjaan di departemen atau unit kerja saya dapat dikelola sedemikian rupa agar dapat sama-sama menguntungkan pegawai dan organisasi.					
12.	Untuk mempermudah para pegawainya dalam menyeimbangkan tuntutan pekerjaan dan kehidupan pribadi, atasan saya tidak enggan meminta saran.					
13.	Atasan saya kreatif dalam mengalokasikan kembali tugas kerja untuk membantu departemen atau unit kerja saya agar dapat bekerja lebih baik sebagai tim.					
14.	Atasan saya dapat mengelola departemen atau unit kerjanya sebagai kesatuan tim untuk memungkinkan pemenuhan kebutuhan setiap orang.					

- B. Bagian ini menanyakan tentang ketersediaan kebijakan 'work life balance' atau kebijakan yang terkait dengan keseimbangan antara kerja dan kehidupan pribadi/keluarga yang terdapat di dalam organisasi tempat anda bekerja. Selanjutnya, bagian ini juga menanyakan apakah anda pernah menggunakan atau memanfaatkan kebijakan tersebut. Pilihlah dengan memberikan tanda rumpuk (√) pada pilihan yang tersedia menurut jawaban yang paling sesuai dengan anda. Mohon untuk menjawab sesuai dengan kondisi yang sebenarnya anda alami.

		Tidak Tersedia (1)	Tersedia, tetapi saya tidak pernah menggunakan/memanfaatkannya (2)	Tersedia, dan saya telah/sedang menggunakannya (3)
A.	Pemadatan waktu (hari) kerja , yaitu kebijakan yang memperbolehkan/memungkinkan pegawai untuk bekerja dalam <i>shift</i> /jam kerja yang lebih panjang dalam suatu waktu, agar dapat mengurangi total hari kerja secara keseluruhan.			
	Flexitime , yaitu keleluasaan atau fleksibilitas jam kerja dalam artian jam masuk dan pulang kerja bisa diatur sesuai kesepakatan dengan atasan atau organisasi kerja, tetapi tidak mengurangi lamanya atau panjangnya jam kerja.			
	Pembagian pekerjaan , yaitu kebijakan yang memperbolehkan/memungkinkan untuk membagi kerja antara dua orang pegawai untuk melakukan pekerjaan yang sebenarnya bisa dilakukan oleh satu orang pegawai dengan konsekuensi upah dibagi secara proporsional.			

		Tidak Tersedia (1)	Tersedia, tetapi saya tidak pernah menggunakan/ memanfaatkannya (2)	Tersedia, dan saya telah/sedang menggunakannya (3)
	Program yang memungkinkan bekerja di rumah atau di luar kantor			
B.	Cutu karena ada anggota keluarga yang meninggal dunia			
	Cutu melahirkan tetapi tetap mendapatkan gaji			
	Cutu untuk mendampingi istri yang melahirkan			
	Cutu untuk meningkatkan keahlian dan keterampilan sembari tetap memperoleh gaji penuh atau separuh gaji			
C.	Tempat penitipan anak yang berada di dalam lingkungan kerja atau yang dikelola oleh organisasi tempat bekerja			
	Tunjangan keluarga			
D.	Tunjangan Hari Raya			
	Jam istirahat kerja atau libur yang lebih lama sehubungan dengan urusan keagamaan			

- C. Pernyataan berikut memiliki jawaban dengan rentang skala lima. Pilihlah dengan memberikan tanda rumput (√) pada pilihan skala yang tersedia menurut jawaban yang paling sesuai dengan anda. Seluruh data dari penelitian ini tidak akan digunakan untuk tujuan administratif atau kepentingan apapun diluar kepentingan penelitian ini.

		Sangat Tidak Setuju (1)	Tidak Setuju (2)	Netral (3)	Setuju (4)	Sangat Setuju (5)
1.	Secara keseluruhan, saya puas dengan pekerjaan saya.					
2.	Secara umum, saya tidak menyukai pekerjaan saya.					
3.	Secara umum, saya suka bekerja di organisasi ini.					

- D. Pernyataan berikut memiliki jawaban dengan rentang skala lima. Pilihlah dengan memberikan tanda rumput (√) pada pilihan skala yang tersedia menurut jawaban yang paling sesuai dengan anda. Seluruh data dari penelitian ini tidak akan digunakan untuk tujuan administratif atau kepentingan apapun diluar kepentingan penelitian ini.

		Sangat Tidak Setuju	Tidak Setuju	Netral	Setuju	Sangat Setuju
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.	Saya akan sangat senang untuk bekerja seterusnya dan mengembangkan karir saya di organisasi tempat saya bekerja ini.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
2.	Saya merasa seakan-akan masalah organisasi tempat saya bekerja ini juga merupakan masalah saya.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
3.	Saya tidak mempunyai rasa memiliki yang kuat terhadap organisasi tempat saya bekerja ini.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
4.	Saya tidak merasa terikat secara emosional pada organisasi tempat saya bekerja ini.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
5.	Saya tidak merasa seperti bagian dari keluarga di organisasi tempat saya bekerja ini.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
6.	Secara pribadi, organisasi tempat saya bekerja ini memiliki arti yang sangat besar.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

- E. Pernyataan berikut memiliki jawaban dengan rentang skala lima. Pilihlah dengan memberikan tanda rumput (√) pada pilihan skala yang tersedia menurut jawaban yang paling sesuai dengan anda. Seluruh data dari penelitian ini tidak akan digunakan untuk tujuan administratif atau kepentingan apapun diluar kepentingan penelitian ini.

		Sangat Tidak Setuju	Tidak Setuju	Netral	Setuju	Sangat Setuju
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.	Tuntutan pekerjaan saya mempengaruhi /mencampuri kehidupan saya di rumah dan keluarga saya.					
2.	Banyaknya waktu yang harus saya luangkan untuk pekerjaan menyulitkan saya untuk memenuhi tanggung jawab saya sebagai anggota keluarga.					
3.	Hal-hal di luar pekerjaan yang ingin saya lakukan di rumah tidak dapat terlaksana karena pekerjaan yang harus saya lakukan.					
4.	Pekerjaan saya menjadi kendala sehingga saya kesulitan dalam memenuhi kewajiban keluarga.					
5.	Karena pekerjaan/tugas kantor, saya harus merubah rencana kegiatan bersama keluarga.					

Partisipasi anda dalam penelitian ini sangat kami hargai. Bila anda berminat dengan ringkasan hasil penelitian ini, mohon menghubungi peneliti melalui alamat email di aferty001@mymail.unisa.edu.au or t_wulida@yahoo.com. Terima kasih.

Selesai

8. Do you have any paid helper : c) Yes, number:(people)
 (i.e, who is doing general d) No
 household and or as a nanny)
 who shares the same house
 with you.

A. The questions below have answers from the scale of five. Please tick mark (√) from the scale of 5, the most appropriately matching scale with the SUBORDINATE who is being assessed. The data gathered from this questionnaire will not be used for any purposes other than this particular PhD research.

		Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neither agree nor disagree (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
1.	Helps orient new employees even though it is not required as part of his or her job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	Is always ready to help or to lend a helping hand to those around him or her.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	Willingly gives of his or her time to help others who have work-related problems.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	Is one of my most conscientious employees.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	Believes in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	Takes fewer breaks at work than other employees.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7.	Consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.					
8.	Always finds fault with what the company is doing.					
9.	Is the classic “squeaky wheel” that always needs greasing.					
10.	Tends to make “mountains out of molehills”.					
11.	Always focuses on what’s wrong, rather than the positive side.					

B. The questions below have answers from the scale of five. Please tick mark (√) from the scale of 5, the most appropriately matching scale with the SUBORDINATE who is being assessed. The data gathered from this questionnaire will not be used for any purposes other than this particular PhD research.

		Never	Almost Never	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Very Often
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.	Adequately completes assigned duties	<input type="checkbox"/>				
2.	Fulfills responsibility specified in job description	<input type="checkbox"/>				
3.	Performs tasks that are expected of him/her	<input type="checkbox"/>				
4.	Meets formal performance requirements of the job	<input type="checkbox"/>				
5.	Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation	<input type="checkbox"/>				
6.	Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform	<input type="checkbox"/>				
7.	Fails to perform essential duties	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Your participation in this research is highly appreciated. Should you be interested in a summary of the findings of this research, please do not hesitate to contact me at: aferty001@mymail.unisa.edu.au or t_wulida@yahoo.com. Thank you.

End of Questionnaire

Appendix 10: Questionnaire for Supervisor (in Bahasa Indonesia)

Untuk diisi oleh atasan

KUESIONER PENELITIAN

KEBIJAKAN 'WORK LIFE BALANCE' DALAM KONTEKS INDONESIA

Kuesioner ini merupakan bagian dari penelitian untuk meraih gelar doktor di Universitas South Australia yang berjudul "Kebijakan 'work life balance' (keseimbangan antara kerja dan kehidupan pribadi/keluarga) dalam konteks Indonesia". Penelitian ini akan menjajaki kebijakan keseimbangan antara kerja dan kehidupan pribadi/keluarga yang diadopsi oleh organisasi-organisasi di Indonesia dan dampaknya pada hasil kerja dan non kerja karyawan. Kuesioner ini mencakup berbagai pertanyaan terkait pengamatan atasan terhadap bawahannya sehubungan dengan kinerja bawahan. Hasil penelitian ini diharapkan dapat memberikan kontribusi pada kepustakaan/literatur yang terkait dengan keseimbangan antara kerja dan kehidupan pribadi/keluarga. Penelitian ini juga diharapkan dapat memiliki implikasi yang signifikan pada organisasi di Indonesia maupun di negara berkembang lainnya untuk mengembangkan kebijakan yang dapat membantu karyawannya untuk mencapai keseimbangan antara kerja dengan kehidupan di luar dunia kerjanya. Untuk itulah, saya mohon kesediaan anda untuk turut berperan serta dalam penelitian ini. Terimakasih.

Hormat saya,

Tri Wulida Afrianty

Isilah atau lingkari pilihan berikut yang sesuai dengan anda:

1. Nama organisasi kerja anda
Universitas :
2. Posisi/jabatan saat ini :
3. Jenis kelamin : a) Laki-laki b) Perempuan
4. Agama :
5. Umur :
6. Status Pernikahan : a) Menikah c) Cerai
b) Belum Menikah d) Janda/duda
7. Jumlah anak :orang

8. Apakah anda memiliki : a) Ya, jumlah: orang
 PRT (pembantu rumah tangga) yang tinggal bersama di rumah anda? b) Tidak

A. Pernyataan berikut memiliki jawaban dengan rentang skala lima. Pilihlah dengan memberikan tanda rumput (√) pada pilihan skala yang tersedia menurut jawaban yang paling sesuai dengan keadaan BAWAHAN yang sedang anda nilai. Seluruh data dari penelitian ini tidak akan digunakan untuk tujuan administratif atau kepentingan apapun diluar kepentingan penelitian ini.

		Sangat Tidak Setuju (1)	Tidak Setuju (2)	Netral (3)	Setuju (4)	Sangat Setuju (5)
1.	Membantu memberikan orientasi/pengarahan kepada pegawai baru walaupun hal tersebut bukan bagian dari pekerjaannya.					
2.	Selalu siap memberikan bantuan kepada pegawai lain di sekitarnya.					
3.	Bersedia meluangkan waktunya untuk membantu rekan kerjanya sehubungan dengan masalah yang terkait dengan pekerjaan.					
4.	Adalah termasuk salah satu pegawai yang paling cermat dan berhati-hati dalam menjalankan pekerjaannya.					
5.	Yang bersangkutan jujur dan disiplin dalam hal bekerja sesuai dengan jam kerja.					

		Sangat Tidak Setuju (1)	Tidak Setuju (2)	Netral (3)	Setuju (4)	Sangat Setuju (5)
6.	Mengambil waktu istirahat kerja yang lebih sedikit dibandingkan pegawai lainnya					
7.	Menghabiskan banyak waktu untuk mengeluhkan hal-hal yang sepele.					
8.	Selalu mencari-cari kesalahan yang dilakukan oleh organisasi.					
9.	Merupakan pegawai yang sangat "vocal".					
10.	Cenderung membesar-besarkan masalah yang kecil/sepele.					
11.	Selalu melihat sisi negatif (apa yang salah) daripada sisi positif.					

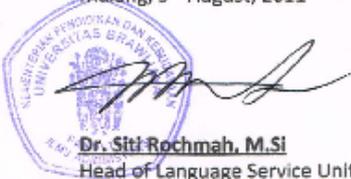
- B. Pernyataan berikut memiliki jawaban dengan rentang skala lima. Pilihlah jawaban dengan memberikan tanda rumput (√) pada pilihan skala yang tersedia berdasarkan jawaban yang paling sesuai dengan kondisi BAWAHAN yang sedang anda nilai. Seluruh data dari penelitian ini tidak akan digunakan untuk tujuan administratif apa pun diluar kepentingan penelitian ini.**

		Tidak pernah	Hampir tidak pernah	Kadang-kadang	Cukup sering	Sangat sering
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.	Menyelesaikan kewajiban yang ditugaskan dengan cukup baik.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
2.	Memenuhi tanggung jawab yang telah ditentukan dalam deskripsi pekerjaan.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
3.	Menjalankan pekerjaan sesuai dengan yang diharapkan.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
4.	Memenuhi standar kinerja yang telah ditetapkan.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
5.	Terlibat dalam kegiatan yang secara langsung mempengaruhi evaluasi kinerjanya	<input type="checkbox"/>				
6.	Mengabaikan beberapa aspek pekerjaan yang ditugaskan kepadanya.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
7.	Gagal dalam menjalankan tugas utama/penting.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Partisipasi anda dalam penelitian ini sangat kami hargai. Bila anda berminat dengan ringkasan hasil penelitian ini, mohon menghubungi peneliti melalui alamat email di aferty001@mymail.unisa.edu.au atau t_wulida@yahoo.com. Terima kasih.

Selesai

Appendix 11: Translation Certification

	<p>KEMENTERIAN PENDIDIKAN DAN KEBUDAYAAN UNIVERSITAS BRAWIJAYA FAKULTAS ILMU ADMINISTRASI</p>
<p>Jalan. MT. Haryono 165, Malang 65145, Indonesia Telp. +62-341-553737, 568914, 558226 ; Fax. +62-341-558227 E-mail : fia@ub.ac.id http://www.fia.ub.ac.id</p>	
<p>Program Studi : • Sarjana : - Ilmu Administrasi Publik - Administrasi Pemerintahan - Perencanaan Pembangunan - Ilmu Pergustakaan, - Ilmu Administrasi Bisnis - Perpajakan - Bisnis Internasional - Hospitality dan Pariwisata • Magister : - Ilmu Administrasi Publik - Ilmu Administrasi Bisnis • Doktor Ilmu Administrasi</p>	
<p><u>Translation Certification</u></p>	
<p>No : 8161 /UN.10.3/AK/2011</p>	
<p>I hereby certify that the Indonesian translations of the English research questionnaires and all the related materials of the research project titled: "Work Life Balance Policies in the Indonesian Context" are accurate to the best of my knowledge.</p>	
<p>I further certify that I am competent in both Indonesian and English to certify such translations.</p>	
<p>Malang, 9th August, 2011</p>	
	<p>Dr. Siti Rochmah, M.Si Head of Language Service Unit Faculty of Administrative Science University of Brawijaya Malang, Indonesia</p>

Appendix 12: Correlation Matrix, KMO and Bartlett's Test, Total Variance Explained for FSSB

		Correlation Matrix							
		FSSB_ES1	FSSB_ES2	FSSB_ES3	FSSB_ES4	FSSB_IS1	FSSB_IS2	FSSB_IS3	
Correlation	FSSB_ES1	1.000	.575	.553	.558	.362	.268	.385	
	FSSB_ES2	.575	1.000	.556	.485	.370	.378	.377	
	FSSB_ES3	.553	.556	1.000	.787	.450	.318	.474	
	FSSB_ES4	.558	.485	.787	1.000	.486	.342	.602	
	FSSB_IS1	.362	.370	.450	.486	1.000	.695	.532	
	FSSB_IS2	.268	.378	.318	.342	.695	1.000	.412	
	FSSB_IS3	.385	.377	.474	.602	.532	.412	1.000	
	FSSB_RM1	.477	.394	.456	.536	.438	.256	.637	
	FSSB_RM2	.416	.367	.355	.456	.310	.160	.562	
	FSSB_RM3	.359	.361	.342	.420	.384	.270	.586	
	FSSB_CM1	.370	.299	.440	.467	.372	.235	.536	
	FSSB_CM2	.317	.379	.467	.470	.425	.330	.478	
	FSSB_CM3	.391	.306	.406	.443	.284	.189	.565	
	FSSB_CM4	.397	.356	.373	.464	.305	.234	.524	
		FSSB_RM1	FSSB_RM2	FSSB_RM3	FSSB_CM1	FSSB_CM2	FSSB_CM3	FSSB_CM4	
		FSSB_ES1	.477	.416	.359	.370	.317	.391	.397
		FSSB_ES2	.394	.367	.361	.299	.379	.306	.356
		FSSB_ES3	.456	.355	.342	.440	.467	.406	.373
		FSSB_ES4	.536	.456	.420	.467	.470	.443	.464
		FSSB_IS1	.438	.310	.384	.372	.425	.284	.305
	FSSB_IS2	.256	.160	.270	.235	.330	.189	.234	
	FSSB_IS3	.637	.562	.586	.536	.478	.565	.524	
	FSSB_RM1	1.000	.695	.610	.599	.419	.520	.446	
	FSSB_RM2	.695	1.000	.717	.540	.397	.552	.520	
	FSSB_RM3	.610	.717	1.000	.648	.450	.544	.476	
	FSSB_CM1	.599	.540	.648	1.000	.521	.684	.558	
	FSSB_CM2	.419	.397	.450	.521	1.000	.453	.477	
	FSSB_CM3	.520	.552	.544	.684	.453	1.000	.705	
	FSSB_CM4	.446	.520	.476	.558	.477	.705	1.000	

KMO and Bartlett's Test	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.891
Approx. Chi-Square	1328.676
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity df	91
Sig.	.000

Total Variance Explained							
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	6.909	49.352	49.352	6.909	49.352	49.352	6.069
2	1.532	10.940	60.292	1.532	10.940	60.292	3.186
3	1.082	7.726	68.018	1.082	7.726	68.018	4.949
4	.809	5.782	73.800				
5	.663	4.734	78.534				
6	.584	4.170	82.705				
7	.465	3.318	86.023				
8	.410	2.927	88.949				
9	.356	2.542	91.491				
10	.318	2.273	93.764				
11	.259	1.852	95.616				
12	.253	1.805	97.421				
13	.191	1.361	98.782				
14	.170	1.218	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

Appendix 13: Correlation Matrix, KMO and Bartlett's Test, Total Variance Explained for OCB

Correlation Matrix											
	OCB _A1	OCB _A2	OCB _A3	OCB _C1	OCB _C2	OCB _C3	OCB _S1	OCB _S2	OCB _S4	OCB _S5	OCB _S3
OCB_A1	1.000	.349	.314	.198	.206	.169	.072	.059	.171	.122	-.091
OCB_A2	.349	1.000	.607	.305	.313	.354	.277	.240	.383	.218	.084
OCB_A3	.314	.607	1.000	.262	.316	.336	.304	.236	.346	.161	-.031
OCB_C1	.198	.305	.262	1.000	.533	.366	.379	.351	.297	.207	-.098
OCB_C2	.206	.313	.316	.533	1.000	.507	.415	.324	.215	.197	-.089
OCB_C3	.169	.354	.336	.366	.507	1.000	.276	.141	.162	.114	-.167
OCB_S1	.072	.277	.304	.379	.415	.276	1.000	.634	.425	.401	-.021
OCB_S2	.059	.240	.236	.351	.324	.141	.634	1.000	.448	.480	.101
OCB_S4	.171	.383	.346	.297	.215	.162	.425	.448	1.000	.516	.238
OCB_S5	.122	.218	.161	.207	.197	.114	.401	.480	.516	1.000	.151
OCB_S3	-.091	.084	-.031	-.098	-.089	-.167	-.021	.101	.238	.151	1.000

KMO and Bartlett's Test	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.801
Approx. Chi-Square	508.636
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df
	55
	Sig.
	.000

Total Variance Explained							
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	3.806	34.603	34.603	3.806	34.603	34.603	3.105
2	1.623	14.751	49.354	1.623	14.751	49.354	1.925
3	1.249	11.358	60.712	1.249	11.358	60.712	2.594
4	.850	7.728	68.440				
5	.750	6.820	75.260				
6	.637	5.789	81.049				
7	.551	5.007	86.056				
8	.439	3.990	90.046				
9	.410	3.726	93.772				
10	.355	3.223	96.995				
11	.331	3.005	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

Appendix 14: Correlation Matrix, KMO and Bartlett's Test, Total Variance Explained for IRP

Correlation Matrix								
		IRP_1	IRP_2	IRP_3	IRP_4	IRP_5	IRP_6	IRP_7
Correlation	IRP_1	1.000	.609	.580	.579	.107	.359	.249
	IRP_2	.609	1.000	.606	.551	.327	.216	.267
	IRP_3	.580	.606	1.000	.645	.279	.340	.200
	IRP_4	.579	.551	.645	1.000	.209	.211	.253
	IRP_5	.107	.327	.279	.209	1.000	.120	.132
	IRP_6	.359	.216	.340	.211	.120	1.000	.485
	IRP_7	.249	.267	.200	.253	.132	.485	1.000

KMO and Bartlett's Test	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.758
Approx. Chi-Square	370.417
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity df	21
Sig.	.000

Total Variance Explained							
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	3.231	46.159	46.159	3.231	46.159	46.159	3.064
2	1.163	16.615	62.774	1.163	16.615	62.774	1.874
3	.937	13.384	76.158				
4	.570	8.148	84.306				
5	.470	6.717	91.023				
6	.358	5.112	96.135				
7	.271	3.865	100.000				

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

Appendix 15: Correlation Matrix, KMO and Bartlett's Test, Total Variance Explained for Organisational Commitment

Correlation Matrix							
	OC_1	OC_2	OC_3	OC_4	OC_5	OC_6	
Correlation	OC_1	1.000	.348	.297	.388	.367	.566
	OC_2	.348	1.000	.296	.411	.372	.351
	OC_3	.297	.296	1.000	.671	.619	.430
	OC_4	.388	.411	.671	1.000	.702	.466
	OC_5	.367	.372	.619	.702	1.000	.526
	OC_6	.566	.351	.430	.466	.526	1.000

KMO and Bartlett's Test	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.820
Approx. Chi-Square	370.612
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity df	15
Sig.	.000

Total Variance Explained						
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.308	55.126	55.126	3.308	55.126	55.126
2	.911	15.179	70.305			
3	.716	11.939	82.244			
4	.426	7.107	89.352			
5	.368	6.127	95.479			
6	.271	4.521	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix 16: Correlation Matrix, KMO and Bartlett's Test, Total Variance Explained for Job Satisfaction

Correlation Matrix			
	JS_1	JS_2	JS_3
JS_1	1.000	.451	.393
Correlation JS_2	.451	1.000	.354
JS_3	.393	.354	1.000

KMO and Bartlett's Test	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.654
Approx. Chi-Square	69.070
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity df	3
Sig.	.000

Total Variance Explained						
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.800	59.991	59.991	1.800	59.991	59.991
2	.656	21.870	81.860			
3	.544	18.140	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix 17: Correlation Matrix, KMO and Bartlett's Test, Total Variance Explained for WFC

Correlation Matrix						
		WFC_1	WFC_2	WFC_3	WFC_4	WFC_5
Correlation	WFC_1	1.000	.550	.532	.492	.438
	WFC_2	.550	1.000	.724	.703	.542
	WFC_3	.532	.724	1.000	.770	.516
	WFC_4	.492	.703	.770	1.000	.460
	WFC_5	.438	.542	.516	.460	1.000

KMO and Bartlett's Test	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	.852
Approx. Chi-Square	403.600
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	df
	10
	Sig.
	.000

Total Variance Explained						
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.314	66.285	66.285	3.314	66.285	66.285
2	.609	12.178	78.462			
3	.557	11.148	89.611			
4	.293	5.869	95.479			
5	.226	4.521	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Appendix 18: Regression Coefficients

Model		Coefficients ^a									
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	47.656	2.840		16.778	.000					
	Gender	-.778	.719	-.088	-1.082	.281	-.013	-.088	-.084	.911	1.097
	Religion	-.410	.344	-.098	-1.193	.235	-.048	-.097	-.093	.892	1.122
	Age	.235	.429	.051	.547	.585	-.005	.045	.043	.684	1.463
	Marital_Status	-2.356	.950	-.221	-2.480	.014	-.174	-.198	-.193	.759	1.318
	Paid_Help	.209	.883	.019	.236	.813	.000	.019	.018	.907	1.103
	Children_Number	.033	.376	.009	.087	.931	-.053	.007	.007	.605	1.652
	Job_Category	-1.151	.398	-.232	-2.894	.004	-.211	-.230	-.225	.939	1.065
	Higher_Ed_Category	.174	.835	.017	.209	.835	-.015	.017	.016	.951	1.052
2	(Constant)	40.404	3.716		10.873	.000					
	Gender	-.173	.693	-.020	-.249	.804	-.013	-.021	-.018	.855	1.170
	Religion	-.389	.332	-.093	-1.169	.244	-.048	-.097	-.085	.832	1.202
	Age	.056	.412	.012	.137	.891	-.005	.011	.010	.646	1.548
	Marital_Status	-2.212	.955	-.208	-2.316	.022	-.174	-.189	-.168	.655	1.527
	Paid_Help	.164	.856	.015	.192	.848	.000	.016	.014	.843	1.187
	Children_Number	-.245	.369	-.065	-.666	.506	-.053	-.055	-.048	.548	1.823
	Job_Category	-1.236	.399	-.249	-3.096	.002	-.211	-.249	-.225	.813	1.229
	Higher_Ed_Category	.151	.791	.014	.191	.849	-.015	.016	.014	.924	1.082
	Flexi	.083	.263	.026	.316	.753	.120	.026	.023	.762	1.313
	Leave	-.085	.262	-.028	-.325	.746	-.025	-.027	-.024	.721	1.387
	Dependent	1.900	.810	.211	2.345	.051	.111	.191	.170	.653	1.532
	Religiosity	-1.275	.564	-.183	-2.261	.025	-.101	-.185	-.164	.802	1.247
Tot_FSSB	.164	.043	.294	3.796	.000	.313	.301	.276	.880	1.137	

a. Dependent Variable: Tot_OCB

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF	
1	(Constant)	33.533	1.926		17.412	.000					
	Gender	.104	.487	.017	.213	.832	.085	.017	.016	.911	1.097
	Religion	.389	.233	.135	1.669	.097	.157	.135	.128	.892	1.122
	Age	.051	.291	.016	.176	.860	.016	.014	.014	.684	1.463
	Marital_Status	-.776	.644	-.106	-1.205	.230	-.121	-.098	-.092	.759	1.318
	Paid_Help	-.115	.599	-.015	-.191	.849	.041	-.016	-.015	.907	1.103
	Children_Number	.007	.255	.003	.026	.979	-.033	.002	.002	.605	1.652
	Job_Category	-.888	.270	-.260	-3.293	.001	-.279	-.260	-.252	.939	1.065
	Higher_Ed_Category	-.692	.566	-.096	-1.221	.224	-.134	-.099	-.094	.951	1.052
2	(Constant)	32.113	2.595		12.374	.000					
	Gender	.346	.484	.057	.716	.475	.085	.059	.053	.855	1.170
	Religion	.334	.232	.116	1.440	.152	.157	.119	.106	.832	1.202
	Age	-.141	.288	-.045	-.491	.624	.016	-.041	-.036	.646	1.548
	Marital_Status	-.747	.667	-.102	-1.119	.265	-.121	-.093	-.082	.655	1.527
	Paid_Help	-.161	.598	-.022	-.270	.788	.041	-.022	-.020	.843	1.187
	Children_Number	-.002	.257	-.001	-.006	.995	-.033	-.001	.000	.548	1.823
	Job_Category	-1.117	.279	-.327	-4.005	.000	-.279	-.316	-.295	.813	1.229
	Higher_Ed_Category	-.529	.552	-.073	-.957	.340	-.134	-.079	-.071	.924	1.082
	Flexi	-.254	.184	-.117	-1.382	.169	-.003	-.114	-.102	.762	1.313
	Leave	.071	.183	.034	.387	.699	.017	.032	.029	.721	1.387
	Dependent	.917	.566	.148	1.621	.107	.002	.133	.119	.653	1.532
	Religiosity	-1.127	.394	-.235	-2.861	.005	-.193	-.231	-.211	.802	1.247
Tot_FSSB	.071	.030	.185	2.354	.020	.171	.192	.173	.880	1.137	

a. Dependent Variable: Tot_IRP

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF	
1	(Constant)	30.016	2.199		13.652	.000					
	Gender	-1.536	.556	-.222	-2.760	.006	-.195	-.220	-.212	.911	1.097
	Religion	-.440	.266	-.134	-1.652	.101	-.091	-.134	-.127	.892	1.122
	Age	.488	.332	.137	1.470	.144	.134	.119	.113	.684	1.463
	Marital_Status	-1.148	.735	-.138	-1.562	.120	-.020	-.127	-.120	.759	1.318
	Paid_Help	-.419	.684	-.049	-.613	.541	-.073	-.050	-.047	.907	1.103
	Children_Number	.237	.291	.081	.816	.416	.099	.067	.063	.605	1.652
	Job_Category	-.753	.308	-.194	-2.446	.016	-.135	-.196	-.188	.939	1.065
	Higher_Ed_Category	.301	.646	.037	.466	.642	.020	.038	.036	.951	1.052
2	(Constant)	24.737	2.935		8.428	.000					
	Gender	-1.008	.547	-.146	-1.840	.068	-.195	-.151	-.135	.855	1.170
	Religion	-.454	.263	-.139	-1.728	.086	-.091	-.142	-.126	.832	1.202
	Age	.274	.326	.076	.840	.403	.134	.070	.061	.646	1.548
	Marital_Status	-.623	.754	-.075	-.825	.411	-.020	-.068	-.060	.655	1.527
	Paid_Help	-.017	.676	-.002	-.025	.980	-.073	-.002	-.002	.843	1.187
	Children_Number	.175	.291	.059	.600	.549	.099	.050	.044	.548	1.823
	Job_Category	-1.012	.315	-.260	-3.209	.002	-.135	-.258	-.235	.813	1.229
	Higher_Ed_Category	.460	.625	.056	.736	.463	.020	.061	.054	.924	1.082
	Flexi	-.221	.208	-.089	-1.060	.291	-.036	-.088	-.078	.762	1.313
	Leave	-.401	.207	-.167	-1.939	.054	-.168	-.159	-.142	.721	1.387
	Dependent	.855	.640	.121	1.337	.183	.107	.110	.098	.653	1.532
	Religiosity	-.615	.446	-.113	-1.379	.170	-.056	-.114	-.101	.802	1.247
Tot_FSSB	.111	.034	.255	3.268	.001	.304	.262	.239	.880	1.137	

a. Dependent Variable: Tot_OC

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF	
1	(Constant)	13.933	1.045		13.331	.000					
	Gender	-.322	.264	-.099	-1.217	.226	-.065	-.099	-.095	.911	1.097
	Religion	.111	.127	.072	.875	.383	.120	.071	.068	.892	1.122
	Age	.113	.158	.067	.713	.477	.134	.058	.056	.684	1.463
	Marital_Status	-.868	.350	-.223	-2.484	.014	-.131	-.199	-.194	.759	1.318
	Paid_Help	-.094	.325	-.024	-.290	.772	-.013	-.024	-.023	.907	1.103
	Children_Number	.240	.138	.174	1.740	.084	.116	.141	.136	.605	1.652
	Job_Category	-.209	.146	-.115	-1.431	.155	-.081	-.116	-.112	.939	1.065
	Higher_Ed_Category	.254	.307	.066	.825	.411	.054	.067	.064	.951	1.052
2	(Constant)	11.756	1.423		8.259	.000					
	Gender	-.133	.266	-.041	-.499	.618	-.065	-.041	-.038	.855	1.170
	Religion	.102	.127	.066	.799	.426	.120	.066	.061	.832	1.202
	Age	.039	.158	.023	.245	.807	.134	.020	.019	.646	1.548
	Marital_Status	-.728	.366	-.186	-1.989	.049	-.131	-.163	-.151	.655	1.527
	Paid_Help	-.027	.328	-.007	-.083	.934	-.013	-.007	-.006	.843	1.187
	Children_Number	.192	.141	.139	1.361	.176	.116	.112	.103	.548	1.823
	Job_Category	-.273	.153	-.150	-1.786	.076	-.081	-.147	-.136	.813	1.229
	Higher_Ed_Category	.281	.303	.073	.928	.355	.054	.077	.070	.924	1.082
	Flexi	-.035	.101	-.030	-.344	.732	.021	-.029	-.026	.762	1.313
	Leave	-.074	.100	-.066	-.742	.459	-.083	-.062	-.056	.721	1.387
	Dependent	.382	.310	.116	1.232	.220	.045	.102	.093	.653	1.532
	Religiosity	-.330	.216	-.129	-1.525	.129	-.109	-.126	-.116	.802	1.247
Tot_FSSB	.049	.017	.239	2.951	.004	.296	.238	.224	.880	1.137	

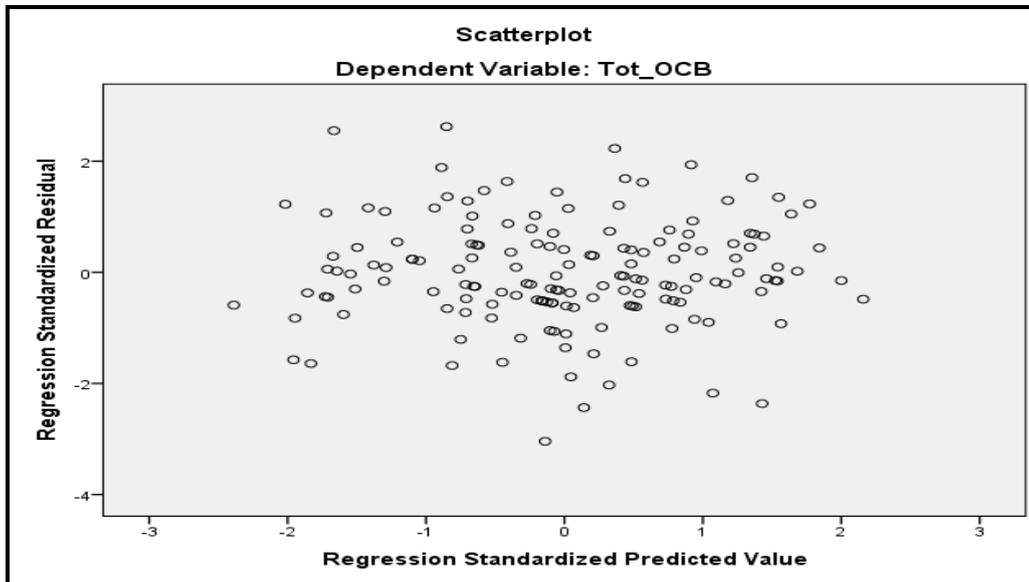
a. Dependent Variable: Tot_JS

Coefficients^a

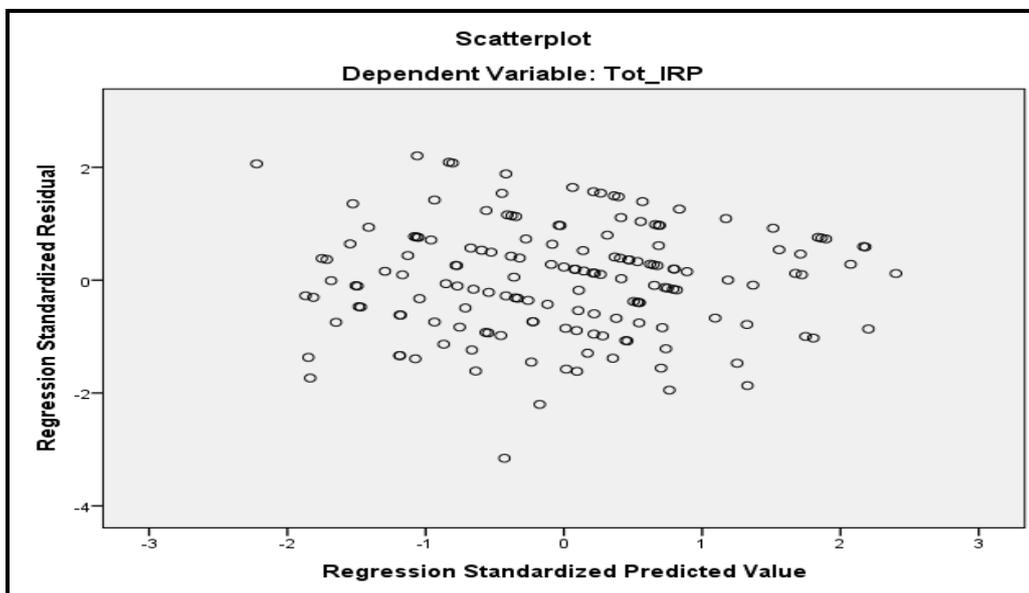
Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Correlations			Collinearity Statistics		
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF	
1	(Constant)	6.845	2.332		2.935	.004					
	Gender	.820	.590	.106	1.390	.167	.099	.113	.102	.911	1.097
	Religion	-.437	.282	-.120	-1.550	.123	-.181	-.126	-.113	.892	1.122
	Age	-.900	.352	-.226	-2.554	.012	-.192	-.204	-.187	.684	1.463
	Marital_Status	2.767	.780	.298	3.548	.001	.271	.278	.259	.759	1.318
	Paid_Help	1.806	.725	.191	2.490	.014	.189	.199	.182	.907	1.103
	Children_Number	.011	.308	.003	.036	.971	.029	.003	.003	.605	1.652
	Job_Category	-.187	.326	-.043	-.573	.568	-.078	-.047	-.042	.939	1.065
	Higher_Ed_Category	.676	.685	.074	.986	.326	.025	.080	.072	.951	1.052
	(Constant)	10.267	3.193		3.215	.002					
2	Gender	.484	.596	.063	.813	.418	.099	.067	.058	.855	1.170
	Religion	-.338	.286	-.093	-1.184	.239	-.181	-.098	-.085	.832	1.202
	Age	-.686	.354	-.172	-1.936	.055	-.192	-.159	-.138	.646	1.548
	Marital_Status	2.239	.821	.241	2.729	.007	.271	.221	.195	.655	1.527
	Paid_Help	1.397	.736	.148	1.899	.060	.189	.156	.136	.843	1.187
	Children_Number	-.079	.317	-.024	-.251	.802	.029	-.021	-.018	.548	1.823
	Job_Category	.132	.343	.031	.386	.700	-.078	.032	.028	.813	1.229
	Higher_Ed_Category	.455	.680	.050	.669	.505	.025	.055	.048	.924	1.082
	Flexi	.516	.226	.187	2.281	.024	.250	.186	.163	.762	1.313
	Leave	.166	.225	.062	.738	.461	.256	.061	.053	.721	1.387
Dependent	.271	.696	.034	.389	.698	.185	.032	.028	.653	1.532	
Religiosity	.219	.485	.036	.451	.653	.163	.037	.032	.802	1.247	
Tot_FSSB	-.084	.037	-.173	-2.265	.025	-.210	-.185	-.162	.880	1.137	

a. Dependent Variable: Tot_WFC

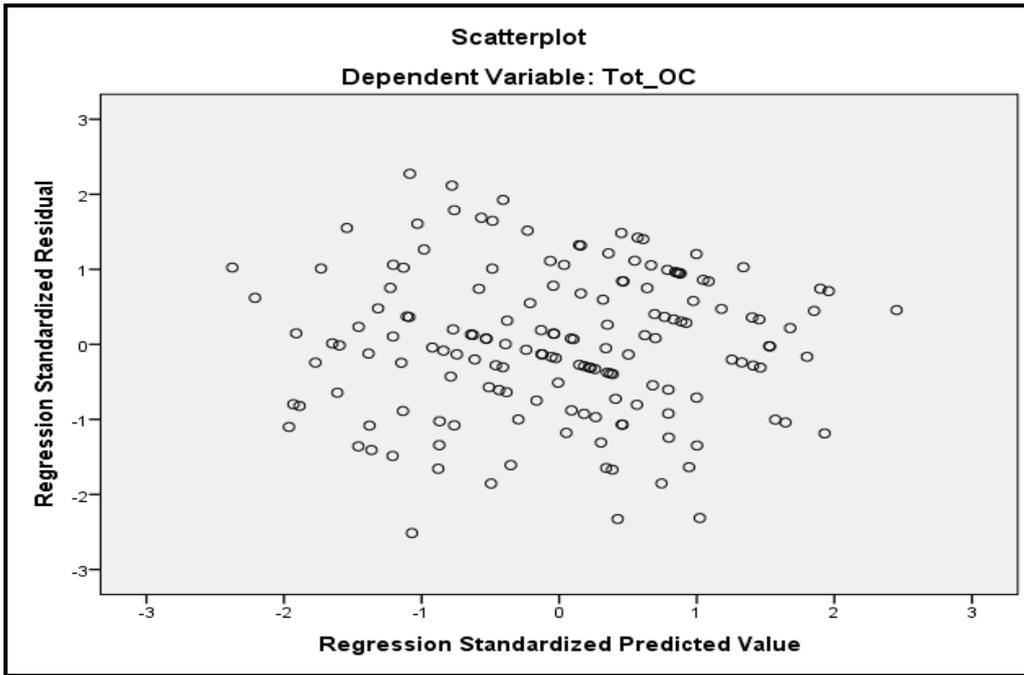
Appendix 19: Scatterplots for Homoscedasticity Test



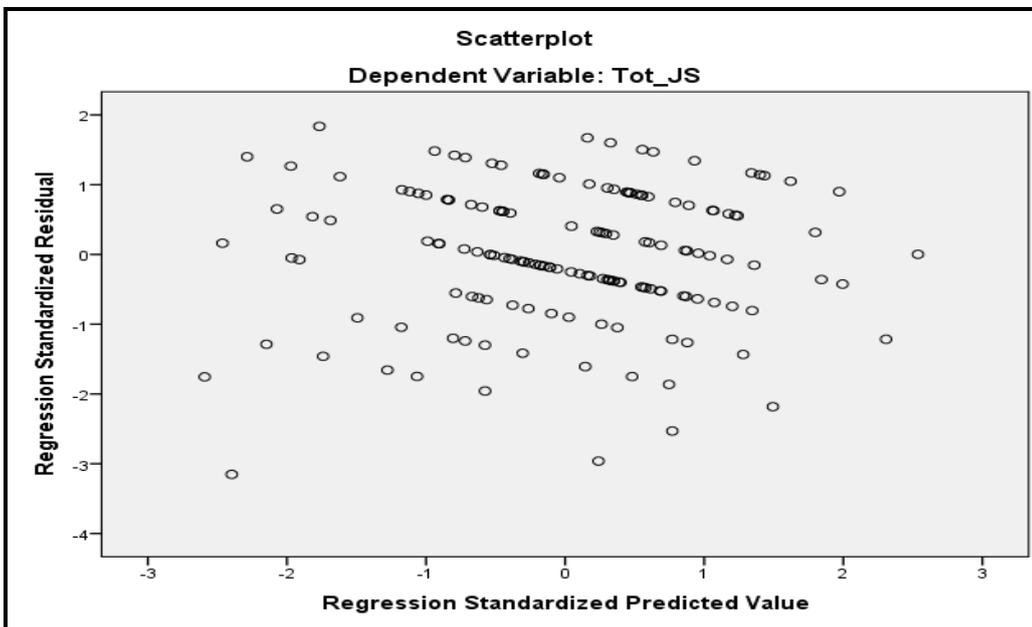
Scatterplot of the Standardized Residuals
with Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCB) as the Dependent Variable



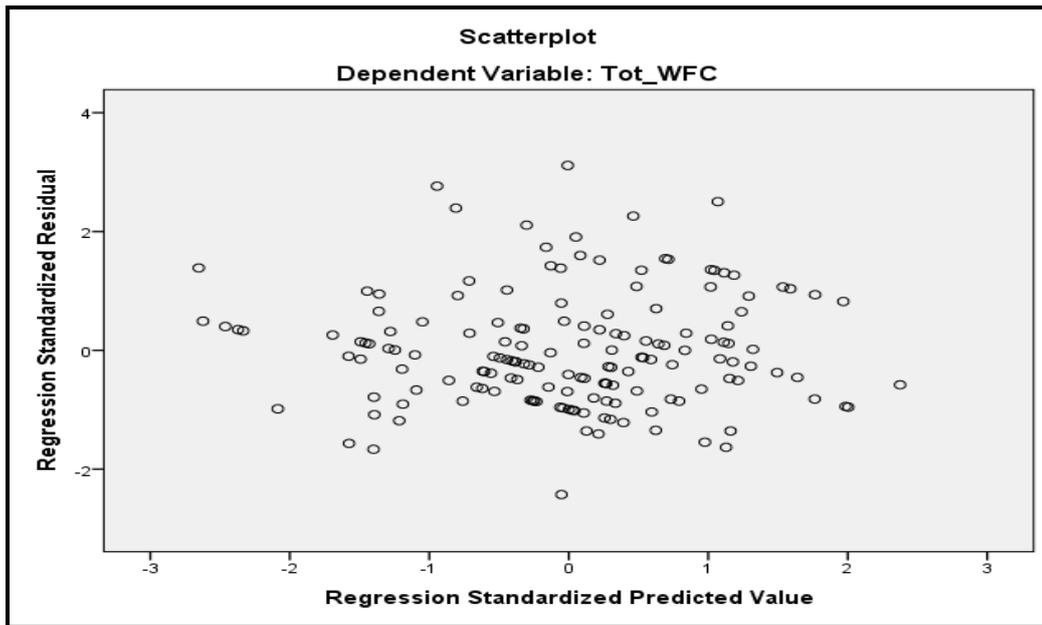
Scatterplot of the Standardized Residuals with In-Role Performance (IRP)
as the Dependent Variable



Scatterplot of the Standardized Residuals with Organisational Commitment as the Dependent Variable



Scatterplot of the Standardized Residuals with Job Satisfaction as the Dependent Variable



Scatterplot of the Standardized Residuals with Work Family Conflict as Dependent Variable