

Family-supportive organisational culture, work–family balance satisfaction and government effectiveness: Evidence from four countries

Mireia L. Heras¹  | Yasin Rofcanin^{2,3}  | Pablo I. Escribano⁴ | Sowon Kim⁵ | Michael C. J. Mayer²

¹IESE Business School, Universidad de Navarra, Barcelona, Spain

²School of Management, University of Bath, Bath, UK

³Department of Management, Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Istanbul Bogazici University, Istanbul, Turkey

⁴Escuela de Negocios, Universidad Adolfo Ibáñez, Santiago, Chile

⁵Ecole hôtelière de Lausanne, HES-SO, University of Applied Sciences Western Switzerland, Lausanne, Switzerland

Correspondence

Yasin Rofcanin, School of Management, University of Bath, Claverton Down Rd, Combe Down, Bath BA2 7AY, UK.
Email: y.rofcanin@bath.ac.uk

Abstract

This study examines the extent to which perceptions of family-friendly organisational culture relate to employees' satisfaction with work–family balance (SATWFB) and how this, in turn, associates with their turnover intentions (TIs). Furthermore, we explore the extent to which employee experiences of different levels of government effectiveness (GE; high, medium and low) moderate these associations. Drawing on the work–home resources (W-HR) model, we test our hypotheses with a sample of 1185 employees drawn from countries with substantially different levels of GE—Nigeria, the Philippines, Guatemala and Spain. Our results show that employees' perceptions of SATWFB mediate the relationship between the two dimensions of family-friendly organisational culture and TIs of employees. This mediation is weaker for countries where employees experience high GE. Our findings contribute to research on the drivers of work–family balance satisfaction from a cultural and organisational perspective. We expand this line of research by introducing a new resource: GE. Our focus on four

Abbreviations: GE, government effectiveness; SATWFB, satisfaction with work–family balance; TI, turnover intentions; W-HR, work-home resource.

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different national contexts also strengthens the comparative work–family balance literature.

KEYWORDS

cross-national comparison, family-supportive work environment, government effectiveness, satisfaction with work–family balance, turnover intention

Practitioner notes

What is currently known?

1. Work conflict and enrichment relate to turnover intentions (TIs)
2. Family-supportive culture leads to work engagement
3. National culture is key for driving work–family balance

What this paper adds?

1. Work–family balance satisfaction is key to reduce TIs
2. Government effectiveness (GE) is a key moderator for work–family balance
3. Family supportive organisational culture drives work-family balance satisfaction

Study findings for practitioners

1. Time demands of organisational culture matters
2. Organisations should consider career consequences of work–family supportiveness
3. National level GE needs to be aligned with company supportiveness

1 | INTRODUCTION

The nature of work is changing. Developments such as the movement towards a 24/7 economy and the increasing role of technology are causing conflict between work and family life (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014; Griggs, Casper, & Eby, 2013). In response to the potential negative consequences of such inter-role conflict, research is increasingly focusing on work–family balance, which refers to an employee's overall appreciation and evaluation of the cohesion between work and family life (Valcour, 2007; Vieira, Matias, Lopez, & Matos, 2018). Drawing on this body of research, the main goal of this study is to explore how employees' perceptions of the availability of organisational- and country-level resources impact on the cohesion between work and family and shape their intention to leave their organisation.

We account for the role of family-supportive environments by considering the individual perceptions of the extent to which an organisation is characterised by work family-friendly culture (WFFC; Rofcanin, Heras, Escibano, & Stanko, 2019; Valcour, Ollier-Malaterre, Matz-Costa, Pitt-Catsouphes, & Brown, 2011). Perceptions of WFFC include two elements: demonstrating career support and enabling employees to work with flexible work schedules. We propose that work environments offering a family-friendly culture are likely to provide resources that make employees feel valued and less stressed. This, in turn, leads to greater work–family balance satisfaction. Furthermore, we expect work–family balance satisfaction to reduce employees' intention to leave their

organisation. Remaining with the organisation will allow them to accrue more resources as they continue to benefit from career support and flexible work schedules. We draw on the work-home resources (W-HR) model—which posits that enrichment between work and family domains is achieved through the accumulation of personal resources—to support our hypotheses.

Our study offers a number of contributions to the literature. First, it reveals a nuanced picture of the antecedents and consequences of employee perceptions of work-family balance satisfaction. This addresses concerns that have only recently started to garner research attention (Vieira et al., 2018; Wayne, Butts, Casper, & Allen, 2017). In response to calls to steer away from a mere positive (i.e., enrichment focused) or negative (i.e., conflict orientated) perspective on the work-family relationship (Greenhaus, Ziegert, & Allen, 2012; Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007; Jones, Burke, & Westman, 2006), it disentangles WFFC into its two dimensions of career support and time demands. This allows for a differentiated consideration of the resources needed to improve employee work-family balance satisfaction, a significant driver of employee turnover.

Individual employee perceptions are also affected by the national institutional context in which they are located. Previous research has established that institutional factors shape not only economic activity and performance but also societal and individual level well-being (Ault, 2016; Dixit, 2009; Fritsch, Sorgner, & Wyrwich, 2019; Ngobo & Fouda, 2012; North, 1994). From the perspective of the W-HR model, institutional contexts provide the macro resources which interact with organisational factors to influence employees' perceptions of work-family balance satisfaction and its impact on turnover intentions (TIs; Ferguson, Carlson, Zivnuska, & Whitten, 2012; Mauno, Kinnunen, & Feldt, 2012).

In this study, we focus specifically on government effectiveness (GE) which is an important element of the national institutional environment (Ando & Paik, 2013) and a central aspect of government quality (Porcher, 2019). We use an established indicator of GE that is based on the perceptions of the quality of public and civil services, the effectiveness of policy implementation and the commitment of governments to keep these services intact (Kaufmann, Kraay, & Mastruzzi, 2011; La Porta, Lopez-de-Silanes, Pop-Eleches, & Shleifer, 2004). GE has been linked to a wide range of socio-economic outcomes, as well as to subjective individual level characteristics (Holmberg, Rothstein, & Nasiritousi, 2009). Notably, it has been shown to shape employee perceptions positively and to have a desirable impact on employment outcomes and social welfare more generally (Chong & Calderon, 2000; Davis, 2016; Di Cataldo & Rodriguez-Pose, 2017; Pereira, Temouri, Patnaik, & Mellahi, 2020). We argue that the positive impact of a WFFC on work-family balance satisfaction and reduced TIs will be greater for employees located in countries where perceptions of GE are high. Conceptually, our arguments draw on the tenet of the W-HR model that macro resources available to individual employees facilitate the transfer of resources between work and home domains (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). Empirically, we focus on four countries characterised by different perceptions of GE: Nigeria, the Philippines, Guatemala and Spain.¹

The second contribution of our study thus addresses the lack of theoretical and empirical research into the role contextual factors play in shaping individual level work-family phenomena (Chong & Calderon, 2000; Davis, 2016). We do so by taking account of perceptions of the context in which work and family domains are set, specifically the role of institutional resources associated with the national context in which individuals are located (Bosch, Heras, Russo, Rofcanin, & Grau, 2018). Despite the potential significance of such contextual factors (Heras, Trefalt, & Escribano, 2015) and their impact on individual perceptions, cross-national comparisons have not only been rare but have typically been limited to two countries (Zhang, Gowan, & Treviño, 2014), one of which often Anglo-Saxon and the other Asian (Yang, Chen, Choi, & Zhou, 2000). We broaden the empirical scope by exploring the associations across four countries, Nigeria, the Philippines, Guatemala and Spain. These countries exhibit substantial variance of employees' experiences of GE, the rule of law and institutional structures. Our findings reveal how perceptions of macro and organisational resources interact to influence work-family balance satisfaction and TIs of employees. We thereby offer one of the first empirical investigations to test the cross-level implications of the W-HR model (Hobfoll, Halbesleben, Neveu, & Westman, 2018). Figure 1 represents our conceptual model. We develop our hypotheses in the next sections.

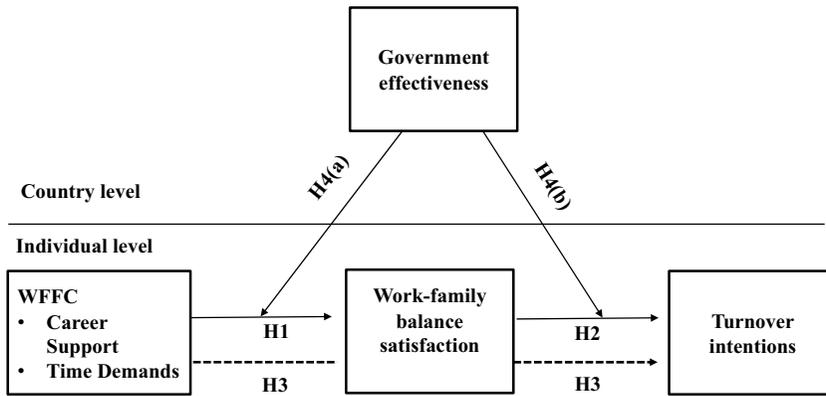


FIGURE 1 Hypothesised model. WFFC, work family-friendly culture

2 | THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

2.1 | The W-HR model

Our conceptual model is based on the W-HR model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). This model describes the mechanisms and boundary conditions through which resources gained in one domain (work or family) relate to effective functioning in both the same and the other domain. Personal resources are thereby seen as the linchpins that explain how and why resources at work are accumulated, replenished and transferred to the family domain. Furthermore, the model elucidates macro resources which serve as macro level boundary conditions that surround and impact on the work–family interface, including general wealth conditions, public policies, labour unions, cultural norms about participation in work and social equality.

2.2 | Associations between family-supportive work environments and TIs: The mediating role of work–family balance satisfaction

As noted above, the W-HR model establishes personal resources such as motivation, positive affect and energy, as key mechanisms explaining enrichment between the domains of work and family (Bakker, ten Brummelhuis, Prins, & Van der Heijden, 2011). Building on this logic, we argue that a supportive work–family climate is likely to generate personal resources that enhance employees' satisfaction with their work–family balance (SATWFB). Previous research on the work–family interface has been dominated by either a conflict or enrichment perspective and has emphasised either the costs or benefits of fulfilling multiple roles (Bianchi & Milkie, 2010). However, a growing body of research has started to take a more comprehensive view of the work–family interface by considering both the benefits as well as costs (Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivnuska, 2009; Vieira et al., 2018; Voydanoff, 2005). This work culminates in the concept of work–family balance. To contribute to these debates, we focus on employees' perceptions of work–family balance satisfaction, which is defined as a subjective and global evaluation of the harmony and balance of their work–life situation (Voydanoff, 2005).

Perceptions of supportive work–family culture are shaped by two elements: time demands and career support. Time demands represent quantitative (e.g., flexibility to complete tasks either at home or at work) or cognitive features of a job (e.g., encouragement to prioritise work over home; de Lange, Taris, Kompier, Houtman, & Bongers, 2003). In a work climate where employees are under no time pressure to complete their tasks and feel encouraged to prioritise their family, they are more likely to feel energised and motivated to work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014).

The lack of pressure to prioritise work over family or work to tight schedules in the office signals a flexible work climate that is supportive of family life and offers access to family-supportive resources. In such contexts, employees have the freedom and discretion to manage the time demands their jobs impose on them. They are, therefore, less likely to feel depleted of their personal resources such as time, energy, positive affect and emotions (Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010).

A second element of the perceptions of work–family culture is career support. Employees working in such environments perceive that their career development is supported and valued as they engage with their family lives. They are encouraged to participate in family life freely, without fearing negative consequences for their career (Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999). Employees are likely to feel that they can access resources at work, including structural support (e.g., work is restructured so they can work flexibly), role modelling by their supervisors (e.g., demonstrating career paths for employees working flexibly) and emotional support. Access to such resources leaves employees' feeling less frustrated and worried about career progress. Receiving instrumental, cognitive and relational support from the work environment (Hammer, Kossek, Yragui, Bodner, & Hanson, 2009), these employees are likely to feel satisfied with the way they are able to divide responsibilities between their work and family lives. In the context of the W-HR model, these arguments suggest a family-supportive environment allows employees to accumulate personal resources which lead to greater work–family balance satisfaction. These arguments lead us to offer our first hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1 *Time demands and career support dimensions of WFFC are positively associated with employees' satisfaction with their work–family balance.*

As emphasised above, the W-HR model identifies key personal resources that explain enrichment between the work and family domains. Employees who enjoy a balance between work and family are likely to feel physically and psychologically healthy and vigorous. They are likely to be optimistic, develop a sense of self-efficacy and be mentally resilient (Vieira et al., 2018). These arguments are in line with the findings of a review study on work–family balance which underscores that those who are satisfied with their work–family balance can effectively allocate resources between work and family and experience a sense of independence and positive spillover (Wayne et al., 2017). A common conceptual thread underpinning this literature is the view that resources accumulated in one domain are likely to impact expectations and experiences in another domain (Demerouti & Geurts, 2004; Lambert, 1990). Employees equipped with physical (sleep, vigour, physical energy), psychological (focus, attention, optimism) and affective (positive mood, gratefulness and empathy) resources emanating from a sense of harmony and cohesion between work and family are more likely to stay in their organisation in order to accumulate further resources. While previous research has demonstrated that work–family conflict and work–family enrichment impact on TIs (Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011; McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010), the literature has not considered how work–family balance satisfaction influences employees' TI. Drawing on the argument that physical, psychological and affective resources are the linchpins that transform and accumulate gains between work and home domains we offer our second hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2 *Employees' satisfaction with their work–family balance is negatively associated with their turnover intentions.*

Furthermore, career support and time demands aspects of WFFC are indirectly and negatively associated with employees' turnover intentions through their influence on work–family balance satisfaction. This relationship is suggested by the gain spiral principle of the W-HR model (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). This principle proposes that people endowed with resources are more able to gain further resources. Initial resource gain leads to the accumulation of further resources, thus creating gain spirals. The W-HR model suggests that a gain spiral can also occur between work and home domains. Applying this logic to our study, we suggest that employees who benefit

from career support and flexible working hours are more likely to feel happy and satisfied with the interface of their work–family life. These employees are likely to feel valued, cared for, and less stressed when it comes to juggling the demands of work–life. Because they accrue valuable personal resources which are associated with enhanced work–family balance satisfaction, these employees generate a pool of resources which they can draw on to acquire further resources.

To illustrate, imagine an employee who works in a work environment that does not prioritise work over family but provides mentoring and resources to enhance one's career and offers flexible work hours. The value of family life may, for example, be recognised through opportunities to work from home. Leave of absence may be taken without jeopardising one's career prospects. In such a context, the employee is likely to feel valued, less stressed, and work with full attention and focus. Feeling happy and satisfied with the balance between work and family, the employee is likely to stay in the organisation as this allows more resources to be gained (e.g., training, development and career support). Research on the gain spiral of resources (e.g., Heras, Rofcanin, Bal, & Stollberger, 2017; Rofcanin, Heras, & Bakker, 2017; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Heuven, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2008) offers indirect support to these arguments. Resource gains, either in work or at home, lead to the acquisition of other resources, which ultimately creates a gain cycle. Our third hypothesis, therefore, is:

Hypothesis 3 *Time demands and career support dimensions of WFFC are indirectly associated with employees' turnover intention via their influence on employees' work–family balance satisfaction.*

2.3 | The moderating role of GE

We expand our model by considering the experiences and perceptions of employees located in national contexts characterised by different levels of perceived GE (high, medium and low). We integrate these into our model by considering the moderating role of differences in individual perceptions of GE² on our proposed mediation hypotheses. GE is captured in an index initiated and developed by the World Bank. It measures the perceptions of the quality of public services, civil services, policy formulation, policy implementation and the commitment of the government to realise these services at the strategic level. The index is developed using a large number of variables (47) which measure a wide range of factors including but not limited to the quality of bureaucracy, distribution infrastructure of goods and services for the public use, business environment and civil service integrity (Kaufmann et al., 2011).

According to the W-HR model, the work–family interface can be conceptualised as a macro-system, mapping the interactions between perceptions of individual and macro resources surrounding the individual (Bronfenbrenner & Ceci, 1994). This conceptualisation is useful because individuals are nested in social contexts. How individual employees perceive macro resources (e.g., cultural values, climate, economic prosperity and social norms) influences work–family related resources which are managed and implemented in organisations (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). In line with the W-HR model, we conceptualise perceived GE as a macro resource that shapes the associations among our focal variables.

We propose that in countries where employees perceive high levels of GE (vs. medium and low) the positive association between employee perceptions of career support and time demands on the one hand and work–family balance satisfaction on the other will be stronger. According to the W-HR model, macro resources such as general wealth conditions, public policies, presence of labour unions, cultural values and social equality act as facilitators of the work–family interface (ten Brummelhuis & Bakker, 2012). The core tenet of this argument is that prosperous and developed institutional systems and associated cultural values provide employees with additional resources that they can draw on if they face stressful and unexpected conditions such as loss of a job or death of a significant person (Lambert, 1990). In line with this logic, we argue that in countries characterised by high GE, the positive association between WFFC and work–family balance satisfaction will be stronger. To illustrate,

imagine a country with high institutional effectiveness in which public school and transportation systems are well developed and mechanisms to oppose illegal and discriminatory practices exist (Kaufmann et al., 2011). In such a country, where government is perceived to be highly effective, employees are more likely to make use of the resources that help them to manage and balance their work and family lives. Employees in such a country are also more likely to make use of career support and flexible schedules in order to dedicate time to their family and live a balanced life. Even if flexible working or family support mechanisms do not exist in an organisation, belief in GE will make it more likely that they will pursue their rights in order to achieve greater harmony between work and family (La Porta et al., 2004). Furthermore, as norms and cultural values are more likely to signal that a balance between work and family life is valued, employees are more likely to stay in their organisations to accumulate resources. This suggests that in countries with high (vs. medium and low) GE the negative association between work–family balance satisfaction and TIs of employees will be weaker. Indeed, perceptions of family-supportive resources of organisations and macro resources of the country are likely to create a synergic effect, feeding off one other to foster greater work–family balance satisfaction and reduced TIs (Rofcanin, De Jong, Heras, & Sowon, 2018).

In contrast, in countries where GE is perceived to be medium or low, the positive association between employee perceptions of career support and time demands of WFFC and work–family balance satisfaction will be weaker. The negative association between employee perceptions of work–family balance satisfaction and TIs will, however, be stronger. As these countries lack institutional effectiveness (Kaufmann et al., 2011; La Porta et al., 2004), employees may lack access to support systems that facilitate work–family integration. They may become overworked and suffer negative consequences for their family life. Furthermore, insufficient infrastructure (e.g., a lack of childcare facilities) and ineffective public transportation (e.g., leading to time lost in traffic) make it challenging for employees to spend quality time with their significant others, leading to reduced work–family satisfaction. Lacking necessary resources for career development and working flexibly, these employees are more likely to look for opportunities in other organisations in order to improve their working conditions and achieve better work–family cohesion. As highlighted in recent studies (Bosch et al., 2018; Heras et al., 2015), perceptions of the national context are of great importance and have been shown to drive the effectiveness of family-supportive behaviours and policies (Deneulin, 2011). Extending this body of research and drawing on the arguments above, we offer our final hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4(a) *In countries where employees experience higher (vs. lower) GE, the associations between WFFCs (career support and time demands) and work–family balance satisfaction are stronger (vs. weaker).*

Hypothesis 4(b) *In countries where employees experience higher (vs. lower) GE, the associations between work–family balance satisfaction and turnover is weaker (vs. stronger).*

3 | METHODOLOGY

3.1 | Participants and procedure

To test our hypotheses, we collected survey data in Nigeria, the Philippines, Guatemala and Spain through the involvement of a leading European Business School. These four countries represent a wide spectrum of GE measured by the World Bank based on surveys of (a) households and firms, (b) Non-Governmental organizations (NGOs), (c) commercial business information providers and (d) public sector organisations. The data used to create the GE measure are rescaled and combined to create six aggregate indicators using unobserved components model. The values of GE range from -2.5 representing very poor GE to 2.5 representing the highest possible score. The four countries in our sample score in different quartiles of the ranking, and their margins of error do not overlap, making comparisons across countries meaningful (Kaufman, Kraay, & Mastruzzi, 2011).

We administered our survey in English (in the Philippines and Nigeria) and in Spanish (in Spain and Guatemala). To preserve the meaning of the items, different bilingual researchers translated and back translated from English to and from Spanish. Country collaborators ensured conceptual equivalence (Harzing, Reiche, & Pudelko, 2013). Each country collaborator invited business schools' executive alumni to be part of our study. This sampling procedure ensured the inclusion of a broad range of industries, organisations and jobs as well as data comparable in terms of socio-economic status. Collaborators invited a total of 3054 individuals to participate in the study. The final sample contains 1185 (38% response rate) responses. Table 1 (upper part) reports the demographic composition for each sample.

3.2 | Measures

All survey data used in our study are self-reported using the 7-point Likert scale, with 1 corresponding to 'strongly disagree' and 7 to 'strongly agree'. We modified scales to test our hypotheses, retaining items that are 'measurement invariant' across countries. Here we report the original scales and their reliabilities before testing for measurement invariance.

3.2.1 | Independent variables

Work family-friendly culture

We measured WFFC career consequences (WFFC-C) and WFCC hours (WFCC-H) using, respectively, five and four items from the scale developed by Thompson et al. (1999). We reversed all items in order to capture family-supportive work cultures in the positive direction (see: Valcour et al., 2011 for a suggestion and example). The reliability of the WFFC-C sub-scale was 0.77, and it was 0.86 for the WFCC-H sub-scale. An example of an item for the WFFC-C sub-scale is: 'Many employees are resentful when women in this organisation take extended leave to care for newborn or adopted children'. An example for the WFCC-H sub-scale is: 'Employees are often expected to take work home at night and/or on weekends'.

3.2.2 | Dependent variables

Satisfaction with work-family balance

We measured SATWFB using five items from Valcour (2007). The reliability for the five items was 0.95. An example item is: 'I am happy with the way I divide my attention between work and home'.

Turnover intentions

We measured TIs using three items from O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell (1991), which reported a reliability of 0.85. An example item is: 'I would prefer another more ideal job than the one I have now'.

3.2.3 | Control variables

We included a series of control variables that correlate simultaneously with our independent and our dependent variables. These are: gender (1 = female), age (in years), relationship status (1 = spouse/stable partner), parental status (number of children) and level of work-family policies. To measure work-family policies, we listed 16 items that have been used in the work-family literature and asked respondents to indicate whether they had access to each (1 = yes). We used the sum total of those reported by each respondent (please refer to the Appendix A1 for these items).

TABLE 1 Sample size, demographic composition of samples and mean for the main variables per country

		Guatemala	Nigeria	Philippines	Spain	Total
Demographics (count)		(N = 425)	(N = 258)	(N = 299)	(N = 203)	(N = 1185)
Gender	Male	226	127	160	92	605
	Female	199	131	139	111	580
Marital status	Married or cohabiting	248	189	187	170	794
	Single	177	69	112	33	391
Parental status	Parent	253	159	170	129	711
	Non-parent	172	99	129	74	474
Constructs (mean)						
Family supportive supervision		4.78	4.42	5.11	4.37	4.71
Work family culture—Time		4.43	4.39	4.88	5.05	4.64
Work family culture—Career		4.76	4.95	5.17	4.39	4.84
Satisfaction work–family balance		5.07	4.74	5.35	4.48	4.97
Turnover intentions		3.33	3.94	3.16	3.21	3.40

We also controlled for FSSBs. We evaluated employees' FSSBs using seven items from the scale developed by Hammer et al. (2009), which had a reliability of 0.95. An example item is: 'My supervisor makes me feel comfortable talking to him or her about my conflicts between work and non-work'. Our choice of seven items was informed by previous research which used the same items in similar research contexts (e.g., Heras et al., 2015; Rofcanin et al., 2017) and for practical reasons (to reduce potential exhaustion of participants). We selected the two highest-loading items from the corresponding sub-scales to represent emotional, instrumental support, role modelling and used only one item for the creative work–family balance management.

3.2.4 | Perceptions of GE across different countries

Government effectiveness

We obtained data from the World Bank Worldwide Governance Indicators (for the methodology used to calculate the Governance Indicators, see Kaufmann et al., 2011 and for a review of the indicators, see Langbein & Knack, 2010). Nigeria is the country with the lowest GE (−1.080, sigma 0.18), with a percentile rank of 14 among all countries. Guatemala follows (−0.700, sigma 0.20) with a percentile of 28 and the Philippines is third (−0.080, sigma 0.19) with a percentile of 57. The highest score corresponds to Spain (1.030, sigma 0.22) with a percentile of 82. Because of the small number of countries in our sample, we treat country as a multi-categorical variable and use GE scores for ordering countries from high to low (i.e., Spain, Philippines, Guatemala and Nigeria) when conducting and presenting the analysis.

3.3 | Preliminary analysis

To test discriminant validity, we conducted a series of confirmatory factor analyses by pooling all respondents into a single group. Based on common standards of model fit (e.g., Hu & Bentler, 1999), the five-factor model (i.e., WFFC-C, WFFC-H, SATWFB, TI and FSSB) fits the data well ($\chi^2(242) = 1752.67$; $p < 0.001$; The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.07; Comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.93; Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) = 0.92; Standardised

root mean square residual (SRMR) = 0.05) and better than other nested models: (a) items from both WFFC facets and FSSB load onto a single latent factor (χ^2 diff = 3692.40 (7); $p < 0.001$), (b) items from both WFFC facets and SATWFB load onto a single latent factor (χ^2 diff = 3747.18 (7); $p < 0.001$) and (c) items from SATWFB and TI load onto a single latent factor (χ^2 diff = 1618.51 (4); $p < 0.001$). Furthermore, we carried out various robustness checks including (a) configural invariance (i.e., across groups, measurement items reflect the same latent factor) and (b) metric invariance (i.e., latent constructs have the same meaning across groups—captured as the slopes (weak) and intercepts (strong) with which items reflect latent constructs; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). Please refer to Appendix A1 for our detailed results.

We were concerned that the abbreviated scales used, despite being measurement invariant, may not cover the conceptual domain of the constructs measured. Yet, a vast majority of the existing research has used abbreviated scales similar to the ones used in the current study. This holds for our family-supportive environment variables in general (see: Beutell, 2010; Valcour et al., 2011) and for family-supportive supervisor behaviours in particular (see: Hammer et al., 2009). Reliabilities for the abbreviated scales range from 0.62 to 0.93, the correlation with their respective original scales ranges from 0.87 to 0.97 and the correlation between constructs keeps the significance levels reported within the original scale. In short, although the final scales are different from the original ones, results from the pre- and post-measurement invariance scale comparison show no major trade-offs between length, validity and reliability of measures. Table 2 presents descriptive, zero-order correlations and reliability statistics for our variables.

3.4 | Overview of analysis

Data were analysed using a structural equation model with single-indicators as factors, performed using the lavaan package for structural equation modelling (Rosseel, 2012) in R. Throughout our analysis, models were estimated by the maximum likelihood estimator and standard errors were computed based on 5000 bootstrapped samples. Bootstrap estimates were stored in order to create a collection of values for each test score, allowing us to depict the distribution of the test scores and to assess their statistical significance by bias-corrected bootstrapping (MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004). All hypotheses in our study are tested using these collections in order to correct for potential biases that otherwise cannot be handled because of the small number of clusters (i.e., countries) in our sample.

Our analysis accounts for factors that may bias test statistics and their corresponding significance tests. One source of bias is when the data are structured in clusters. Random coefficient modelling (Multi level modelling [MLM]) allows for the estimation of slopes and intercepts for each individual cluster after assuming that clusters are randomly selected from a broader population (Bliese & Hanges, 2004). In the present study, three country-level dummy variables account for potential country-level omitted variables and mean differences across countries, but do not account for clustering. The low within-cluster homogeneity (i.e., ICC (1)) in our study variables (Family supportive supervisor behaviour (FSSB) [0.02], WFFC-C [0.03], WFFC-H [0.02], SATWFB [0.04] and TI [0.02]) implies that for our sample the difference between random-coefficient models and Ordinary least square (OLS) in standard error estimates is trivial. In line with previous cross-national research (e.g., Reiche et al., 2014), we include three dummy variables to account for country-level effects in the first part of our analysis (Hypotheses 1–3) and all variables were standardised to avoid convergence issues.

Hypotheses 1–3 were tested using a mediated model that we use as a baseline. In this baseline model, we pooled all respondents into a single group and included our key variables of interest, control variables and country-level fixed effects. Results of this set of regressions define the baseline mechanisms that connect independent variables to TI in our sample. To test Hypothesis 3 (i.e., the indirect relationships via SATWFB balance), we computed test coefficients based on the product-of-coefficient approach. This approach estimates the product of the regression coefficient between the predictor and mediator and the regression coefficient between the mediator and outcome (MacKinnon et al., 2004).

TABLE 2 Mean, standard deviation, correlations and Cronbach's alphas ($n = 1185$)

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Benefits	5.38	3.17	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2 Gender	0.49	0.50	-0.04	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3 Parental status	1.39	1.49	0.03	-0.11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4 Relationship status	0.670	0.47	0.07	-0.18	0.50	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5 Age (years)	39.24	9.87	0.00	-0.06	0.29	0.13	-	-	-	-	-	-
6 Family supportive supervision	4.71	1.78	0.30	-0.06	0.03	-0.01	0.04	(0.85)	-	-	-	-
7 Work family culture—Time	4.64	1.85	0.18	0.03	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.23	(0.70)	-	-	-
8 Work family culture—Career	4.84	1.58	0.12	-0.00	0.02	-0.02	-0.03	0.19	0.35	(0.77)	-	-
9 Satisfaction work-family balance	4.97	1.59	0.22	-0.07	0.09	0.00	0.13	0.33	0.27	0.17	(0.93)	-
10 Turnover intentions	3.40	1.92	-0.27	0.05	-0.13	-0.07	-0.08	-0.37	-0.30	-0.19	-0.30	(0.74)

Values in the diagonal refer to internal reliability (the Cronbach Alpha values).

In the second part of our analysis, we tested the extent to which employees' varying experiences and perceptions of GE qualifies the strength of the mechanisms obtained in the previous part (Hypotheses 1–3). More specifically, we tested the moderating effect of GE (Hypothesis 4) by examining how the direct and the mediated effects vary across countries in which employees experience different levels of GE. In line with current research focused on mediation effects across groups (i.e., Miles et al., 2015; Ogbonnaya, Gahan, & Eib, 2019), we tested the indirect effects of WFFC on TIs simultaneously across the four countries following multiple group moderation analysis.³ In this analysis, secondary data from the World Bank are not applied directly to the model estimation. Instead, we used these data to categorise the countries into four distinct groups (e.g., high, moderate-high, moderate-low and low levels of GE), estimate coefficient freely for each group and integrate findings to assess which mediation paths are both statistically significant and different across groups.

4 | RESULTS

4.1 | Baseline model

4.1.1 | Test of Hypotheses 1–3

Results of the bootstrapped estimates (replications = 5000) of the hypothesised model are summarised in Figure 2. In Hypothesis 1, we hypothesise that time demands and career support dimensions of WFFC are positively associated with employees' satisfaction with their work-family balance. In support of Hypothesis 1, we find that the time demands dimension of WFFC is positively associated with SATWFB ($b = 0.19$; 95% BCa CI = [0.13; 0.25]).

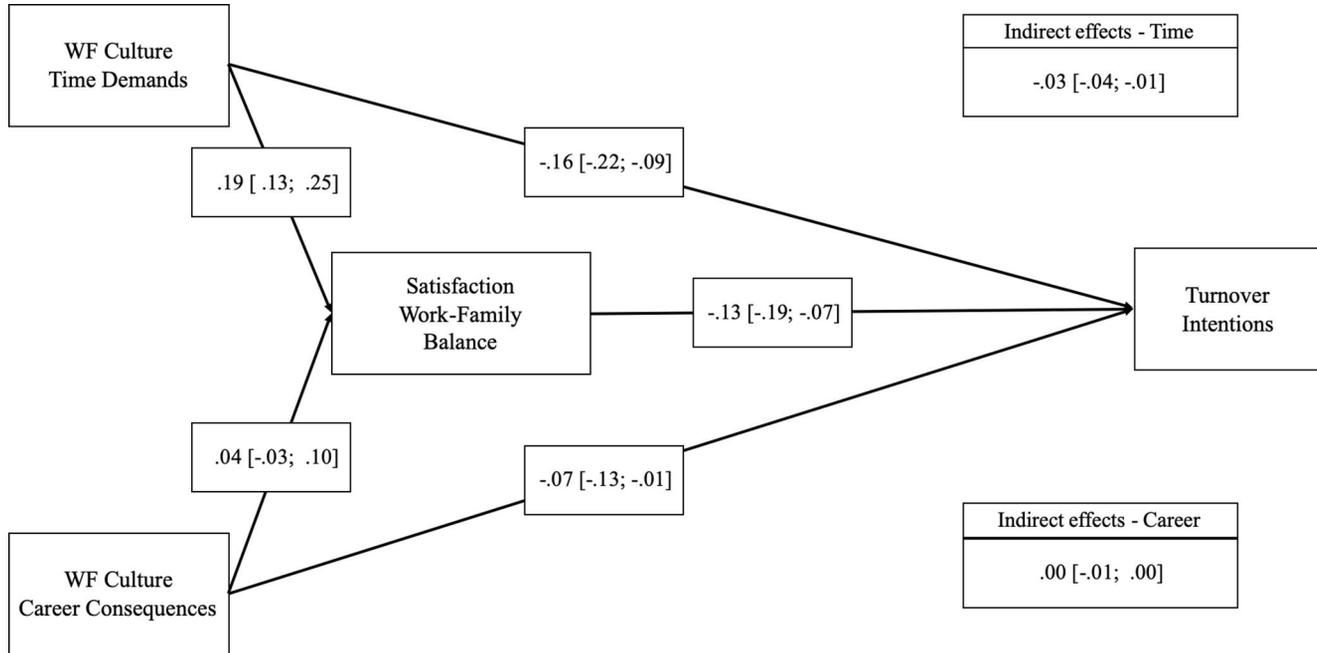


FIGURE 2 Coefficients and 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals for the baseline model (Hypothesis 1-3). Unstandardised coefficients and 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals reported (5000 replications). Controls included but not reported in the figure. To account for country, three dummy variables were included as fixed effects. WF, work-family

Contrary to our expectations, we find that the career support dimension of WFFC ($b = 0.04$; 95% BCa CI = $[-0.03; 0.10]$) is not significantly related to SATWFB. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 is partially supported. Considering the hypothesised negative association between SATWFB and TIs, we find evidence in support of Hypothesis 2. As shown in Figure 2, SATWFB is negatively related to TIs ($b = -0.13$; 95% BCa CI = $[-0.19; -0.07]$).

The results for Hypothesis 3 demonstrate that for the time demands dimension of WFFC (coef = -0.03 ; 95% BCa CI = $[-0.04; -0.01]$) a significant amount of the effects on TI are accounted for by the mediator variable (MacKinnon et al., 2004). However, work–family balance satisfaction does not mediate the effect of the career support dimension of WFFC on TI (coef = 0.00 ; 95% BCa CI = $[-0.01; 0.00]$). Overall, in the mediation model (Hypothesis 3) we find support for the mediating effect of work–family balance satisfaction in the association between WFFC-H and TI, but not for WFFC-C and TI association. Hypothesis 3 is therefore partially supported.

4.2 | Effects of individual perceptions of GE in four countries

4.2.1 | Test of Hypothesis 4

We hypothesised that the strength of the mediated relationships seen in the baseline model between our independent variables and TI will change as a function of employees' varying levels of experiences relating to GE. Figure 3 summarised regression coefficients as well as 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals for each country (Figure 4).

In Hypothesis 4(a), we hypothesised that in countries where employees perceive and experience high (vs. low) GE, the associations between WFFCs (career support and time demands) and work–family balance are stronger (vs. weaker). As seen in Figure 3, across the four countries the relationship between career support and work–family balance satisfaction is not significant. However, the relationship between the time demands facet of WFFC and work–family balance satisfaction is significant for all four countries. Although Spain, the country with the highest GE perceptions exhibits the strongest effect, we do not find any statistical difference across countries (Wald test: score = 3.61; $df = 3$; $p > 0.1$). Therefore, our results do not support Hypothesis 4(a).

In Hypothesis 4(b), we hypothesised that varying experiences and perceptions of GE will moderate the associations between work–family balance satisfaction and TIs such that this association is weaker (vs. stronger) in countries with high (vs. lower) GE perceptions. As Figure 3 shows, the positive effect of work–family balance satisfaction on TIs becomes stronger in countries with higher perceived GE (Spain > Philippines > Guatemala > Nigeria). Among these effects, the negative effect is strongest and most significant in Nigeria (Wald test: score = 7.81; $df = 3$; $p < 0.05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 4(b) is supported.

Overall, of the four countries considered in our study, only Nigeria showed similar effects as the ones reported in our baseline model (Figure 2). The time demands facet of WFFC was positively associated with work–family balance satisfaction ($b = 0.19$; 95% BCa CI = $[0.05; 0.33]$), but the career support facet of WFFC was not significantly associated with work–family balance satisfaction ($b = -0.01$; 95% BCa CI = $[-0.15; 0.12]$). For Nigeria, we found a significant indirect effect of the time demands facet of WFFC on TIs via work–family balance satisfaction (coef = -0.05 ; 95% BCa CI = $[-0.10; -0.01]$).

5 | DISCUSSION

5.1 | Contributions to research on work–family balance and family supportiveness

Responding to calls in recent research, our study steers away from a purely positive (enrichment) or pessimistic (conflict) perspective on the work–family relationship and focuses on the balance between work and family life (Vieria et al., 2018; Wayne et al., 2017). This allows us to make a number of contributions. First, we expand on

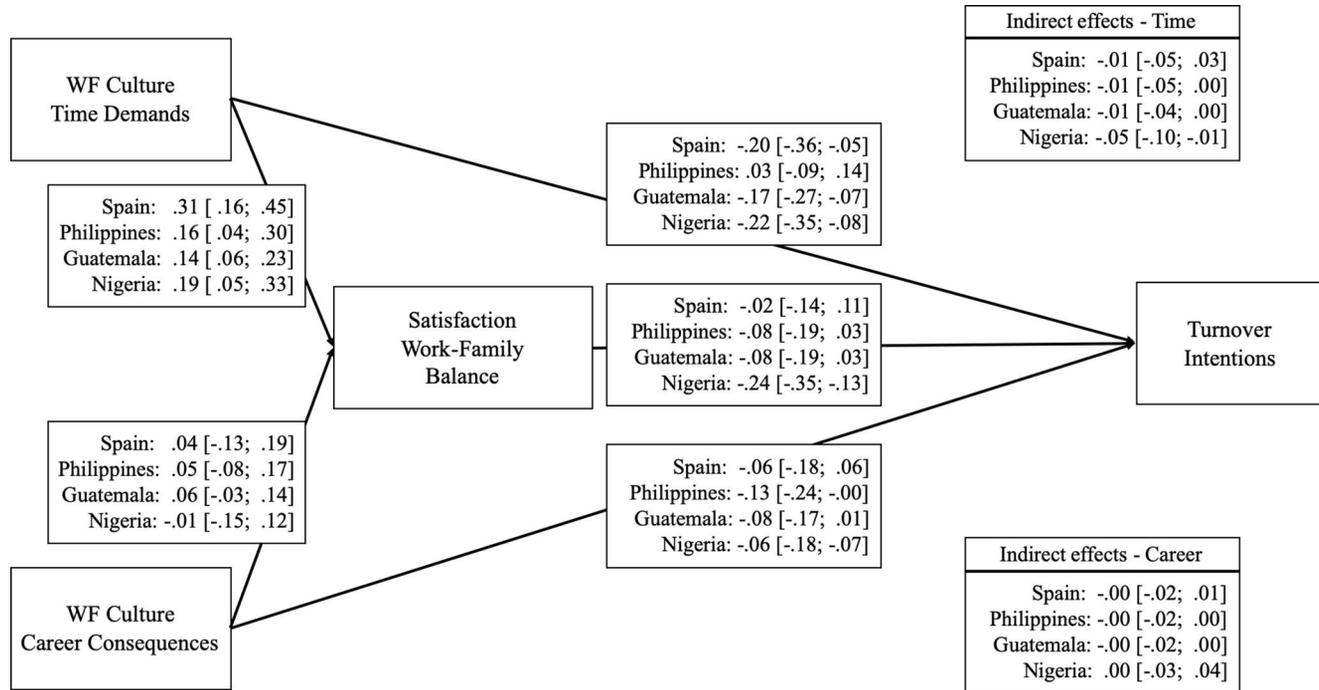


FIGURE 3 Coefficients and 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals for each country (Hypothesis 4–5). Unstandardised coefficients and 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals reported (5000 replications per country). Controls included but not reported in the figure. WF, work-family

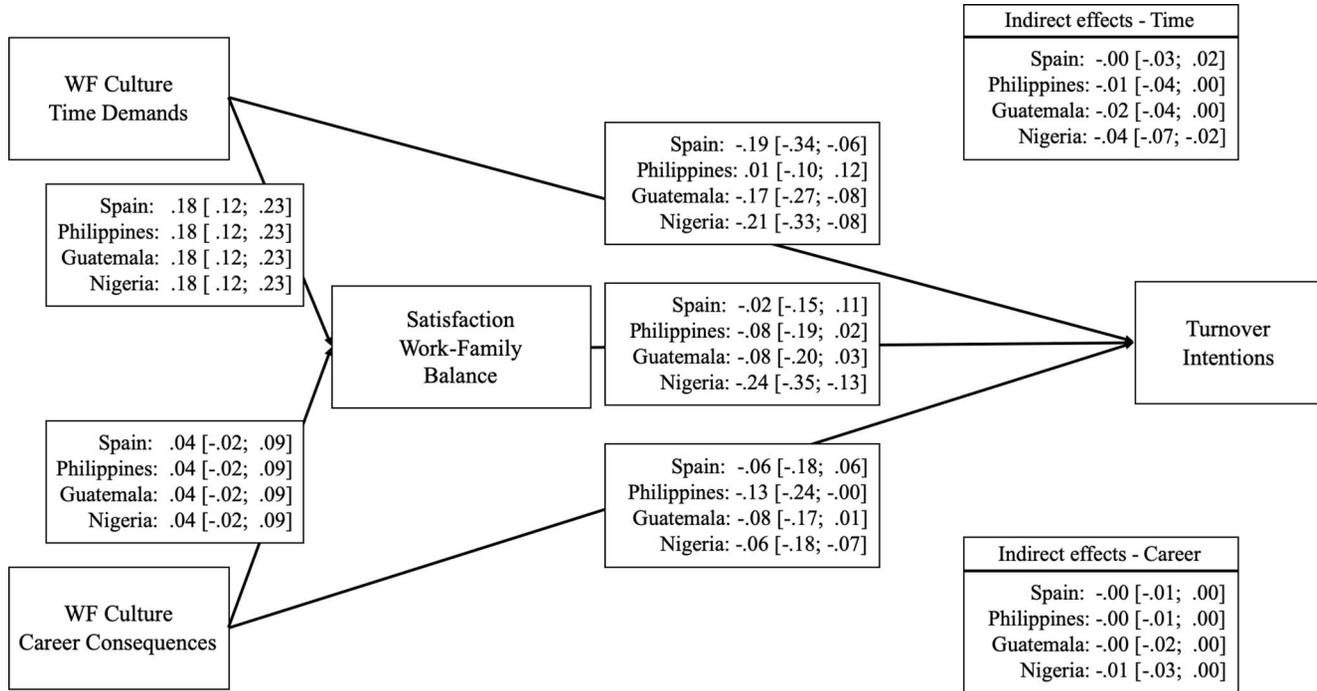


FIGURE 4 Coefficients and 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals for each country–equality constraints for variables involved in Hypothesis 1. Unstandardised coefficients and 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals reported (5000 replications per country). Controls included but not reported in the figure. WF, work-family

earlier work by broadening the understanding of the antecedents and consequences of work–family balance satisfaction.

With a sample of office workers in Germany, Beham and Drobnic (2010), for example, demonstrated that work demands (expectations and job insecurity) were negatively and job resources (job control and social support) were positively associated with work–family balance satisfaction. Grawtch, Maloney, Barber, and Mooshegian (2013) examined the nomological network of work–life balance satisfaction by revealing the role of conflict and enrichment as antecedents while A. Michel et al. (2014) found that participants in a group which received mindfulness training reported higher levels of work–family balance satisfaction compared to participants who did not receive such a training.

Our findings add to this work in a number of ways. We focus on perceived career support and time demands, the two most significant aspects of WFFC, and find that time demands are significantly associated with work–family balance. We then confirm that work–family balance satisfaction is related to TI, an outcome that is not only important for the employee at a personal level but is also relevant to company competitiveness. Our study, furthermore, expands conceptually and empirically on work that has considered the role of the national context. Previous work has demonstrated that national public policies and institutional support in the form of flexible work arrangements (FWAs) increase employees' satisfaction with their work–family balance (Abendroth & den Dulk, 2011). Our study builds on such contributions by demonstrating that GE shapes the relationship between work–family balance satisfaction and TIs. Overall, we add to prior research by studying the antecedents from a WFFC perspective and including TI as a key outcome variable.

Our second contribution to research on work–family balance rests on our consideration of varying perceptions and experiences of GE, which we examine across four countries. GE can be considered a contextual variable and a macro resource that influences how the mediation unfolds. This contribution is noteworthy because very few studies have focused on the boundary conditions of work–family balance satisfaction. Almost all research to date has focused exclusively on organisational (i.e., perceptions of supportive organisations; Greenhaus et al., 2012) or cultural variables (e.g., individualism, collectivism and gender egalitarianism; Haar, Russo, Sune, & Ollier-Malaterre, 2014) as moderators of the work–family balance construct (see, Abendroth and den Dulk, 2010 as an exception). Considering the perceptions of GE across four countries allows us to explore how national governance influences the translation of family supportiveness into outcomes for employees. More generally, our findings advance research on work–family balance by demonstrating that factors other than individual and organisational aspects shape the antecedents and consequences of work–family balance satisfaction (Carlson et al., 2009). This is very important as achieving the optimum balance between work and life is vital when seeking to ensure that employees are motivated and productive. It, therefore, is a key concern for organisations around the world (Galinsky, Matos, & Sakai-O'Neill, 2013).

5.2 | Contributions to research on GE and HRM in emerging and less developed contexts

Our study adds to the understanding of the relationship between national context and human resource management (HRM) practices in emerging and less developed economies. We contribute to a line of research that has shown that societal context can shape the impact of HR activities, including flexible work practices (Peretz, Fried, & Levi, 2018). Recent research has begun to demonstrate that the impact of FWAs differs significantly across nations characterised by different societal cultural characteristics, institutional structures and government influence (Ollier-Malaterre, Valcour, den Dulk, & Kossek, 2013). In a recent review study on the work–family relationship and societal cultures, Ollier-Malaterre and Foucreault (2017), furthermore, highlighted that one of the main limitations of research on FWAs is that work has been based primarily on samples of organisations operating

in the United States or Europe. Questions about how and when these practices are effective in the rest of the world have been overlooked (Den Dulk, Groeneveld, Ollier-Malaterre, & Valcour, 2013). Our focus on four countries, three of which are emerging or less developed economies outside of Europe, addresses this limitation of the literature.

The countries considered in this study, Nigeria, the Philippines, Guatemala and Spain, exhibit different levels of GE. This is important because these countries portray different values, beliefs, norms in relation to social, economic and political phenomena. Such differences are captured in the calculation of GE (Kaufmann et al., 2011) and are likely to be reflected in employment relations and HR practices (Cooke, Wood, Psychogios, & Szamosi, 2011; Sahadev & Demirbag, 2011). Thus, our paper not only strengthens comparative work–family research by considering the role of GE but also takes a first step to address a void in HRM research which focused on emerging economies in Europe (Cooke et al., 2011) but has not sufficiently considered those outside of Europe.

Our findings have important implications for national policy formulation and execution. For example, Nigeria and Guatemala are underrepresented contexts in relation to the implementation of practices that support work–family balance. Research also indicates that Nigeria and Guatemala are worst, among these four countries, in terms of working time legislation and maternity protection. Spain has established procedures for working time and maternity leave whereas data on the Philippines does not provide a clear and transparent picture of how it is situated in comparison to other countries (Maldonado, 2017).

A focus on these countries is crucial because the work–family interface is of concern to everyone (Hill, Yang, Hawking, & Ferris, 2004; Lyness & Judiesch, 2008). The Philippines and Spain are relatively better represented in empirical work, but the unique cultural characteristics and value placed on close family ties in these countries allows us to respond to calls for research to consider more diverse national and cultural contexts and contribute to the theory on work–family balance satisfaction (Heras et al., 2015).

5.3 | Limitations

As in all research, there are limitations that need to be mentioned. A first limitation of our study relates to the cross-sectional nature of our data, which prevents us from making conclusions about causality. To test causal links between the variables involved in our model, future research should draw on longitudinal data, preferably in quasi-experimental settings with control groups. A second limitation is that the data was collected from the same participants, raising concerns about possible common-method bias. In order to address this issue, we followed established procedural remedies such as randomising the questions, separating predictor and criterion variables and using different response scales for different variables in order to minimise this bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Furthermore, in line with the suggestions of Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff (2012), we conducted a marker-variable analysis.⁴ The results demonstrated that common-method bias was not a concern.

Second, most measures in the model are self-reported. However, the calculation for GE can be considered rigorous. It was developed by the World Bank and has been applied across a range of different settings. One of the main claims about self-reports is that respondents' self-consistency might lead to inflated correlations among variables. However, the significant moderation effect of the unobtrusive measure of GE identified in this study leads us to believe that the real effect may even be stronger.

A further limitation is that we focused on only one of the Worldwide Governance Indicators.⁵ As our findings have established the importance of national governance, we recommend future research to consider other governance indicators, such as rule of law or political stability, and explore their impact and consequences for work–family research.

5.4 | Practical implications

Our findings show that achieving work–family balance satisfaction is key to translating the positive impact of supportive organisations into reduced employee turnover. In order to develop a family-supportive culture, organisations can develop interventions consisting of three components: computer-based training, face-to-face training, and behavioural self-monitoring, all focused on improving the family supportiveness of supervisors and organisations. The successful development and implementation of such training interventions relies on understanding the evidence behind family supportiveness and the exploration of their effectiveness in driving employee performance and motivation. The face-to-face component of the intervention could exemplify behaviours and deliver training on: how to offer emotional support; the provision of exemplary work–family behaviours; differentiated conflict-resolution methods; familiarisation with company policies on reducing work–family conflict.

In addition to adopting a top-down intervention approach, a bottom-up approach—where employees are valued and acknowledged for achieving a balance between their work and family lives satisfaction—should be encouraged and integrated into the culture of the organisation. Personalised coaching and employee support where supervisors act as role models that provide staff with various resources that are crucial to work–family balance satisfaction should be among other bottom-up approaches that can be developed in organisations. Implementing these approaches is particularly important in countries with lower levels of GE, namely Nigeria and Guatemala, because employees in such contexts do not feel sufficiently equipped to benefit and translate family supportiveness into desirable outcomes. Supporting the development of institutional resources and mechanisms in these countries, by establishing, for example, foundations or organisations responsible for providing resources (e.g., training and development, coaching on work–family balance) would constitute an important step.

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ORCID

Mireia L. Heras  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7509-8669>

Yasin Rofcanin  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9945-1770>

ENDNOTES

- ¹ In addition to offering variance in the GE index, we chose these countries for three reasons. First, we aimed to represent and include low-income, middle-income, upper-middle-income and high-income countries. Nigeria represents low-income, Guatemala represents middle-income, the Philippines represents upper-middle-income and Spain represents a high-income country. Second, we aimed to represent regions of the world that are captured by the GE index but have not been explored extensively in work–family research. In this respect, we chose Nigeria as it a country from the Sub-Saharan African region; the Philippines as it is located in Southeast Asia; Guatemala as it is a country from the Latin America & Caribbean region and finally Spain, to represent Europe. Third, these four countries offered opportunities for data access and collaboration.
- ² Our focus on GE was informed by the fact that among the six dimensions of the Worldwide Governance indicators, GE has the highest number of variables (and is more diverse compared to other dimensions) and is the only dimension that does not have missing data over the years. Furthermore, Kaufmann et al. (2011) discuss the importance of focusing on only one of the dimensions of the Worldwide Governance indicators, strengthening our choice of GE. Furthermore, empirical evidence (e.g., Davis, 2016) demonstrates that government effectiveness is the most consistent good governance factor influencing the greatest amount of change in the measures of the quality of life and the measures of human development.

- ³ We thank an anonymous reviewer for suggesting us to conduct this analysis. See Byrne (2012) for a reference in multiple group moderation analysis.
- ⁴ We subtracted the lowest positive correlation between self-reported variables from each correlation value. Each of these values was then divided by 1 minus the lowest positive correlation between self-reported variables, and the resulting correlation values reflected CMB-adjusted correlations. Large differences between unadjusted and CMB-adjusted correlations suggest that CMB is a problem.
- ⁵ We have conducted post hoc analyses with all other dimensions of the Worldwide Governance Indicators (i.e., voice and accountability; political stability and absence of violence, regulatory quality, rule of law and control of corruption). The direction and strength of our hypotheses stayed the same. Further details can be provided upon request.

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APPENDIX A1

List of benefits

1. Flexible work schedule
2. Part-time work
3. Compressed week hours
4. Maternity leave beyond the legal minimum
5. Paternity leave beyond the legal minimum
6. Leave of absence to take care of a family member
7. Flexible vacation schedule according to the needs of the employee
8. Permission to leave the workplace due to a family emergency
9. Professional and personal counselling
10. Referrals for day-care and schools or elder care and services
11. Job-sharing
12. Tele-commuting
13. Childcare centre at the workplace
14. Financial help for the care of a child or a dependent
15. Easy access to information about work-life balance benefits available to you through your company
16. Seminars, workshops or information sessions on work/life balance issues