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The Relationship Between Work-life Balance Programs and Employee Success

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORK-LIFE BALANCE PROGRAMS AND EMPLOYEE

SUCCESS

A Dissertation

by

EFRAIN MEDINA

Submitted to Texas A&M International University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

May 2019

Concentration: Management

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Approved as to style and content by:

Chair of Committee,	Leonel Prieto
Committee Members,	Nereu Kock
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May 2019

Major Subject: Management

ABSTRACT

The Relationship Between Work-life Balance Programs and Employee Success (May 2019)

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Chair of Committee: Leonel Prieto, Ph. D.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the importance of work-life balance (WLB) programs to employees. Despite several attempts to understand the relationship between WLB programs and employee outcomes, it has been suggested that there should be a more complex understanding of how WLB programs enhance employee outcomes. This study aims to provide empirical evidence of the relationship between the availability of WLB programs and six workplace outcomes: job performance, turnover intention, deviant workplace behavior, affective commitment, fatigue level, and perceived organizational support. Secondly, the study examines whether perceived organizational support mediates the relationship between WLB programs availability and the employee outcomes. Thirdly, the study investigates how employees' perception of the programs' value influences these relationships. Finally, the study explores if the results of the study differ between samples taken from the United States (U.S.) and India.

A total of 378 employees from the U.S. and India were surveyed for this study. Results from the PLS analysis showed that the availability of WLB programs has a positive relationship with affective commitment and deviant workplace behavior in the U.S. sample. The relation between the programs and deviant workplace behavior was the opposite of what was hypothesized; however, a possible explanation was provided. Since most of the respondents are between the ages of 18 to 35 years old, they are more prone to engage in counterproductive

behavior (Lau, Au, and Ho, 2003). WLB programs have a positive relationship with deviant

workplace behavior, turnover intention, and fatigue level in the India sample. Such relationships

were the opposite of what was hypothesized; however, possible explanations were provided. The

results of the study showed that perceived organizational support serves either as a partial or full

mediator for all relationships, except for the relation between availability of WLB programs and

fatigue level in the India model. The moderating effect of the perception of WLB programs value

showed to be non-significant, except for the relationship between the availability of the programs

and deviant workplace behavior. By conducting a country comparison, the results showed that

there are some significant differences between the U.S. and India.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

While completing and successfully defending this dissertation has been a challenge, it has been a rewarding experience that created personal and professional growth. It is a great honor to have worked with my committee chair, Dr. Leonel Prieto, as well as, my committee members Dr. Jacqueline R. Mayfield, Dr. Milton Mayfield, and Dr. Ned Kock. I have acquired invaluable knowledge from all my professors, but more importantly, I have received support that has motivated me to complete this project.

I would like to thank my mom and dad, whose emotional support has allowed me to finish this difficult but worthy process. My brothers, who at times made my life a challenge, in the end served as an inspiration to realize this goal. To my friends who were present to give me emotional support as a result of this difficult process, as well as, more personal situations. To all my peers, staff, and department faculty, who advised me and supported me through this enriched process. There were times that I felt lonely, sad, frustrated, and unmotivated; however, my family, friends, and colleagues made it possible to overcome such difficult moments. Quise, pude, y lo hice.

From despair, a flower of hope will blossom.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Organizations have modified their operations to align with changes in globalization and technological innovations. As a result, firms are demanding more from employees, which creates additional job stressors that can negatively affect employees physically, emotionally, and mentally (Sonnentag, Kuttler, and Fritz, 2010; Nixon, Mazzola, Bauer, Krueger, and Spector, 2011). Organizational changes can augment what an organization expects of the employees, which can interfere with their personal lives. Role overload (many role demands and limited time), extended working hours, and international assignments are some job demands that have created challenges for employees to fulfill work and personal roles (Shaffer, Harrison, Gilley, and Luk, 2001; Jacobs and Gerson, 2004; Michel, Kotrba, Mitchelson, Clark, and Baltes, 2011; Makela, Kinnunen, and Suutari, 2015). Similarly, the implementation of mobile technology has allowed employees to perform work at their discretion regarding the location and working hours; however, if inappropriately used, such technology can distort the boundaries between work and personal roles (Towers, Duxbury, Higgins, and Thomas, 2006; Yun, Kettinger, and Lee, 2012). Additionally, women represent almost half of the workforce as they are starting their career or they are returning to the workforce to become financially independent (Hewlett and Luce, 2005; Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014; Cocchiara, 2017). As a result of changes in demographics and job demands, it is necessary for organizations to evolve by supporting employees' needs to fulfill both personal and work roles.

The dissertation follows the model of *Journal of Organizational Behavior.*

As more job demands can distort an employee's work and personal roles, organizations need to understand how important it is to support an employee's work-life balance. Fulfilling both work and personal roles is considered a primary goal of employees, which can affect their behavior toward the company (Casper and Buffardi, 2004; Haar, Russo, Suñe, and Ollier-Malaterre, 2014). It has been shown that regardless of an employee's career stage or parenthood status, work-life balance is one of the leading priorities of employees (Cascio and Boudreau, 2010; Darcy, McCarthy, Hill, and Grady, 2012). For example, the study by Galea, Houkes, and De Rijk (2014) showed that flexible-working programs are a necessity for employees, rather than just optional assistance, as they promote work-life balance. Furthermore, assisting the employees to fulfill both domains can result in organizational benefits. Studies have shown that employees who are satisfied with their work-life balance show higher affective commitment, higher job satisfaction, and lower turnover intention (Brough et al., 2014; Kim, 2014; Mas-Machuca, Berbegal-Mirabent, and Alegre, 2016). As such, it is imperative for organizations to implement programs that support an employee's work-life balance and create a humanistic workplace environment.

As the importance of maintaining a balance between work and personal roles has increased in recent years, organizations have implemented work-life balance programs to support an employee's need to achieve work and personal demands. This support is reflected by the increased effort of managers to implement and enforce human resource policies that serve as a support system for the employee to balance work and personal roles (Wang and Verma, 2012; Aryee, Chu, Kim, and Ryu, 2013). Moreover, while such programs create many benefits for the employees, they also serve as strategic tools for the organizations. Some studies have emphasized that the availability of programs that promote work-life balance can be considered a

strategy to attract top talent (Carless and Wintle, 2007; Twenge, 2010). For example, *Forbes Magazine* recognized the effort of those companies that provide excellent work-life balance programs support to their employees, which included Agilent Technologies, LinkedIn, and National Instruments (Smith, 2012).

Despite evidence supporting the positive impact of work-life balance programs on several outcomes, one of the significant limitations is how some studies depict the relationship between work-life balance programs and the outcomes. It has been suggested that while work-life balance programs may have a direct effect on employee outcomes, studies should consider possible mediators that enhance such relationships (Butts, Casper, and Yang, 2013). Furthermore, while some studies analyze the impact of availability (Cegarra-Leiva, Sánchez-Vidal, and Gabriel Cegarra-Navarro, 2012; Masuda et al., 2012), usage (Lambert, 2000), and satisfaction with the programs (Cailler, 2013; Ko, Hur, and Smith-Walter, 2013; Kim and Ryu, 2017), there are a few studies that analyze how an employee's perception of the value of the programs can affect different employee outcomes (Haar and Spell, 2004; Muse, Harris, Giles, and Feild, 2008). Moreover, there is a lack of a scale that captures the overall essence of work-life balance programs. Some studies conceptualize a specific aspect of work-life balance that may be beneficial to some employees (Kelliher and Anderson, 2008; Chou and Cheung, 2013), while other studies try to explicate the effects of overall work-life balance programs while contemplating some programs over others (De Cieri, Holmes, Abbott, and Pettit, 2005; Caillier, 2013). This method creates a restriction of having a better understanding of the effects of several work-life balance programs on employee outcomes, and how their impact may differ when considering other factors (e.g., national culture, career stage, gender).

The gap in work-life literature hinders the opportunity to have a better understanding of the mechanisms that relate work-life balance programs to employee outcomes, which can be a significant contribution to human resources research. This leads to a call for further investigation of the direct and indirect effects of work-life balance programs by examining a possible mediator that enhances the relationship between the programs and employee outcomes. The results may provide a better understanding of the relationships between the availability of work-life balance programs and employees. Additionally, it is important to investigate the influence of an employee's value perception of the programs in the relationship between availability and employee outcomes. Even though progress on work-life balance research has increased over the past few years, there are some issues that are present in work-life balance literature, including the following.

First, despite numerous attempts to show a relationship between work-life balance programs and employee outcomes, inconsistency in the findings may be the result of the approach taken in the studies. While some scholars have tested a direct relationship between work-life balance and outcomes, others argue that the relationship between the programs and outcomes will be enhanced through a mediator (Butts et al., 2013). As such, it has been suggested that there should be a more complex understanding of how work-life balance policies enhance different employee outcomes (Beauregard and Henry, 2009; Butts et al., 2013; Adame-Sanchez, González-Cruz, and Martínez-Fuentes, 2016). Furthermore, studies that attempt to explain the linkage between the programs and outcomes tend to focus on an employee's attitude toward the organization instead of the programs themselves. As a result, it is also fundamental to consider an employee's satisfaction or value perception of the programs because it can determine their impact on different outcomes (Wang, Oh, Courtright, and Colbert, 2011; Caillier, 2013;

Kim and Ryu, 2017).

Second, there are two main approaches to explicate the effects of work-life balance programs on different outcomes. The first approach is to focus on examining the effects of a bundle of flexible-working programs (e.g., telecommuting, compressed workweek) or family-friendly programs (e.g., parental leave, child-care) on some outcomes (Kelliher and Anderson, 2008; Lee and Hong, 2011; Timms et al., 2015). The second approach is to illustrate a combination of flexible-working and family-friendly programs to examine a broader aspect of work-life balance programs (Konrad and Mangel, 2000; De Cieri et al., 2005; Kim, and Ryu, 2017). While both approaches have contributed to the literature, the studies either incorporate a few programs or they do not take into consideration several health and wellness programs that support work-life balance (Willis Americas, 2011). As such, it is important to explore more programs that can be beneficial for the employees to satisfy both work and personal roles and examine their impact on different outcomes (Zheng, Molineux, Mirshekary, and Scarparo, 2015).

Third, there are just a few studies that analyze if there are any variations of the availability and effects of work-life balance programs as a result of national differences. Several studies prefer to focus on analyzing the impact of work-life balance programs in only one country (Konrad and Mangel, 2000; Perry-Smith and Blum, 2000; Ngo, Foley, and Loi, 2009; Ten Brummelhuis and Van Der Lippe, 2010). Additionally, other studies only focus on the perceived effect of an employee work-life balance on outcomes (Lyness and Judiesch, 2008). Although previous studies have shown the benefits of implementing work-life balance programs, there are only a few studies that have attempted to examine if the availability and impact of work-life balance programs depends on cultural differences. While some cross-cultural studies focus on cultural differences (Masuda et al., 2012; Stock, Strecker, and Bieling, 2016), scholars

have focused on understanding if provision and effect of programs are based on differences in gender composition instead of national culture. For example, the study by Straub (2007), which used a sample from 14 European countries, emphasized that provision of work-life balance programs depends on a company's gender composition while disregarding differences in national culture**.**

It is important to consider that while the availability of work-life balance programs may influence employees directly; such relationships may be enhanced through a mediator. Presently it is unclear how the employees' value perception of work-life balance programs influences the relationship between the availability of programs and employee outcomes. Furthermore, there is a lack of evidence of the influence of national culture on the relationship between work-life balance programs and outcomes. As a result of the existing need to answer such questions, there are four objectives for this study. First, the study proposes a model that will test direct and indirect effects of the availability of work-life balance programs on job performance, deviant workplace behavior, turnover intention, fatigue level, and affective commitment. This study also proposes that organizations that provide work-life balance programs will be perceived as offering higher levels of support to the employees, subsequently creating more favorable employee outcomes. Hereafter, job performance represents a general assessment of an employee's job ability that includes adaption, flexibility, and supervisor's rating.

Although previous studies have conceptually or empirically examined how work-life programs influence employees' outcomes though perceived organizational support (Casper and Harris, 2008; Beauregard and Henry, 2009; Butts et al., 2013; McCarthy, Cleveland, Hunter, Darcy, and Grady, 2013), this study offers further support as it provides a new dynamic by examining this relationship with a different outcomes and setting. The set of work-life balance

programs utilized for the study are those that consistently appear in studies (e.g., telecommuting, maternal leave) and those rarely taken into consideration (wellness programs). Testing the model in two different countries can illustrate whether national context influences such relationships. Results of the study may enhance support that perceived organizational support serves as a mediator between the availability of work-life balance programs and employee outcomes.

While prior studies have tested the effects of the availability of program on employee outcomes (Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Masuda et al., 2012; Stock et al., 2016), it has been argued that availability of the programs does not guarantee an effect on employees' behavior, as they might not benefit from them (Kim and Ryu, 2017). In this model, it is proposed that the perception of the value of the programs moderates the relationship between the availability of program and employee outcomes. A review of the literature shows that research exploring the impact of availability and value perception of programs on employee behaviors is scarce. This study will provide a better perspective that is not only necessary to provide programs but also to implement those that have value to the employees. The study by Haar and Spell (2004) suggested that if programs have low value for the employees, this may negatively affect the obligations of the employee toward the company.

Secondly, the study incorporates two scales that reflect a broader set of work-life balance programs that include health and wellness, flexible-working programs, and family-friendly programs. The scales will measure the availability and value perception of work-life balance programs. The programs used for the scales were derived from the literature, suggestions from human resources professionals, and information from The Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM). The scales include programs repeatedly used in previous studies, including flextime, parental leave, child-care, compressed workweek, and telecommuting.

Moreover, the study incorporates health and wellness programs in the scales that can support an employee's work-life balance, which include professional counseling, stress-management programs, and weight management (Willis Americas, 2011). Zheng et al. (2015) suggested that future work-life balance studies should include more work-life balance programs to emphasize how valuable they are to employees. While the scales used in this study do not include all work-life balance programs available, the scales do offer a broader aspect of work-life balance programs based on an extensive literature review and professional suggestions.

Thirdly, the study examines the effects of availability, perceived organizational support and value perception of work-life balance programs on job performance, deviant workplace behavior, turnover intention, fatigue level, and affective commitment. These five outcomes were selected because of their importance for employees and organizations. To the best of my knowledge, the relationship between the programs availability and the outcomes of deviant workplace behavior and fatigue level have not been tested in the method used for this study.

The variables of job performance, affective commitment, and workplace deviant behavior are behavioral outcomes that can result in hindering or achieving organizational goals (Ostroff, 1992; Bennet and Robinson, 2000; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky, 2002). Cascio and Boudreau (2010) provided a measurement that reflects the contribution of an employee based on their performance and emphasized that high variation on performance level could negatively affect the success of an organization. Studies have shown that employees involved in deviant workplace behavior can create adverse effects on other employees and the organization (Coffin, 2003; Appelbaum and Roy-Girard, 2007). To highlight the importance of turnover intention, the full cost of turnover can reach up to 150 percent or more of the salary of an employee leaving the company (Branch, 1998). As such, the cost of losing an employee's

knowledge and finding a suitable replacement can be an obstacle to an organization's success. The variable of fatigue has been shown to be a predictor of short-term and long-term absenteeism (Janssen, Kant, Swaen, Janssen, and Schroer, 2003), which in turn will create significant costs for the organization (Cascio and Boudreau, 2010).

There is also the possibility that the outcomes of job performance, deviant workplace behavior, turnover intention, fatigue level, and affective commitment will affect each other. Affective commitment has been shown to have a positive relationship with performance and a negative relationship with turnover intention and deviant workplace behavior (Meyer et al., 2002; Gill, Meyer, Lee, Shin, and Yoon, 2011). Zimmerman and Darnold (2009) found that there is a negative relationship between job performance and turnover intention. Additionally, fatigue level has been shown to have a negative relationship with performance (Barker and Nussbaum, 2011). While such relationships are not tested in this study, they can determine the success of an organization. As such, it is necessary to examine the effect of work-life balance programs on them.

Finally, this study will analyze whether there are any differences between the effects of work-life balance programs availability on employee outcomes when considering national context. One significant concern is the limited research that could provide a better understanding of the impact of national culture in work-life constructs (Lyness and Kropf, 2005; Lewis, Gambles, and Rapoport, 2007; Ollier-Malaterre and Foucreault, 2017). Given the results of previous research, the model will examine whether the effects of availability, perceived organizational support and value of work-life balance programs will be different in two countries. Another contribution is that while some studies have tested the impact of work-life balance programs cross-culturally (Masuda et al., 2012; Stock et al., 2016), this will be the first

study that tests whether the availability, perceived organizational support and value perception of work-life balance programs will have a different impact on employees in the United States and India. It is assumed that even though work-life balance programs create a positive impact on the employees, there will be a difference in the impact level of the programs in each country as a result of national context. Results of the study can serve to consider the influences of a country's cultural dimensions.

The U.S. and India have shown significant differences in national culture, as well as, other factors such as ethnic composition and economic level (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, and Gupta, 2004; U.S. Census Bureau, 2010; The World Bank, 2017). This study will exhibit whether the model developed for this study reveals different results with samples from the United States and India. While it is regarded that work-life balance programs are essential for employees, national context can affect what employees view as more valuable to support their work and personal roles. This is an important contribution to the literature as it can illustrate that differences among countries can influence how employees perceive work-life balance programs. Furthermore, results of the study can motivate scholars to examine how cultural dimensions can influence the relationship between work-life balance programs and employee outcomes, which can serve to promote the necessity to offer such programs.

Overall, this study empirically tests a conceptual model with the primary objective of offering a better understanding of the mechanisms of how work-life balance programs can affect employee outcomes. This will provide a better illustration of the importance of providing work-life balance programs to employees regardless of their respective countries. Figure 1.1 depicts the conceptual model tested for this study.

Figure 1.1: Conceptual model
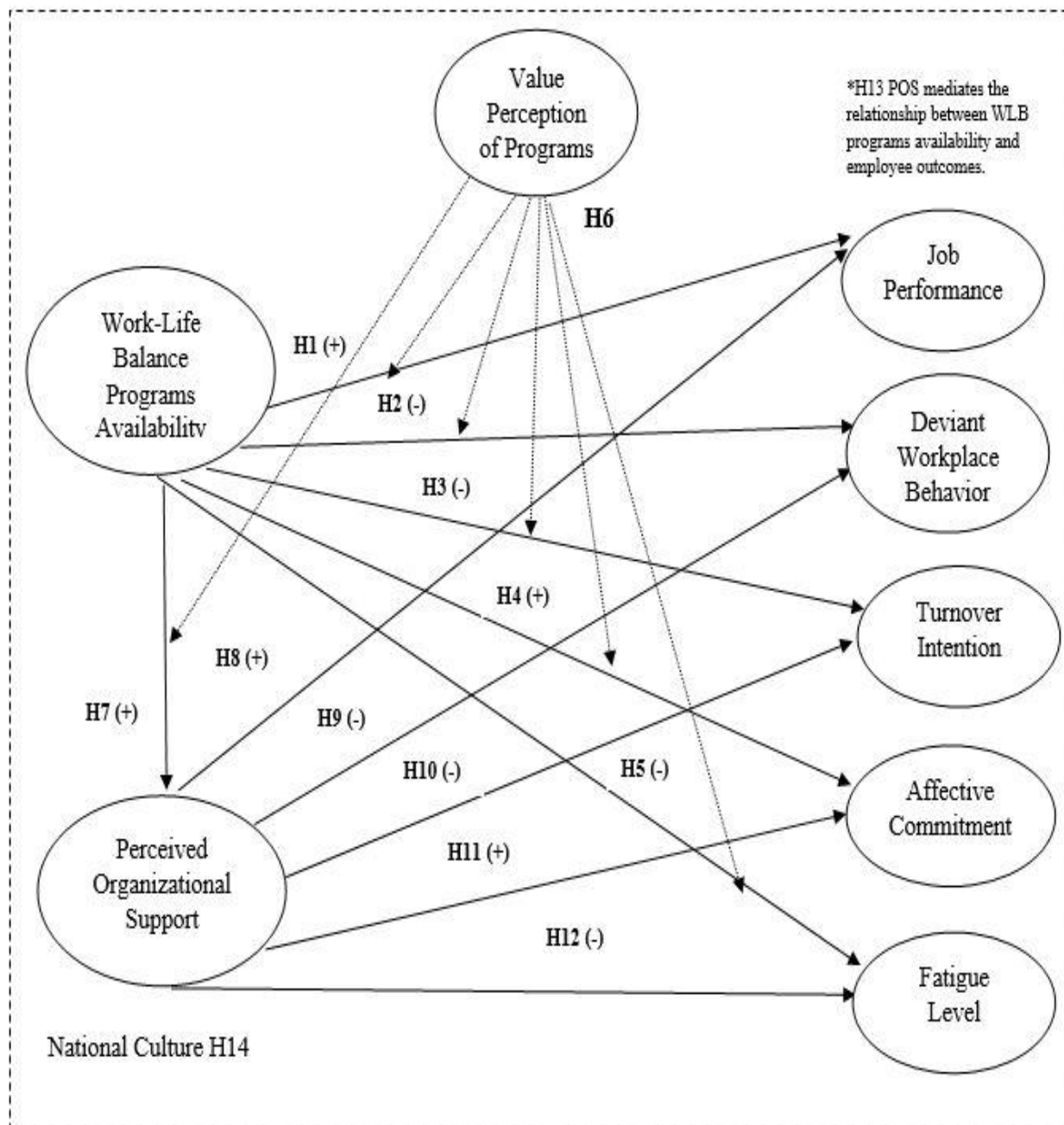
Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the direct and indirect effects of work-life

balance programs availability on the outcomes of job performance, turnover intention, deviant

workplace behavior, affective commitment, fatigue level. As such, this study examines if

perceived organizational support serves a mediator of the relationships between work-life balance programs and employee outcomes. Furthermore, the study examines whether an employee's value perception of the programs influences the relationship between the programs and the outcomes.

Employees have demonstrated that they can be a competitive advantage for any organization (Hatch and Dyer, 2004; Vomberg, Homburg, and Bornemann, 2015). Studies have shown that employees are crucial in the processes of creating an excellent customer experience, achieving positive organizational change, and increasing firm performance (Harris, 2007; Avey, Wernsing, and Luthans, 2008; Crook, Todd, Combs, Woehr, and Ketchen, 2011). As such, the study will elucidate how it is not only necessary to offer work-life balance programs, but also to understand the mechanism of how they influence employee outcomes.

Secondly, it is important to depict whether the impact of the programs will differentiate because of differences in national context. For this, the study will test the model in two different countries (United States and India). These insights can provide a better understanding of whether some programs are more valuable depending on national context.

Significance

Overall, this study offers three significant contributions that can be important for work-life literature. First, the proposed and tested model will show the direct and indirect relationship between the availability of work-life balance programs and employee outcomes. The results may illustrate that the programs may influence employee outcomes through perceived organizational support. The model also illustrates that the perception of the value of the programs can influence the relationship between work-life balance programs availability and employee outcomes. The results of the study may suggest a different mechanism on how work-life balance programs can

affect employees. The approach taken by this study can create interest in future studies to consider mediators and the moderating effect of value perception, which can provide a better understanding of how the programs can impact employee outcomes.

Secondly, the conceptual model consists of programs consistently used in studies and those rarely taken into consideration (e.g., wellness programs, lunch break). This approach is another contribution to the literature as it sheds light on the impact of those programs on employees' outcomes, and how valuable they are for the employees. The results can provide a better perspective of how important work-life balance programs are for employees. Results of the study may persuade future studies to analyze the impact of several programs, especially the ones rarely studied in work-life balance literature.

Finally, results of the study may illustrate whether national culture can influence the relationship between work-life balance programs availability and employee outcomes. While work-life balance programs are a necessity to the employees, differences in national setting can provide different results.

This study also provides implications that can be beneficial for HR professionals and managers. One of the duties of human resource management is to implement strategies that would motivate employees to perform at a higher level (Daley, 2012; Jiang, Wang, and Zhao, 2012). This study emphasizes that organizations need to implement work-life balance programs because they can enhance positive attitudes and behaviors of the employees while lessening those attitudes and behaviors that can be counterproductive for the organization. As organizations may have a limit on the number of work-life balance programs they can implement, it is crucial to understand which programs the employees desire the most. This is

more important when considering national context, as some programs may be more valuable for employees in some countries than in others.

In addition to affecting employees, the programs can also create secondary benefits for an organization. While this study only tests the impact of programs on employee outcomes, they can also offer secondary benefits. For example, health and wellness programs can lead to lower premiums as a result of healthier employees. Moreover, providing flexible-working programs can serve as a strategic tool to attract and retain talent (Almer and Kaplan, 2002; Thompson, Payne, and Taylor, 2015). This can create a significant interest for organizations to implement work-life balance programs to satisfy the employees' needs and enhance their competitive advantage.

Research questions

The research questions presented will provide a better understanding of whether the availability of work-life balance programs shows strong relationships with six employee outcomes of job performance, turnover intention, deviant workplace behavior, affective commitment, fatigue level, and perceived organizational support. Perceived organizational support is examined as a mediator between the relationships of work-life balance programs availability and employee outcomes. Furthermore, the perception of the value of the programs will be examined as a moderator for the relationship of the availability of work-life balance programs and employee outcomes. This study will also provide a better understanding of how the perception of the value of the programs can influence the impact of the programs. By answering these questions, this study strives to provide an insight that is not only important to implement work-life balance programs but to have a better understanding of the mechanism of how they affect employee outcomes. Additionally, this study elucidates that the effects of the

programs may differ depending on national context. As such, these are the research questions for this study:

1. Are there significant relationships between the availability of work-life balance programs and job performance, turnover intention, deviant workplace behavior, affective commitment, fatigue level, and perceived organizational support?

2. Are there significant relationships between perceived organizational support and job performance, turnover intention, deviant workplace behavior, affective commitment, and fatigue level?

3. Can perceived organizational support mediate the relationships between the availability of work-life balance programs and job performance, turnover intention, deviant workplace behavior, affective commitment, and fatigue level?

4. Can value perception of the programs moderate the relationship between the availability of work-life balance programs and job performance, turnover intention, deviant workplace behavior, affective commitment, fatigue level, and perceived organizational support?

5. Will the results of the study differ between the U.S. and India?

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter is divided into four sections. This process will allow the reader to have a better understanding of the importance of providing work-life balance programs for the employees. The sections are as follows:

1) Definitions: This section will provide definitions of the different concepts, which include work-life balance and work-life balance programs. This process allows the reader to become familiarized with the concepts.

2) Theoretical Foundation: Major theories that explain the relationship between work-life balance programs, perceived organizational support, and employee outcomes will be analyzed and discussed in this section.

3) Hypotheses Development: Development of the hypotheses for this study will be elaborated in this section, which includes a clear perspective of how the availability of work-life balance programs affects six outcomes. This section also elaborates how perceived organizational support mediates the relationship between work-life balance programs and employee outcomes.

4) National Culture: This section encapsulates the importance of considering national culture in studies, shows work-life balance programs studies at the international level, and highlights some differences between the United States and India.

Work-life balance definition

While the concept of work-life balance (WLB) has been extensive in research, there is no consensus on a singular definition. As such, different measures and definitions regarding work-

life balance have appeared in literature, which creates inconsistency in the literature (Chang, McDonald, and Burton, 2010). The concept of work-life balance has been extensively used in the fields of management, psychology, education, and healthcare, to name a few. WLB has become a popular concept because of changes in the workplace, including a higher proportion of female employees, dual-earner couples, and employees' requests for flexible work hours (Hewlett and Luce, 2005; Haddock, Zimmerman, Lyness, and Ziemba, 2006; Galea et al., 2014). The next section will present some of the most appropriate definitions that reflect the essence of WLB.

Greenhaus, Collins, and Shaw (2003) defined WLB as "the extent to which an individual is equally engaged in-and equally satisfied with his or her work role and family role" (p. 513). According to Clark (2000), WLB can be defined as "satisfaction and good functioning at work and home with a minimum of role conflict" (p. 751). These first two definitions focus on the level of satisfaction in engaging in both types of roles. Kalliath and Brough (2008) defined WLB as "the individual perception that work and non-work activities are compatible and promote growth in accordance with an individual's current life priorities" (p. 326). This study adopts the definition of Kalliath and Brough (2008) as it captures the study's intention of showing the importance of WLB in promoting growth in both work and personal domains.

Work-life balance programs definition

While human resources may offer different policies and programs to support employees, there needs to be a clear understanding of which programs promote an employee's WLB. Literature has shown a transition from the term work-family programs to what is known as WLB programs. This is the result of changes in demographics, which includes more single employees as well as emphasizing personal activities unrelated to family matters.

To have a better understanding of what can be classified as a WLB program, this study utilizes two definitions that can help create a better understanding of the concept. WLB programs are interpreted as those that enhance a worker's autonomy to fulfill both work and non-work roles (Felstead, Jewson, Phizacklea, and Walters, 2002). Such an interpretation provides the opportunity to categorize a range of different programs as WLB programs. Cascio and Boudreau (2010) defined WLB programs as "any employer-sponsored benefit or working condition that helps an employee to enhance the fit between work and non-work demands" (p. 171). This definition creates a broader range of what can be classified as WLB programs because it expands into five areas: child and dependent care benefits (child-care support), flexible working conditions (flextime, teleworking), leave options (maternity, paternity), information services and HR policies (health issues, professional counseling), and organizational cultural issues (management support).

In retrospect, WLB programs are those that support the fulfillment of both work and personal roles of the employees. While both definitions provide a broad concept of WLB programs, this study adopts the definition by Cascio and Boudreau (2010) because it precisely captures the segments of family-friendly, flexible-working, and health and wellness programs. This study incorporates two scales (availability, value perception) that adopt the three segments (family-friendly, flexible-working, health and wellness) to illustrate a broader aspect that reflects the essence of WLB programs. An explanation of the three sections of WLB programs is relevant to create a better understanding of the overall concept.

Family-friendly programs

Family-friendly programs can be classified as those that offer financial benefits and dependent support that can help an employee decrease the burden of caring for their dependents

(Glass and Finley, 2002; Kossek, 2005). Such programs are inclined to benefit those employees who have dependents, including parents, children, and spouses. The higher presence of female employees, dual-career couples, and the increased interest of men in child-care and household activities have made it necessary to offer these programs (Lambert, 2000; Hewlett and Luce, 2005; Bianchi, Robinson, and Milke, 2006; Duxbury, Lyons, and Higgins, 2007). While family-friendly programs are fundamental for employees, only a few states in the U.S. support such initiatives, and there is a low response by employers to institute them because they are unsure of the benefits they will receive (Trask, 2017). Programs that can be categorized as family-friendly programs include parental leave, child-care support, and elder-care programs. The multiple challenges that employees with families and dependents are facing have made it necessary for organizations to offer a variety of family-friendly programs.

Flexible-working programs

While family-friendly programs are offered to employees with family and other dependents, flexible-working programs can be used by most employees. Flexible-working programs can be a valuable option for employees because work and personal roles may overlap at certain times. Different definitions of flexible-working programs have created a lack of consensus on which is the most appropriate definition. Flexible-working programs are those that relate to "the ability of workers to make choices influencing when, where, and for how long they engage in work-related tasks" (Jeffrey et al., 2008, p. 152)**.** Lambert, Marler, and Gueutal (2008) defined flexible-working programs as "employer provided benefits that permit employees some level of control over when and where they work outside of the standard workday" (p. 107). This study adopts the definition of Lambert et al. (2008), which encapsulates a clear understanding of the programs' benefits to the employees. Programs categorized as flexible-working programs

include compressed workweek, telecommuting, and scheduled flextime. Flexible-working programs support employees with families as well as other employees with other necessities, such as attending school.

Health and wellness programs

Most studies regarding WLB programs have focused on the areas of flexible-working programs and family-friendly programs. This issue has limited the opportunity to show the importance of health and wellness programs in supporting an employee's fulfillment of work and personal roles. The increase of workload, a dynamic working environment, higher pressure by the organization, and personal/family problems can create stress and physical symptoms that can affect WLB. Health and wellness programs can be defined as "an organized, employer-sponsored program that is designed to support employees (and, sometimes, their families) as they adopt and sustain behaviors that reduce health risks, improve quality of life, enhance personal effectiveness, and benefit the organization's bottom line" (Berry, Mirabito, and Baun, 2010, p. 4). The definition of Berry et al. (2010) is adequate for the study as it provides a broader aspect of the benefits offered by such programs. Health and wellness programs include professional counseling, weight management, and stress management. In addition to creating benefits for the employees, these programs can create savings to the organization by reducing the cost of absenteeism and healthcare expenses (Ozminkowski et al., 2002; Baicker, Cutler, and Song, 2010).

Theoretical foundations of work-life balance programs

As employees may be a competitive advantage for organizations, management must provide the best resources and strategies to support employees. One such approach is the offering of programs that support an employee's necessity to meet work and personal demands. This

support is a reflection of organizations operating in a people-oriented style to promote success in an organization. Various organizations are implementing "organizational humanizing cultures," which recognize the needs and rights of employees, operate under a common good, and emphasize employee growth (Mele, 2003). The need for implementing a humanistic approach may not be an option but a necessity for organizations. Rosanas (2008) argued that while economic criteria are primary factors for organizations to survive, they need to emphasize the implementation of a humanistic approach. Shifting into developing a more humanistic approach can create an organizational environment that embraces positive long-term relationships, is emotionally involved with the purpose of the organization, focuses on collective strength, and emphasizes morality (Pirson and Lawrence, 2010). Implementation of the humanistic approach can satisfy the needs of the employees as well as act as a motivational drive. To have a better understanding of the mechanism of how the implementation of WLB programs affects the employees, this study deliberates on two theories that emphasize the importance of delivering a humanistic approach. Additionally, the institutional theory is explained to elaborate on how the results of the study may differ as a result of national culture. The following paragraphs examine three theories (conservations of resources theory, social exchange theory, and institutional theory) that help explain the relationship between WLB programs, perceived organizational support, and employee outcomes.

Conservation of Resources Theory

One theory that is becoming popular to help explain the mechanism of WLB benefits is the Conservation of Resources Theory (COR). Still, there are limited studies that have used COR as their core foundation to explain WLB benefits. It has been emphasized that there is a need to analyze WLB benefits through the principle of COR (Noe, Clarke, and Klein, 2014). According

to COR theory, stressful situations can occur when individuals are not able to acquire or retain certain significant resources (Hobfoll, 1989). COR theory encapsulates four types of resources that individuals desire (Hobfoll, 1989): objects (housing, clothes), conditions (marriage, seniority), personal characteristics (skills, personality), and energies (time, money). Failure to acquire or losing such resources can create stress for the individual.

Additionally, interrole conflict may result in the dissipation of resources because work and personal roles may compete against each other, which can create a stressful situation for the individual (Grandey and Cropanzano, 1999). This situation is more likely to happen when employees emphasize more time and effort in one role. For example, the study by Eagle, Miles, and Icenogle (1997) found that for employees to meet work demands, they reduce time and effort in their family role and vice-versa. Such strain can lead to burnout. As a result, it has been proposed that the COR theory can help explain burnout (Hobfoll and Freedy, 1993).

Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory reflects under what conditions an individual will reciprocate a beneficial action from an entity (e.g., government, companies) or other individuals. Peter Blau, Richard Emerson, and George Homans can be considered the figures who have popularized and revolutionized the theory. Social exchange theory has been applied in disciplines including sociology, psychology, and business. While literature has provided different perspectives on social exchange, they have the commonality of reflecting how the relationship between parties creates obligations (Emerson, 1976). Relating the theory to the employer-employee relationship, it can help explain the antecedents and outcomes of reciprocating beneficial actions. Gouldner (1960) emphasized that the attitude of an employee toward the company might be the result of the quality of the interaction, which is based on the reciprocity norm. For example, companies

may offer promotions, programs, recognition, and job security to the employees, and this may influence the employees to reciprocate such beneficial actions by having higher performance, commitment, and citizenship behavior. As employees demonstrate how crucial they are for organizational success, this might motivate companies to provide them with different benefits. The study by Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-Lamastro (1990) proposed that organizations initiate the social exchange process when they perceive the value of the employees for the company's success, which leads to concern for an employee's well-being. Beneficial treatment from the organization can lead to a sense of obligation for the employee to demonstrate a positive behavior that will be beneficial for the company.

Institutional Theory

Institutional theory emphasizes that the social behavior of institutions will be influenced by the established structured (norms, rules, schemas) developed by society. For an organization to be successful, they need to adapt to the established structure that exists in the environment to which they belong (Meyer and Rowan, 1977; Scott, 1995). This theory has served to support researchers in explaining why results in a study may differ in cross-national studies. Zucker (1987) argued that organizations are influenced by normative pressures, which can be derived from external pressures including the state. Since national culture may differentiate among nations, this can also influence the employer-employee relationship. Based on institutional theory, the national culture of a country can influence the effect of work-life balance programs availability on employee outcomes.

WLB programs, perceived organizational support, and employee outcomes

The following section will provide an in-depth analysis of how providing programs that support the fulfillment of work and personal roles can be valuable to the employees. Moreover,

this section analyzes how such programs can affect several employee outcomes and how employees' value perception of the programs can moderate the relationships. Table C in Appendix C shows some studies regarding the effects of WLB programs on several outcomes from the years 2000-2017. The list offers some of the programs widely used in literature and the outcomes frequently observed in the work-life literature. For this study, job performance, deviant workplace behavior, turnover intention, affective commitment, fatigue level, and perceived organizational support will be observed as the outcomes affected by the implementation and value perception of WLB programs. The six outcomes can represent the behavior, effort, and feelings of the employees toward the organization.

First, this study incorporates three aspects of WLB programs (health and wellness, flexible-working, and family-friendly programs) and their overall impact on five outcomes. Secondly, this section also examines the relationship between WLB programs and perceived organizational support, how perceived organizational support directly affects employee outcomes, and how it mediates the relationship between WLB programs and five employee outcomes. Thirdly, no study has tested the relationship among WLB programs, perceived organizational support, and the outcomes in India. The results can explicate if there are differences among the impact of the programs' availability, perceived organizational support, and value perception for American and Indian workers. Hypotheses developed in this part of the study will be supported by the analysis of previous studies as well as the mechanism that integrates the relationship between the programs and the outcomes.

WLB programs and job performance

Job performance is one of the significant outcomes researched in literature because it can provide a better analysis of how employee-engagement behavior can help achieve organizational

goals (Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, and Sager, 1993; Viswesvaran and Ones, 2000; Levy and Williams; 2004; Kacmar, Collins, Harris, and Judge, 2009). As competition has increased over the years, acquiring and retaining employees who demonstrate good performance has become a priority. Therefore, several studies have focused on understanding the factors that can influence an employee's performance, which include leadership style and organizational climate (Luthans, Norman, Avolio, and Avey, 2008; Walumbwa et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2011).

Compared to some studies that use a specific component of job performance that include variables like absenteeism and counterproductive behavior, this research adopts a broader assessment of job performance. This study implements the definition provided by Motowidlo and Kell (2012), which defines job performance as "the total expected value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time." (p. 82). This definition provides an understanding that differences in performance can be a result of development and training participation, involvement in motivational practices and programs, and the availability of opportunities and constraints. The definition by Motowidlo and Kell (2012) is appropriate for the study as it provides a general assessment of the measurement of job performance. This study incorporates a performance scale that includes employees' adaption; supervisor's rating; flexibility in the workplace; and work quantity, quality, and efficiency.

As there has been an increase in demands in both work and personal roles for the employees, this can create burnout symptoms that can affect how well they perform their job duties. Literature has shown that increase in workload, job demands, and home demands can lead to a higher burnout level (Cordes and Dougherty, 1993; Maslach, Schaufeli, and Leiter, 2001; Peeters, Montgomery, Bakker, and Schaufeli, 2005). As employees are unable to meet both work and personal roles, this may cause employees to experience burnout symptoms. Studies have

shown that when an employee experiences specific characteristics that reflect burnout, they will demonstrate lower performance in their job activities (Parker and Kulik, 1995; Wright and Cropanzano, 1998).

Human resource management can be a strategy that can augment the performance of the organization (Delaney and Huselid, 1996; Harel and Tzafrir, 1999; Birdi et al., 2008). The implementation of health and wellness programs can help alleviate the symptoms of burnout that can result from work and personal demands. Such programs are essential because employees with a higher level of health risks may perform at a lower level and increase costs for loss of productivity (Burton, Conti, Chen, Schultz, and Edington, 1999; Boles, Pelletier, and Lynch, 2004; Loeppke et al., 2007). Studies have shown that health and wellness programs can reduce health risks, which will help an employee perform at a higher level (Mills, Kessler, Cooper, and Sullivan, 2007; Goetzel and Ozminkowski, 2008). Additionally, those programs that offer a financial incentive can positively influence the health behavior of an employee (Sutherland, Christianson, and Leatherman, 2008; Mitchell et al., 2013). The recognition of the importance of an employee's health, as well as offers of financial incentives, can influence the employee to return such benefits by performing at a higher level.

Flexible-working programs can be valuable for the performance of an employee. In addition to supporting employees with families, they could be used by those employees with other needs, including attending school, achieving a more convenient lifestyle, and reducing commuting time. Flexible-working programs can alleviate symptoms of burnout that can derive from the conflict between both domains, as well as creating a perception of job control, which is essential for employees (Kossek, Lautsch, and Eaton, 2006; Hill, Erickson, Holmes, and Ferris, 2010). Empirical evidence has shown that programs like telecommuting and flextime can

increase employee performance (Kim and Campagna, 1981; Hill, Ferris, and Martinson, 2003; Harker Martin and MacDonnell, 2012). These programs offer many benefits to the employees, which in return will demonstrate a higher performance as an expression of their gratitude to the organization.

Family-friendly programs have demonstrated to be fundamental for an employee to meet both work and family roles. Such programs are necessary because it has been shown that whenever family demands interfere with the work domain, it can negatively affect the performance of an employee (Netemeyer, Maxham, and Pullig, 2005; Witt and Carson, 2006; Nohe, Michel, and Sonntag, 2014). Supporting the employees' needs to fulfill family responsibilities can create a sense of appreciation in the workforce, which may positively affect their psychological state. The meta-analysis by Avey, Reichard, Luthans, and Mhatre (2011) showed that a positive psychology capital could positively influence employee outcomes, including performance. According to social exchange theory, the benefits received from family-friendly programs can create the perception that the organization cares for them and their family's well-being. In return, the employee will engage in a behavior that can lead to them performing at a higher level.

Based on the literature, the first hypothesis is the following:

Hypothesis 1: Work-life balance programs will have a positive relationship with job performance.

WLB programs and deviant workplace behavior

As a result of the costs and negative consequences derived from employees engaging in deviant behavior in the workplace, research interest on this topic has increased to have a better understanding of the antecedents of such behavior (Bennett and Robinson, 2000; Lee and Allen,

2002; Peterson, 2002; Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, and Barrick, 2004; Tepper, Henle, Lamber, Giacalone, and Duffy, 2008). Having a better understanding of the antecedents of deviant workplace behavior is crucial for organizations to alleviate such issues. A workplace with a high level of employees participating in deviant behavior can lead to internal and external negative consequences.

For this study, deviant workplace behavior is defined as "voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and, in so doing, threatens the well-being of the organization or its members, or both" (Robinson and Bennett, 1995, p. 556). This definition is appropriate for the study because it clarifies that behavior should be deliberate and which are the entities that suffer such behavior. Different types of deviant behavior seen in the workplace include illegal substance consumption, daydreaming instead of working, and arriving late.

Job stressors, which include role conflict, role ambiguity, and workload, have been shown to be antecedents of deviant behavior (Fox and Spector, 1999; Penney and Spector, 2005). As employees perform multiple activities in their personal and work roles, this may influence their level of engagement in deviant behavior. The multiple roles than an employee must fulfill can lead to employee burnout. Maslach and Goldberg (1998) argued that two of the characteristics that reflect employee burnout are when they show frustration and anger. Additionally, the dissatisfaction of employees when they cannot meet both work and personal roles can result in them engaging in deviant behavior. Whenever an employee is dissatisfied, they may be involved in deviant behavior, as they perceive it as a method to ease their frustration (Judge, Scott, and Ilies, 2006).

Since deviant behavior may derive from job and home stressors, the implementation of health and wellness programs can mitigate such symptoms. The conflict between work and

personal roles can create symptoms of stress, dissatisfaction, and frustration, which can lead to

an employee engaging in deviant behavior. Programs that assist an employee in reducing such

health risks can be crucial in minimizing an employee's participation in counterproductive

behavior. Mindfulness-based stress reduction programs can help decrease the effects derived

from psychological distress and daily hassles (Williams, Kolar, Reger, and Pearson, 2001;

Khoury, Sharma, Rush, and Fournier, 2015). Additionally, programs that promote exercise can

help reduce psychological symptoms that include hostility and anxiety (Lavie, Milani, O'Keefe,

and Lavie, 2011). Such programs are necessary for employees to minimize any mental distress

that can influence how well they perform their work.

Flexible-working and family-friendly programs can play a crucial part in preventing

deviant workplace behavior. The study by Darrat, Amyx, and Bennett (2010), which consisted of

salespeople, showed that as discrepancies between the work and personal roles increased, there

would be a higher chance of them exhibiting deviant behavior. This issue is the result of the

reaction derived from not achieving the needs of both domains, which can lead to burnout.

Flexible-working and family-friendly programs can indicate a perception of scheduling control,

which has shown to improve the well-being of the employee and reduce work-life conflict

(Halpern, 2005b; Costa, Sartori, and Akerstedt, 2006; Moen, Kelly, and Huang, 2008).

Furthermore, the programs create the perception that organizations care about the well-being of

their employees, which can affect how they behave toward the organization. Studies have shown

that the perception of the support given by the organization can influence deviant workplace

behavior (Sady, Spitzmuller, and Witt, 2008; Ferris, Brown, and Heller, 2009). As such, the

benefits of flexible-working and family-friendly programs can affect an employee's level of

engagement in deviant behavior.

Based on the literature, the second hypothesis is the following:

Hypothesis 2: Work-life balance programs will have a negative relationship with deviant workplace behavior.

WLB programs and turnover intention

Turnover is an important variable in literature because it can provide information regarding the stability of the number of employees in an organization, cost of employees leaving, and reasons behind such departure (Cotton and Tuttle, 1986; Johnson, 1995; Griffeth, Hom, and Gaertner, 2000). The process of the departure of an employee can create a burden for the organization. Cascio and Boudreau (2010) illustrated that to compute turnover costs you need to consider three cost categories: separation, replacement, and training costs. An employee leaving the organization can create additional costs for the company. The full cost of turnover, including all three categories, can substantially become 150 percent or more of the salary of the employee who departed the company (Branch, 1998).

While researchers would prefer to acquire the exact data regarding the turnover rate of organizations, it is a complicated procedure, as some companies prefer to keep this information confidential. As such, turnover intention has been used as a proxy to measure actual turnover. Several scholars view turnover intention as a valid proxy for the actual turnover, which can help facilitate acquiring information of the willingness of an employee to remain or leave an organization (Tett and Meyer, 1993; Lacity, Iyer, and Rudramuniyaiah, 2008; Muliawan, Green, and Robb, 2009). This study implements the definition of turnover intention by Tett and Meyer (1993), which they defined as "a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization" (p. 262). This definition is adopted because it distinguishes deliberate intention to leave the organization excluding layoffs, firings, and death. Turnover intention is an important variable

because it can provide the perspective of the employees of whether they are comfortable being part of the organization. As employees have become a competitive advantage that can result in the failure or success of an organization, their retention is a significant focus for organizations (Mayfield and Mayfield, 2007).

The inability to fulfill both work and personal roles can lead to employees experiencing burnout. Employees who are frustrated as well as experiencing burnout with their position will show a higher turnover rate (De Croon, Sluiter, Blonk, Broersen, and Frings-Dresen, 2004). Additionally, interference of work roles on personal roles and vice-versa creates work-life conflict, which has been shown to increase turnover intention (Shaffer et al., 2001; Noor and Maad, 2009; Blomme, Van Rheede, and Tromp, 2010). Therefore, it is crucial for organizations to intervene by offering programs that can be valuable for employees, which in turn can serve in the retention of key employees.

Human resource programs are some of the primary strategies implemented by organizations to retain employees (Huselid, 1995; Batt, 2002; Batt and Valcour, 2003). As employees face more work and personal demands, the implementation of WLB programs can help retain employees by facilitating fulfilling such roles. Health and wellness programs can be indispensable for the employee to fulfill the needs of both domains, which can serve as an incentive for an employee to be loyal to the organization. While health and wellness programs can be fundamental in alleviating health issues, including cardiovascular disease (Arena et al., 2013), psychological distress (Virgili, 2015), and chronic illness (Hyatt Neville, Merrill, and Kumpfer, 2011), employees can become more appreciative when financial incentives are also offered to meet health standards. Financial incentives can be an effective motivator for employees to participate in wellness programs, which promotes a healthier lifestyle (Churchill

and Guillespie, 2014). The availability of programs that support a healthier lifestyle while offering financial gain for the employees can create a sense of loyalty to the company. In return, employees may feel an obligation to remain in the company since the programs can be valuable for them.

The importance for employees to have control over their schedule and location of work has persuaded organizations to offer programs to fulfill such needs, including compressed workweek, flexible work schedule, and telecommuting. Flexible-working programs have been noted as essential for employees to achieve both work and personal roles (Golden, 2001; Hill, Hawkins, Ferris, and Weitzman, 2001; Gajendran and Harrison, 2007; Hayman, 2009). The availability of flexible-working programs has been shown to have a negative relationship with turnover intention (Allen, 2001; Golden, 2006; McNall, Masuda, and Nicklin, 2009; Timms et al., 2015). The ability to arrange work and personal demands can be fundamentally valuable for the employees. In return for the availability of valuable programs that support WLB, employees will have a sense of obligation to remain in the organization.

Literature has shown that the implementation of family-friendly programs that support fulfilling both work and family domains can result in lower levels of turnover intention. As increases on job demands and minimum support from organizations can negatively affect the family domain (Bakker, Lieke, Prins, and van der Heijden, 2011), it is vital for organizations to support an employee's family responsibilities. Family-friendly programs, which include childcare subsidiary, providing childcare information and family leave were shown to have a negative relationship with turnover intention (Grover and Crooker, 1995; Thompson, Beauvais, and Lyness, 1999; Lee and Hong, 2011). Investing in programs that support family responsibilities can affect an employee's attitude toward the organization. Acknowledgment and

support of the needs of the employees to fulfill family responsibilities will reflect that the organization cares about the employees' well-being. This can create a sense of responsibility to stay with the organization, as they are providing benefits that affect both employees and family members.

Based on the literature, the third hypothesis is the following:

Hypothesis 3: Work-life balance programs will have a negative relationship with turnover intention.

WLB programs and affective commitment

Organizational commitment is a relevant variable that can reflect how committed an employee is to the organization. Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) defined organizational commitment as "the strength of an individual's identification with an involvement in a particular organization" (p. 604). Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed that organizational commitment can be observed in three different components: affective, normative, and continuance commitment. Affective commitment relates more to the emotional attachment of the employee to the organization. Normative commitment refers to the feeling of obligation an employee has to the organization. Continuance commitment relates to an employee's perception of the cost associated with departing an organization. The three components of organizational commitment have demonstrated to have different effects on the behavior of the employees (Allen and Meyer, 1996).

As organizations may perceive their employees as a fundamental asset for success, creating affection and loyalty of the employee toward the company should become a priority. Employees with a higher level of commitment reflect higher job satisfaction and lower turnover intention (Cooper-Hakim and Viswesvaran, 2005; Jehanzeb, Rasheed, and Rasheed, 2013). The

implementation of human resource programs is a strategy that can affect the attitude of the employees toward the company. Implementation of human resource programs can influence the behavior of the employees by increasing their commitment toward the organization (Paul and Anantharaman, 2004; Obeidat and Abdallah, 2014). Programs perceived as beneficial and valuable can develop more prosperous relations between employees and the organization.

While all three components of organizational commitment are important, affective commitment may explain in more detail the dedication and loyalty of the employees. Employees with a higher level of affective commitment may identify themselves to a higher degree with the organization, which can augment their contribution to the goals of the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Meyer, Allen, and Smith, 1993). Affective commitment was shown to have a stronger effect than normative and continuance commitment on outcomes, which include absenteeism, job performance, and turnover intention (Luchak and Gellatly, 2007). Moreover, the study by Meyer et al. (2002) showed that affective commitment is associated with more positive outcomes than both continuance and normative commitment.

Meeting the demand for work and personal roles is one of the priorities of employees (Halpern, 2005b). The employees can perceive an organization that offers support in the form of programs as an entity that is looking for their personal needs (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). The gesture of providing programs to fulfill both domains can enhance the employee-organization relationship. As such, implementing programs that improve WLB can increase the affection of the employee toward the organization.

The availability of health and wellness programs is a strategy that promotes the commitment of the employees. It was shown that programs that enhance health and wellness are predictors of organizational commitment (Mulvaney, 2014). The study by Grawitch, Trares, and

Kohler (2007) showed similar results regarding the positive influence of health and workplace programs on an employee's commitment to the organization. Such programs can be vital in influencing an employee's commitment, especially for those dealing with both job and family stressors. Organizational strain faced by the employees can result in a reduction of their organizational commitment (Bridger, Kilminster, and Slaven, 2006). Therefore, the implementation of wellness programs can be perceived as the organization caring for the well-being of the employees, which can enhance their affection toward the company.

The opportunity to have a higher degree of control in working time and location can be fundamental for employees, which can affect their commitment toward the organization. Halpern (2005a) found a positive relationship between flexible-working programs and organizational commitment. Additionally, work-schedule flexibility has been shown to have a positive effect on organizational commitment (Ng, Butts, Vandenberg, DeJoy, and Wilson, 2006). Offering the opportunity to work at any location can be essential for an employee to meet different demands, which can affect their level of commitment. It was shown that telecommuting programs strengthen the commitment of employees to the organization (Harker Martin and MacDonnell, 2012). As such, it can be beneficial to offer flexible-working programs that support the needs of an employee, which in turn can enhance their affective commitment.

As the importance of meeting family demands has become a priority for employees, it is necessary for organizations to offer family-friendly programs. Such programs can create or enhance an emotional bond between the employees and the organization. Previous studies have shown that some family-friendly programs can affect the organizational commitment of an employee. For example, the meta-analysis by Butts et al., (2013) showed that the availability of family-friendly programs has a positive relationship with affective commitment. Furthermore,

Wang and Walumbwa (2007) found a positive relationship between child-care programs (child-care referral, onsite childcare, and subsidized childcare cost) and organizational commitment. The study by Wang, Lawler, and Shi (2011) showed that those who perceive family-friendly programs as valuable would have a greater organizational commitment than those who do not.

Based on the literature, the fourth hypothesis is the following:

Hypothesis 4: Work-life balance programs will have a positive relationship with affective commitment.

WLB programs and fatigue level

As work and personal demands have increased for employees in recent years, fatigue level has become an important topic for research (Sonnentag and Zijlstra, 2006; DeTienne Agle, Phillips, and Ingerson, 2012; Lerman et al., 2012; Williamson and Friswell, 2013). As such, it is important for organizations to understand the causes of fatigue and how they can support the employee to mitigate the effects. If employees reflect higher levels of fatigue, this may create negative consequences for an organization. For example, employees demonstrating a higher level of fatigue have been shown to be absent more times than those with lower levels (Janssen et al., 2003). Cascio and Boudreau (2010) illustrated that some of the costs associated with absenteeism include the cost of worker replacement, payment for those that manage the absence, reduced quality or quantity, and payment for non-work time.

As a result of the symptoms that constitute fatigue, which includes behavioral and psychosocial factors, studies have offered different definitions to explain this phenomenon. For this study, fatigue is defined as "an overwhelming sense of tiredness, lack of energy and a feeling of exhaustion, associated with impaired physical and/or cognitive functioning; which needs to be distinguished from symptoms of depression, which include a lack of self-esteem, sadness and

despair or hopelessness" (Shen, Barbera, and Shapiro, 2006, p. 70). This definition is appropriate because it provides a clear and broad aspect of the symptoms that relate to fatigue.

Studies have shown that a higher presence of work-life conflict can result in a higher level of fatigue for the employee (Hammig and Bauer, 2009; Bohle, Willaby, Quinlan, and McNamara, 2011). Workplace demands (e.g., workload, extended working hours) and personal demands (e.g., family responsibilities) can overwhelm an employee, which can cause symptoms of fatigue. Furthermore, employees may use their recovery time to fulfill work and personal roles, which affects their fatigue level (Barnes, Wagner, and Ghumman, 2012). As such, organizations need to implement programs to support the need of employees to fulfill the demand of both domains and improve their well-being.

Health and wellness programs have become important in assisting employees in their recovery process. Studies have recommended the need for organizations to implement fatigue risk-management programs, as they can be vital in mitigating fatigue symptoms (Lerman et al., 2012; Sadeghniiat-Haghighi and Yazdi, 2015). Additionally, programs that promote a healthier lifestyle can be fundamental at alleviating employee fatigue derived from work and personal demands. Studies have shown that employees who follow an unhealthy diet, have higher body mass, and do not exercise are prone to reflect higher levels of fatigue (Lim, Hong, Nelesen, and Dimsdale, 2005; Resnick, Carter, Aloia, and Phillips, 2006). As such, providing programs that improve an employee's lifestyle can be essential in improving their recovery process. There is a necessity for the availability of these programs that can reduce fatigue level and promote recovery time, which is necessary to achieve all demands.

The opportunity to choose working shifts and work location can be important factors in alleviating symptoms of fatigue that can have a negative effect on the employees. Flexible-

working programs provide the opportunity for the employees to structure their time and effort to fulfill both work and personal activities. The opportunity to work from any location allows the employee to reduce commuting time and allocate that time and effort to meet the demands of both domains (Gajendran and Harrison, 2007). Furthermore, the opportunity for employees to have a higher degree of control in their working hours and days off reduces fatigue level (Takahashi et al., 2011). Programs that include flexible-working schedule and compressed workweek can be necessary to manage fatigue level. Additionally, the opportunity to have longer breaks during working hours can help create a relaxation period, which can reduce fatigue symptoms. For example, relaxing during the lunch break period can aid in the recovery of the employee, which can decrease fatigue symptoms (Trougakos, Hideg, Cheng, and Beal, 2014).

The intrusion of work responsibilities in the family domain and vice versa can negatively affect the fatigue level of an individual (Erdamar and Demiriel, 2014). This is an issue that can greatly affect the condition of the employees. In addition to work demands, family responsibilities must be met, which reduces the recovery time of the employee leading to a higher fatigue level (Barnes et al., 2012). Organizational support in the form of family-friendly programs can be a resource that supports the employee in fulfilling work and family needs. For example, new parents and those with young children are more prone to experience higher levels of fatigue (Kurth, Kennedy, Spichiger, Hosli, and Stutz, 2011; Giallo, Rose, Cooklin, and McCormack, 2013). This is an issue that companies should consider as it not only affects the individual but also the organization. Programs that include child-care assistance and paternity leave can be indispensable in alleviating fatigue symptoms when fulfilling family responsibilities.

Based on the literature, the fifth hypothesis is the following:

Hypothesis 5: Work-life balance programs will have a negative relationship with fatigue level.

WLB programs and value perception

Since one of the fundamental needs of employees is to achieve WLB, organizations should consider the implementation of WLB programs. While this study promotes the importance of providing WLB programs, there should be a better understanding of how the perception of the value of programs can moderate the relationship between the availability of the programs and different outcomes. WLB programs offer several benefits; the availability of the programs does not guarantee an effect on employees' behavior, as they might not benefit from them (Kim and Ryu, 2017). This is important information for practitioners because the availability of some programs may not have a direct effect on specific organizational outcomes (Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012). Relating to the Social Exchange and COR theories, an employee that perceives a program as crucial to fulfill both work and personal roles may reciprocate those benefits at a higher level than those who view the programs as having a lower value. For example, we cannot assume that the availability of family-friendly programs will be perceived as valuable support to meet work and family demands (Thompson, Jahn, Kopelman, and Prottas, 2004). Therefore, it is crucial for an organization to have a better understanding of the programs that are considered most valuable to achieve WLB. The study by Wang et al. (2011) showed that employees who perceived childcare-related programs as valuable displayed a higher organizational commitment than those who do not. As such, it is necessary to illustrate whether the perception of the value of the programs can influence the relationship between program availability and outcomes.

Based on literature support, we can hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 6: The perceived value of WLB programs will moderate the relationship between availability of WLB programs and employee outcomes.

WLB programs and perceived organizational support

The availability of programs that support an employee to meet personal and work responsibilities can reflect that the company is concerned with employees' well-being. For this study, perceived organizational support (POS) is defined as "a general perception concerning the extent which the organization values employees' general contribution and cares for their well-being" (Eisenberger et al., 1990, p. 51). Providing WLB programs to the employees can symbolize how important the employees are for the success of an organization. Programs that are viewed as useful to manage personal and work responsibilities may enhance an employee perception of the level of support provided by the organization (Lambert, 2000). For example, programs that provide employees control over their work schedules have been shown to enhance the perception that the organization supports employees' needs (Casper and Buffardi, 2004). Since achieving work-life balance is a primary objective of an employee (Darcy et al., 2012), providing WLB programs shows that the organization cares for them, which enhances the perception that the organization supports their well-being.

While the relationship between WLB programs and perceived organizational support has been tested, this study offers a further examination of such relationships. First, prior studies have examined such relationships while focusing on certain programs. For example, studies have shown that a company that offers family-friendly programs will be perceived as supporting the needs for fulfilling family responsibilities of an employee (Allen, 2001; Swody and Powell, 2007; Butts et al., 2013). Secondly, there is a need to examine if differences in national culture will influence such relationships. As stated, this study includes a variety of programs consistently

used in studies (e.g., childcare, flextime) and those rarely taken into consideration (e.g., elder-care support, stress-management programs), which support different aspects of an employee work-life balance. Furthermore, this study examines the relationship in two different countries (U.S. and India), the findings of which may strengthen the generalization for the relationship between WLB programs availability and perceived organizational support. Since WLB is a priority of employees (Darcy et al., 2012), providing WLB programs may positively strengthen the perception of the level of support provided by the organization.

Based on the literature, the seventh hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 7: Work-life balance programs will have a positive relationship with perceived organizational support.

Perceived organizational support and performance

Organizational support can be critical for the success of an employee, which in turn is beneficial to the organization. Since employees may need to fulfill both work and personal responsibilities, support by the organization can signify how valuable the employees are for the company's success. The beneficial treatment provided by the organization may motivate the employees to perform actions that create value for the company (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, and Rhoades, 2001; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). The study by Caesens, Marique, Hanin, and Stinglhamber (2016) showed that when employees perceived a high level of support by the organization, it enhances their proactive behavior, which is beneficial to the company. Providing support to the employee can enhance how well they perform their work responsibilities. High POS can enhance an employee's positive experiences, which leads them to maximize their efforts in the working place (Shaheen and Krishnankutty, 2018).

Based on literature, the eighth hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 8: Perceived organizational support will have a positive relationship with job performance.

Perceived organizational support and deviant workplace behavior

The inability to accomplish the responsibilities assigned to an employee can affect their behavior. As such, the level of support offered by the organization can influence employees' behavior toward the organization. Organizational support is crucial in stressful situations including abusive leadership, fulfilling responsibilities, and work overload. If an employee perceives the lack of support by the organization, it can provoke a negative form of reciprocity, which can lead to negative actions against the company (Eisenberger, Lynch, Aselage, and Rohdieck, 2004). Employees perceiving low support by the organization will have a more negative perception of the company, which can lead to increased deviant behavior (Ferris et al., 2009). Similar findings were presented by the study of Shoss, Eisenberger, Restubog, and Zagenczyk (2013), which illustrated that organizations that offered lowered support increased an employee's participation in deviant behavior against the company. Offering the support required by employees' an important way to decrease their participation in deviant behavior.

Based on literature, the ninth hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 9: Perceived organizational support will have a negative relationship with deviant workplace behavior.

Perceived organizational support and turnover intention

As stressful conditions in the working place can influence an employee's intention to leave an organization, it is important for a company to show support in an employee's work and personal responsibilities. Providing support to enhance work performance and deal with stressful situations reflects that the company cares for the well-being of the employee (George, Reed,

Ballard, Colin, and Fielding, 1993). Demonstrating that the company stands behind the actions and necessities of the employees can improve their relationship with the organization. If an employee perceives support by the organization, it can create an obligation that may lead to reciprocal support through performing actions beneficial to the company (Eisenberger et al., 2001). Studies have shown that higher levels of organizational support positively influence the decision of an employee to remain in the company (Hussain and Asif, 2012; Madden, Mathias, and Madden, 2015). Therefore, it is necessary to provide support to the employees, which will influence their decision to stay.

Based on literature, the tenth hypothesis is:

Hypothesis 10: Perceived organizational support will have a negative relationship with turnover intention.

Perceived organizational support and affective commitment

The level of support provided by an organization can influence their relationship with the employees. Since employees are crucial for the success of an organization, it is necessary for an organization to develop a strong positive relationship with the employees. High support provided by an organization can be regarded as a contribution to an employee's success, which amplifies the affection of an employee toward the company (Eisenberger et al., 1990). Moreover, it fulfills different needs that are essential to the employees. The study by Eisenberger and Stinglhamber, (2011) showed that support by an organization fulfills the emotional needs of an employee, which enhances their affective commitment toward the company. High POS reflects that the company cares about the well-being of their employees, which in turn amplifies an employee's emotional attachment to the organization (Kurtessis et al., 2017). It is expected that the affective

commitment of an employee toward the organization will be stronger when they receive more support in their responsibilities.

Based on literature support, the eleventh hypothesis is the following:

Hypothesis 11: Perceived organizational support will have a positive relationship with affective commitment.

Perceived organizational support and fatigue level

As the level of fatigue can affect the behavior of an employee, it is necessary for the organization to provide support to counteract such phenomenon. The support provided by an organization can help lower the intensity of stressful situations in the working place, which serves to reduce fatigue level (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, and Toth, 1997). The stress to meet work responsibilities diminishes an employee's energy level, resulting in unfulfilling other responsibilities. By examining a sample of nurses, the study by Laschinger, Purdy, Cho, and Almost (2006) showed that nurses that perceived greater support by the organization reflected higher energy levels. Furthermore, Kurtessis et al. (2017) illustrated relatable findings showing a negative relationship between perceived organizational support and burnout. Since fatigue level is an important factor that influences the behavior of an employee, organizations should offer their support to reduce fatigue levels.

Based on literature support, the twelve hypothesis is the following:

Hypothesis 12: Perceived organizational support will have a negative relationship with fatigue level.

As previously discussed in the study, a significant relationship between the availability of WLB programs and POS has been hypothesized. Additionally, the direct effects of POS on the five outcomes (job performance, deviant workplace behavior, turnover intention, affective

commitment, and fatigue level) have been discussed. As such, it is reasonably expected that POS can be considered a mediator between the availability of WLB programs and employee outcomes.

Hypothesis 13: Perceived organizational support will have a significant mediating effect between the availability of WLB programs and employee outcomes.

How important is national culture?

National culture is an important factor that can affect the availability and value perception of WLB programs. Additionally, such programs can have a different impact because of differences in national culture. As such, there might be different results between WLB programs and the respective outcomes when considering the two samples (U.S. and India). This part of the study will illustrate two useful frameworks in management literature that reflect differences in national culture among countries.

Culture is an influential factor that affects business activities including operations management behavior (Pagell, Katz, and Sheu, 2005), cross-border acquisition performance (Morosini, Shane, and Singh, 1998), and consumer financial decision-making (Petersen, Kushwaha, and Kumar, 2015). For this study, culture is defined as "shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant effects that result from common experiences of members of collectives that are transmitted across generations" (House et al., 2004, p. 15).

One of the most recognized and useful frameworks to understand cultural differences is Hofstede's cultural dimensions. Hofstede constructed his framework by analyzing data from IBM employees operating in 40 countries. The dataset consisted of survey responses from a skillfully diverse set of employees, which ranged from the years 1967 to 1973. Hofstede's model

consists of the following cultural dimensions: uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, power distance, masculinity/femininity, long-term orientation, and indulgence/restraint (Hofstede and Hofstede, 1991)**.**

As with any framework, Hofstede's national culture framework has faced some criticism throughout the years. One criticism is the process followed to construct the dimensions, with the main argument that such dimensions are not theoretically derived but only a composition of empirical evidence (Albers-Millers and Gelb, 1996). Another criticism regarding the framework is that such dimensions were derived from data of only one corporation, which restricts generalizing the results (Sivakumar and Nakata, 2001; Lenartowicz and Roth, 2004). Despite such criticism, Hofstede's national culture framework can be considered one of the most recognized in literature (Steenkamp, 2001; Smith, Peterson, and Schwartz, 2002; Kirkman, Lowe, and Gibson, 2006).

In addition to Hofstede's national dimensions, another research program that is crucial for analyzing cultural differences is the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) project (House et al., 2004). The project bases itself on acquired data from 62 societies with a combined representation of 1000 organizations, which were used to construct nine cultural dimensions. While relatively more recent than Hofstede's national dimensions, it has proven to be useful when conducting cross-cultural studies. The GLOBE project represents nine cultural dimensions: performance orientation, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism, future orientation, humane orientation, power distance, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, and uncertainty avoidance. For this study, three cultural dimensions were considered: in-group collectivism, future orientation, and humane orientation.

Like Hofstede's national culture dimensions, the GLOBE project has faced some criticism. Some criticism of the GLOBE project is the sample size, as it is perceived as small, as well as the taxonomy implemented (Graen, 2006). Despite such criticism, the GLOBE project cultural dimensions have been applied in knowledge transfer (Javidan, Stahl, Brodbeck, and Wilderom, 2005), corporate social responsibility (Waldman et al., 2006), and entrepreneurial activities (Ozgen, 2012). Respectively, both Hofstede and GLOBE frameworks offer a unique way to perceive cultural differences, which have been important in the development of cross-cultural studies. While Hofstede's model is a distinguished tool to explain cultural differences, cultural differences between the U.S. and India will be based on the GLOBE project cultural dimensions.

WLB programs at the international level

While the implementation of WLB programs can become important for organizations, there are only a few studies that analyze the impact of such programs in different countries. Most studies have focused on understanding the effects of WLB programs in the United States while ignoring the fact that such programs may not have the same impact on other cultures. Stock et al. (2016) conducted one of the most recent studies that includes the effect of culture, which involved the collection of data from China, India and the United States. The three countries were chosen as a result of their level of individualism/collectivism as the United States is perceived as individualistic, India as having a midrange score, and China as a collectivist country. The study examined how work-family programs can affect both job satisfaction and performance, and whether national culture influences the relationships. Survey data was acquired from managers operating and born in these countries, with the final sample consisting of 150 Americans, 247 Chinese, and 66 Indian respondents. The results of the study showed that work-family programs

have a significant positive effect on job satisfaction and performance only in the United States and India while showing no significant effect in the collectivist society of China.

Another study that analyzes the effect of national culture in WLB programs is the study by Masuda et al. (2012), which also used the dimension of individualism/collectivism to explain the relationship of flexible-working programs and the outcomes of turnover intention and job satisfaction among three country clusters. Surveys were administered to managers from 15 countries to represent three clusters (Anglo, Latin American, and Asian) including the United States, Puerto Rico, Hong Kong, Australia, Taiwan, Canada, United Kingdom, Bolivia, Korea, Japan, China, Peru, Argentina, New Zealand, and Chile. The results of the study showed that managers in the Anglo cluster that work in companies offering flexible-working programs have a higher level of satisfaction and lower turnover intention than managers in the other clusters.

Other studies have analyzed different cultural dimensions to exhibit how culture can influence the usage and availability of WLB practices. For example, Raghuram, London, and Larsen (2001) investigated whether cultural differences determined the usage extent of flexible-working programs. Survey data was acquired from 4,876 companies across 14 European countries. The results showed that part-time work usage relates to individualism and power distance, telework to femininity, and shift work to individualism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance. While only providing a theoretical model, the study by Peters and den Dulk (2003) argued that national culture could affect a manager's decision on providing telework opportunities to the employees. More specifically, they focus on whether a country's level of power distance and uncertainty avoidance will affect a manager's decision in granting an employee's telework request. Table 2.1 shows some of the studies that elucidate the influence of national culture on WLB programs.

Table 2.1: National culture and WLB programs

Programs	Cultural Dimensions	Programs in Study	Citation
Family-friendly programs	Individualism vs. Collectivism	3 Programs	Stock et al. (2016)
Flexible Programs	Individualism vs. Collectivism	4 Programs	Masuda et al. (2012)
Flexible Programs	Uncertainty Avoidance	1 Program	Peters and den Dulk (2003)
Flexible Programs	Power Distance, Individualism, femininity, uncertainty avoidance	5 Programs	Raghuram et al. (2001)

Differences between the United States and India

To show whether national culture can influence the relationship between the availability of WLB programs, perceived organizational support value perception of WLB programs, and employee outcomes, the countries of the United States and India were chosen for several reasons. For example, India is in a different continent and demonstrates some significant cultural differences from the U.S. To contribute to the literature, it is important to analyze countries that have differences as it can allow a better perspective of how culture can influence the relationship between WLB programs and employee outcomes. After analyzing the scores provided by the GLOBE project, the two countries have some differences regarding their national culture especially in the dimensions of in-group collectivism, future orientation, and humane orientation. This can provide a better understanding of whether difference between the U.S. and India will influence the relationship between WLB programs and employee outcomes.

In-group collectivism can be defined as "the degree in which individuals express pride, loyalty, and cohesiveness in their organizations or families (House et al., 2004, p.463). For this dimension, the U.S. has a score of 4.25 (medium), and India has a score of 5.92 (relatively high). The scores reveal that individuals in India show a higher level of cohesiveness and loyalty toward their families or organizations than those in the United States.

Future orientation relates to the extent a person performs future-oriented actions. In regard to future orientation, the U.S. has a score of 4.15 (medium), and India has a score of 4.19 (medium). Based on the scores, individuals in India are more inclined to engage in behavior that is future-oriented than those that reside in the U.S.

House et al. (2004) defined humane orientation as "the degree to which a collective encourages and rewards individuals for being fair, altruist, generous, caring, and kind to others" (p. 569). In regard to humane orientation, the U.S. has a score of 4.17 (medium) and India has a score of 4.57 (medium). Based on this information, Indian society encourages their citizens to be fair and caring to others to a higher degree than U.S. society.

To have a better visual understanding of the differences in culture between the U.S. and India, Figure 2.1 was included to show the differences based on the national dimensions' scores from the GLOBE project. The figure was created with information from the Globe Project website (GLOBE, 2004). The figure shows the differences in the cultural dimensions of in-group collectivism, future orientation, and human orientation. Since it is necessary to show the perception of a country's national culture, the study adopts the practice scores (current practices) rather than the value scores (what they should be). This method differentiates what is currently practiced from what the cultural dimension should be.

Figure 2.1: Cultural dimensions in the U.S. and India (GLOBE, 2004)
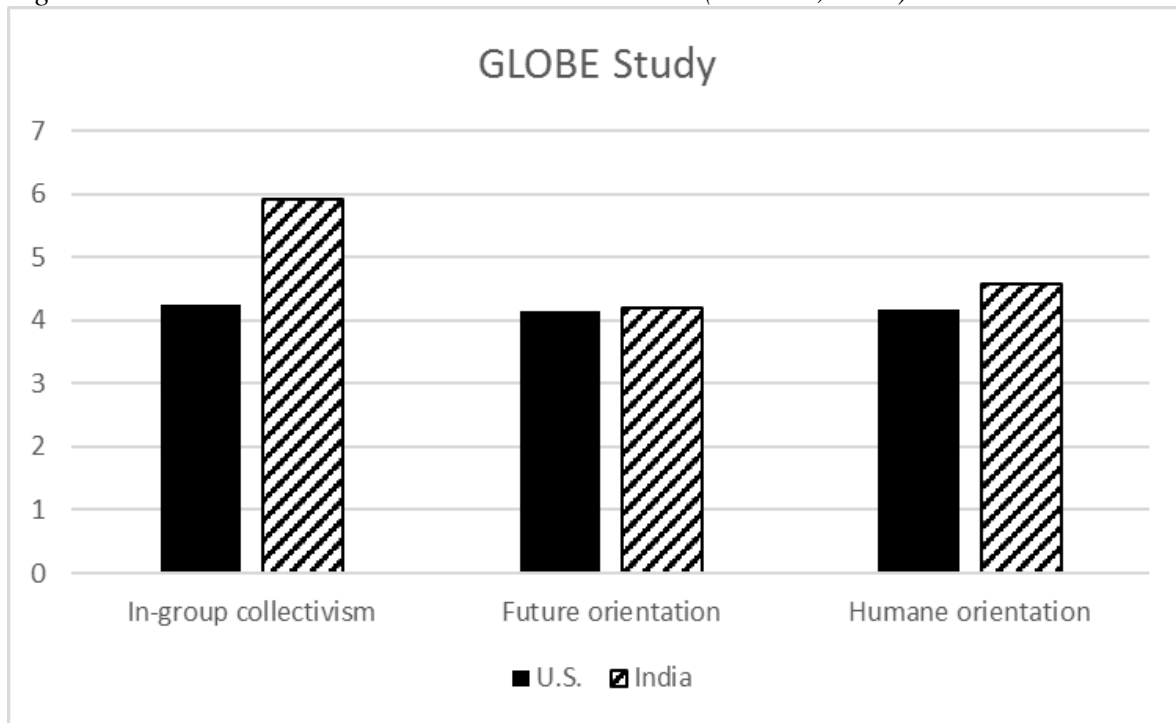
While there are differences between the national culture of the United States and India, other differences set the countries apart. One significant difference is the economic development of the two countries. While the United States is a developed economy, India is classified as a developing country. Based on the 2016 data from The World Bank (2017), the GDP per capita in the U.S. was $57,638, and in India was $1,717. The information provided reflects a disparity between the economies of both countries. The total population in the U.S. was 323,127,513, and India showed a total population of 1,324,171,354. Differences in economic development can influence the number of work-life balance programs a company can offer to the employees.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Structural Equation Modeling

While every statistical technique exhibits unique benefits and disadvantages, for this

study, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) will be implemented. While the statistical technique

of SEM emerged during the 1970s, it has been implemented extensively in the areas of social

science, psychology, and sociology (Golob, 2003). Several scholars prefer to perform regression

analysis; however, SEM can offer other benefits that fit with the design of this study. Dion

(2008) emphasized four benefits that you can receive from implementing SEM techniques that

you may not acquire using regression:

1. SEM estimates all coefficients in the model simultaneously. This allows the

   researcher to analyze a specific relationship's level of strength and significance

   while being part of a model.

2. While an independent variable may become a dependent variable in other models,

   regression may not be effective in managing such case without the implementation

   of hierarchical regression.

3. While recurring issues can be seen in multiple regression in the form of

   multicollinearity, in SEM it can be modeled and assessed.

4. If latent variables are implemented in SEM, measurement error will be removed,

   which consequently result in obtaining more valid coefficients.

PLS

For this study, the implementation of SEM will be necessary; however, it needs to be

specified what type of SEM technique will be used. There are two types of SEM techniques that

have been displayed in the form of component-based (e.g., PLS) and covariance-based (e.g., LISREL, EQS), which can provide different benefits (Hsu, Chen, and Hsieh, 2006). For this study, the PLS approach will be implemented as it can provide various benefits not offered in other SEM techniques. One of those benefits is that observation independence, or variable metric uniformity is not required in PLS (Sosik, Kahai, and Piovoso, 2009; Kock, 2010). Another benefit of PLS is the level of efficiency in working with a sample size considered small than other methods, which can be common in some studies (Kock, 2010). Finally, the implementation of PLS will offer this study a higher level of reliability when testing the different measurement items that will be used to test the model that has been depicted (Kock, 2010).

WarpPLS

While there are different PLS statistical software, the implementation of WarpPLS will be more appropriate for this study. For example, WarpPLS provides the opportunity to implement both reflective and formative variables in the same model. Other PLS software does not offer this type of luxury, which can be necessary for this study. The first version of WarpPLS was released during 2009, and the most recent version, WarpPLS 6.0, was released in 2017. The newest version provides different features that can contribute to a better analysis of the model implemented in this study. One of the main features is the offering of a variety of factor-based PLS algorithms which based themselves on Dijkstra's consistent PLS technique that reflects a reliability measure with a closer approximation than other PLS contexts (Kock, 2018). Other features make the use of WarpPLS 6.0 adequate for this study. The other features are providing an estimate of the necessary minimum sample size, explore full latent growth, usage of t-ratios to assess path coefficients' statistical significance and the opportunity to use instrumental variables to control and test for endogeneity (Kock, 2018). Based on what WarpPLS 6.0 can offer, this is

the adequate PLS software to use for this study.

Hypotheses to be tested

Table 3.1 provides a list of the hypotheses that were developed to be tested and to

contribute to the work-life literature.

Table 3.1: List of hypotheses

H1	WLB programs availability will have a positive relationship with job performance.
H2	WLB programs availability will have a negative relationship with deviant workplace behavior.
H3	WLB programs availability will have a negative relationship with turnover intention.
H4	WLB programs availability will have a positive relationship with affective commitment.
H5	WLB programs availability will have a negative relationship with fatigue level.
H6	The perceived value of WLB programs will moderate the relationship between WLB programs and employee outcomes.
H7	WLB programs availability will have a positive relationship with perceived organizational support.
H8	Perceived organizational support will have a positive relationship with job performance.
H9	Perceived organizational support will have a negative relationship with deviant workplace behavior.
H10	Perceived organizational support will have a negative relationship with turnover intention.
H11	Perceived organizational support will have a positive relationship with affective commitment.
H12	Perceived organizational support will have a negative relationship with fatigue level.
H13	Perceived organizational support will have a significant mediating effect between WLB programs availability and employee outcomes.
H14	There are significant differences for the results between the U.S. and India.

Measurements

The following paragraphs provide more information in regards to the variables that are

used to test the hypotheses developed for this study.

Independent variable

To test this model, this study implements a scale to measure the perceived availability of work-life balance programs. To assess the availability of WLB programs, the items asked the respondents whether their organization offer the programs listed in the study. More specifically, the respondents will answer the following question sample "Does your workplace provide

_____." Respondents will answer "yes" if a program is being offered and "no" if a program is not offered. Responses for each item will be dummy coded into 1 for "no" and 2 for "yes." The list of programs used in the scale is derived from an extensive literature review, suggestions of HR professionals, and information from The Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM). The scale includes programs that have been frequently used in studies including flextime, parental leave, and telecommuting (see Table D in Appendix D). Additionally, the scale incorporates health and wellness programs that can support an employee's WLB which include professional counseling and weight management programs (Willis Americas, 2011). WLB programs availability is operationalized using a second-order LV, which is measured by using family-friendly programs, flexible working programs, and health and wellness programs to create this construct (Kock, 2011). Table A, in Appendix A, displays a description of some of the programs that will help the respondents to have a better understanding of the WLB programs.

Dependent variables

To measure job performance, this study implements an adaptation of Mayfield and Mayfield (2006), which was derived from Mott´s team performance measure (Mott, 1972). Cronbach's alpha of the scale was shown to be 0.93. An example of one of the items is "How does the level of production compare to that of your colleagues' production levels". The scale is

composed of nine items. The items display used for this variable displays several aspects that illustrate an employee's performance. A seven-point scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree will be used for all the indicators.

To measure turnover intention, this study adopted seven items from the scale developed by Mayfield and Mayfield (2007). Cronbach's alpha of the scale was shown to be 0.75. The composition of the scale is derived from two subscales, which are as follow: one focuses on an employee's feelings in regard with continuing being part of the organizations, and the other one focuses on an employee's desire to leave the organization. An example of one of the items is "I would prefer to be working at another organization". The importance of the scale is that it captures both negative and positive feelings of an employee's intention to stay in the organization they are working. For each indicator, a seven-point scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree will be used.

To measure affective commitment, this study adopted the five items from Meyer and Allen (1997) book *Commitment in the Workplace: Theory, Research, and Application*. Three components (affective, normative, and continuance) of organizational commitment were proposed by Meyer and Allen (1991), which they provided a reliable scale to measure them (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Meyer and Allen, 1997). All three measurement scales have demonstrated good validity and reliability. For the affective commitment scale, it was shown to have a (median reliability) Cronbach's alphas of 0.85 (Meyer and Allen, 1997). An example of one of the items is "I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own". For each indicator, a seven-point scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree was used.

To measure organizational deviance behavior, this study adopted 8 of 12 items from the scale developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000). As the questionnaire include too many

questions, the eight questions that can better capture an employee's involvement in organizational deviant behavior were chosen. The Cronbach's alpha of the scale was shown to be 0.81. Items reflect an employee's behavior that can be harmful to the organization. An example of one of the items is "Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working". For each indicator, a five-point scale ranging from 1=never to 5=every time was used.

To measure fatigue level, this study adopted seven items from the scale developed by Van Yperen and Hagedoorn (2003). The items on the scale reflect the level of degree an employee feels fatigue after the working shift and their need to recover. The Cronbach's Alpha for the fatigue scale was shown to be high at 0.87. An example of one of the items is "Do to my job, I feel rather exhausted at the end of a working day". For each indicator, a seven-point scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree was used.

To measure perceived organizational support, this study adopted eight of the 36 items from the scale developed by Eisenberger et al., (1986). The study by Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch (1997) used the shorter version of eight items, which are the same ones used for this research. As the longer version has too many items, the shorter version is a better option for this study. The Cronbach's Alpha for the shorter version of the perceived organizational support scale was shown to be 0.90. An example of one of the items is "My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor". For each indicator, a seven-point scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree was used.

Table 3.2 shows the independent variable, moderating variable and the six dependent variables used for the study. The information provided includes the number of items used, sources of the variables, and Cronbach's Alpha for each scale. This provides more knowledge to the readers in regards to how the hypotheses will be examined. As such, it is important to the

reader to be familiarized with variables.

Moderating variable

To assess the perceived value of work-life balance programs, this study adopted the measurement method by Muse et al. (2008). Muse et al. (2008) asked respondents to indicate, "How valuable do you think _____ is or could be in the future to you and your family? This measure considers the present value in addition to programs' potential future value. In the study, the items only measure the present value by asking the following "How valuable do you think flextime is for you and your family." In the present, an employee has a better understanding of the value of the programs while there is uncertainty in the future as different factors can influence this perception. For each indicator, a seven-point scale ranging from 1=Not at all valuable to 5=extremely valuable was used. This will provide a better understanding of the value perception of the programs. WLB programs perceived value is also operationalized as a second-order variable, which uses the three latent variables of family-friendly, flexible-working, and health and wellness programs to create this construct (Kock, 2011).

Control variables

To have accurate results, the study incorporated some control variables used in previous studies regarding this topic, which include gender, age, and the number of children. Both gender and age have been included frequently as control variables in work-life literature. Therefore, they are necessary to include in this study. While not commonly used as a control variable, the number of children under eighteen an employee has can be an important factor that relates to employee outcomes. As such, including this variable can provide interesting results. Other demographic variables included in this study are industry, marital status, and educational level.

Table 3.2: Variables used for the study

Variable	Source	Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Scale
Work-life balance programs availability and value perception	Literature, Human Resources Professionals, Willis Americas (2011)	14 items		1=No 2=Yes 1 (Not at all valuable) to 5 (Extremely valuable)
Perceived Organizational Support	Eisenberger et al., (1997)	8 items	0.90	1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree)
Job Performance	Mayfield and Mayfield (2006)	9 items	0.93	1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree)
Affective Organizational Commitment	Meyer and Allen (1997)	5 items	0.85	1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree)
Deviant Workplace Behavior	Bennett and Robinson (2000)	8 items	0.81	1 (Never) to 5 (Every time)
Turnover Intention	Mayfield and Mayfield (2007)	7 items	0.75	1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree)
Fatigue Level	Van Yperen and Hagedoorn (2003)	7 items	0.87	1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree)

Data collection

The sample for this study consists of individuals from the U.S. and India. A survey method was conducted to test the model and show the importance of implementing WLB programs for the employees. The collection of data by using online surveys was acquired by using Mechanical Turk. This site is a useful method to acquire responses from a diverse set of individuals. There are two primary reasons for the use of this site. First, the study by Buhrmester, Kwang, and Gosling (2011) showed that the responses provided by the individuals using Mechanical Turk can be considered a generalization of an entire population. Secondly, the study by Peer, Vosgerau, and Acquisti (2014) illustrated that Mechanical Turk respondents provide more honest answers as a result of the worker reputation mechanism implemented by the site.

Usage of online surveys offers a diverse sample of employees that include differences in age, industry, marital status, and educational level. The sample in this research consists of 219 respondents from the U.S. and 159 from India. Since English is considered an official language of India, the English questionnaire was provided to the respondents from India.

U.S. Sample

The characteristics of the respondents from the U.S. offers a diverse sample pool. The majority of the U.S. sample are female (53.88%), while 46.12% are male. In relation to the respondents' highest level of education attained, the majority (49.22%) have attained a bachelor's degree, 15.98% have attained a master, 2.28% a doctorate, and 23.29% some college. The marital status of the U.S. respondents is the following: 26.48% are single, 14.61% are in a relationship, 51.14% are married, 5.48% are divorced, and 2.28% are widowed. Based on the information in regards to parenthood, 19.63% have two children, 20.55% have only one, 6.39% have 3 children, 1.37% four or more, and 52.05% have none. In terms of age, the highest percentage of respondents are between the ages of 26 and 35 years old (44.75%), followed by those between 36 and 45 years old (21.46%).

Indian Sample

The following are some of the characteristics associated with the Indian sample. The majority of the Indian sample are male (54.72%) while 44.65% are female. The data showed that (66.04%) of the respondents have attained a bachelor's degree, 24.53% have attained a master, 0.63% a doctorate, and 7.55% some college. In terms of the marital status of the Indian sample, 28.93% are single, 3.14% are in a relationship, 66.67% are married, and 1.26% are widowed. Based on the information in regards to parenthood, 22.64% have two children, 38.36% have only one, 1.26% have 3 children, and 37.34% have none. The age of the respondents is diverse as the

highest percentage of respondents are between the ages of 26 and 35 years old (62.26%),

followed by those between 36 and 45 years old (20.75%). Table 3.3 presents the differences in

demographics between the sample of the United States and India.

Table 3.3: Demographics of respondents

Characteristic	Criteria	U.S. Sample	India Sample
Gender	Males Females NA	101 (46.12%) 118 (53.88%) 0　　(0%)	87 (54.72%) 71 (44.65%) 1　(0.63%)
Highest Educational Level	No education Elementary Middle school High school Some college Bachelors Masters Doctorate	0　　(0%) 0　　(0%) 1　　(0.46%) 18　(8.22%) 51　(23.29%) 108 (49.32%) 35　(15.98%) 5　　(2.28%)	0　　(0%) 0　　(0%) 0　　(0%) 2　(1.26%) 12　(7.55%) 105 (66.04%) 39　(24.53%) 1　(0.63%)
Age	18-25 years 26-35 years 36-45 years 46-55 years 56 or above	20　(9.13%) 98 (44.75%) 47　(21.46%) 32　(14.61%) 22　(10.05%)	22　(13.84%) 99 (62.26%) 33　(20.75%) 4　(2.52%) 1　(0.61%)
Marital Status	Single In a relationship Married Divorced Widowed	58　(26.48%) 32　(14.61%) 112 (51.14%) 12　(5.48%) 5　(2.28%)	46　(28.93%) 5　(3.14%) 106 (66.67%) 0　(0%) 2　(1.26%)
Number of Children under 18	None 1 2 3 4 or more	114 (52.05%) 45　(20.55%) 43　(19.63%) 14　(6.39%) 3　(1.37%)	60　(37.34%) 61　(38.36%) 36　(22.64%) 2　(1.26%) 0　(0%)
Tenure	0-1 years 1-5 years 6-10 years 11-20 years 21 years or more	8　(3.65%) 112 (51.14%) 64　(29.22%) 27　(12.33%) 7　(3.20%)	7　(4.40%) 98 (61.64%) 38　(23.90%) 14　(8.81%) 2　(1.26%)
Responsible for elderly family members	No Yes	167 (76.26%) 52　(23.74%)	19　(11.95%) 140 (88.05%)

Notes: U.S, N=219; India N=159

Table 3.3 Continued

Characteristic	Criteria	U.S. Sample	India Sample
Industry	Consumer-discretionary	19 (8.7%)	2 (1.3%)
	Consumer– staples	11 (5%)	6 (3.8%)
	Energy	0 (0%)	9 (5.6%)
	Financial	33 (15.1%)	32 (20.1%)
	Government	10 (4.6%)	7 (4.4%)
	Health care	30 (13.7%)	17 (10.7%)
	Industrials	17 (7.8%)	14 (8.8%)
	Information technology	30 (13.7%)	54 (34%)
	Materials extraction	3 (1.4%)	0 (0%)
	Real estate	7 (3.2%)	0 (0%)
	Telecommunication	5 (2.3%)	10 (6.3%)
	Services	3 (1.4%)	1 (.6%)
	Utilities	49 (22.8%)	7 (4.4%)
	Other	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
	NA	1 (.3%)	0 (0%)

Notes: U.S, N=219; India, N=159

Descriptive statistics

To obtain a better understanding of the variables used for this study, Table 3.4 presents their means and standard deviations. After analyzing the means and standard deviations of the variables, there are some differences between both samples. The major mean differences concern the availability of WLB programs, value perception of WLB programs, turnover intention, deviant workplace behavior, and fatigue level. The mean for the availability of WLB programs is higher for India (Mean=1.61; SD=.489) than the U.S. (Mean=1.45; SD=.498). In regards to the value perception of WLB programs, India reports a higher value (Mean=3.68; SD=1.44) than the U.S. (Mean=3.32; SD=1.265). The mean for turnover intention is higher for India (4.45; SD=1.674) than the U.S (3.41; SD=1.801). Respondents from India reflect a higher mean with respect to deviant workplace behavior (Mean=2.34; SD=1.190) than those respondents from the U.S. (Mean=1.76; SD=.960). The mean in respect to fatigue level was higher in India (4.18; SD=1.625) than in the U.S. (3.52; SD=1.753).

Table 3.4: Variables' means and standard deviations

	U.S.		India	
Variable	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
WLB Programs Availability	1.45	.498	1.61	.489
WLB Programs Value	3.32	1.265	3.68	1.044
Job Performance	3.47	1.035	3.46	.987
Turnover Intention	3.41	1.801	4.45	1.674
Affective Commitment	4.67	1.701	4.56	1.673
Deviant Workplace Behavior	1.76	0.960	2.34	1.190
Fatigue Level	3.52	1.753	4.18	1.625
Perceived Organizational Support	4.78	1.570	4.86	1.481

Note: U.S, N=219; India, N=159

Manipulation check

Since the countries of the U.S. and India are used for the international part of the study, it is crucial to confirm that the respondents reflect the national culture dimensions of their respective countries. Therefore, 12 questions were incorporated in the survey representing three dimensions of the GLOBE project: in-group collectivism, future orientation, and humane orientation. Based on the scores previously shown in figure 2.1, it is expected that there would be significant differences in regards to these three dimensions. The manipulation check was conducted through the usage of WarpPLS 6.0. Questions used to measure national culture are located in Appendix B. To conduct the test, a country dummy variable was created to verify country comparison. The cultural dimensions were created as a latent variable, which were composed of cultural indicators from the GLOBE study. A significant relationship between the dummy variable and a cultural dimension will represent that the sample represents their respective countries. Table 3.5 illustrates the results of the manipulation check.

Table 3.5: Cultural manipulation check

	Beta	p-value
Future Orientation	-0.35	<.05
In-group Collectivism	-0.15	<.01
Humane Orientation	-0.01	0.44 [NS]

Notes: U.S, N=219; India, N=159; NS=non-significant

Based on the results of the manipulation check, there are some significant differences between the U.S and India. There are some significant differences in the cultural dimensions of future orientation and in-group collectivism. For the cultural dimension of humane orientation, no significant difference was found. In accordance with the GLOBE study results, both samples represent their respective country.

Model Assessment

The model for this study was assessed by testing for the following: validity, reliability, collinearity, and model fit. After the model was analyzed through the implementation of WarpPLS 6.0, the tests successfully passed the cut-off levels.

Validity

To ensure a successful study, it is crucial to prove the validity of the measurement model. Verifying the validity of the study serves to demonstrate that the measurement model is strong (Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson, 2009). Discriminant validity illustrates that a measurement instrument is quality level and if the measures differentiate from the other latent variable implemented for the study (Hair, Anderson, and Tatham, 1998; Kock, 2018). A method to assess discriminant validity is to examine the latent variables' average variances extracted (AVEs). Discriminant validity is shown if the square roots of the AVE related to the latent variable is higher than any other correlation involving the latent variable (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

Tables 3.6 and 3.7 illustrates the AVEs for the U.S. and India. Based on the results, it is

concluded that both samples pass the discriminant validity test.

Table 3.6: Correlations matrix between latent variables and square roots of AVEs for U.S.

	WLBPA	JP	TI	AC	DB	POS	FL	WLBPV
WLBPA	**(0.792)**	0.134	-0.015	0.263	0.059	0.241	0.009	0.206
JP	0.134	**(0.808)**	-0.180	0.341	-0.172	0.371	-0.175	0.260
TI	-0.015	-0.180	**(0.846)**	-0.481	0.407	-0.455	0.390	0.125
AC	0.263	0.341	-0.481	**(0.855)**	-0.086	0.665	-0.143	0.179
DB	0.059	-0.172	0.407	-0.086	**(0.737)**	-0.169	0.352	0.028
POS	0.241	0.371	-0.455	0.665	-0.169	**(0.841)**	-0.259	0.166
FL	0.009	-0.175	0.390	-0.143	0.352	-0.259	**(0.815)**	0.137
WLBPV	0.206	0.260	0.125	0.179	0.028	0.166	0.137	**(0.797)**

Notes: WLBPA=WLB programs availability; JP=job performance; TI=turnover intention; AC=affective organizational
commitment; DB=Deviant workplace behavior; POS=perceived organizational support; FL=fatigue level; WLBPV=WLB
programs value; N=219.

Table 3.7: Correlations matrix between latent variables and square roots of AVEs for India.

	WLBPA	JP	TI	AC	DB	POS	FL	WLBPV
WLBPA	**(0.805)**	0.044	0.250	0.207	0.458	0.263	0.367	0.121
JP	0.044	**(0.653)**	-0.099	0.375	-0.310	0.359	-0.096	0.488
TI	0.250	-0.099	**(0.778)**	-0.215	0.419	-0.148	0.483	0.041
AC	0.207	0.357	-0.215	**(0.797)**	-0.077	0.719	-0.016	0.367
DB	0.458	-0.310	0.419	-0.077	**(0.733)**	-0.062	0.574	-0.143
POS	0.263	0.359	-0.148	0.719	-0.063	**(0.762)**	-0.011	0.275
FL	0.367	-0.096	0.483	-0.016	0.574	-0.011	**(0.783)**	0.116
WLBPV	0.121	0.488	0.041	0.367	-0.143	0.275	0.116	**(0.814)**

Notes: WLBPA=WLB programs availability; JP=job performance; TI=turnover intention; AC=affective organizational
commitment; DB=Deviant workplace behavior; POS=perceived organizational support; FL=fatigue level; WLBPV=WLB
programs value; N=159

Convergent validity was examined to ensure that the respondents perceived the same

meaning to the question-statements related with each latent variable the same way as the

researcher of the study (Kock, 2018). To verify acceptable convergent validity, structure or

combined loadings for the indicators should be equal or above 0.5 (Hair et al., 2009).

Table 3.8: Combined loadings and cross-loadings for latent variables for U.S.

	WLBPA	JP	TI	AC	DB	POS	FL	WLBPV
LV_FFP	(0.812)	0.066	-0.095	-0.070	-0.039	-0.047	0.077	0.010
LV_FWP	(0.769)	-0.034	0.178	0.178	0.012	-0.019	-0.131	0.031
LV_HWP	(0.793)	-0.034	-0.043	-0.101	0.028	0.067	0.048	-0.040
EP1	0.037	(0.819)	0.066	0.025	-0.179	-0.009	-0.013	0.041
EP2	0.095	(0.806)	0.186	0.178	-0.035	-0.036	0.027	0.000
EP3	0.007	(0.842)	0.109	0.132	-0.029	-0.135	-0.071	0.048
EP4	-0.129	(0.774)	0.039	-0.150	0.038	0.120	0.038	0.012
EP5	0.042	(0.803)	-0.007	-0.117	-0.021	0.121	0.042	-0.171
EP6	-0.077	(0.826)	-0.050	-0.009	-0.055	-0.009	-0.025	-0.027
EP7	0.094	(0.807)	-0.026	0.040	0.171	-0.036	0.001	0.000
EP8	0.025	(0.777)	-0.186	-0.164	0.142	0.041	-0.042	0.023
EP9	-0.095	(0.819)	-0.078	0.046	-0.020	-0.043	0.046	0.071
TI2	0.017	0.029	(0.811)	-0.091	-0.122	0.167	0.056	-0.003
TI3	0.009	-0.022	(0.864)	0.108	0.063	-0.133	-0.042	0.021
TI5	-0.009	-0.025	(0.877)	-0.017	0.003	-0.130	0.018	-0.034
TI7	-0.015	0.021	(0.831)	-0.006	0.041	0.133	-0.030	0.018
AC1	0.049	0.044	-0.175	(0.859)	0.018	0.035	-0.010	0.035
AC2	-0.031	0.000	0.044	(0.859)	-0.055	-0.040	0.010	-0.064
AC3	-0.019	-0.046	0.133	(0.846)	0.037	0.004	0.000	0.029
DB1	-0.029	-0.043	0.053	0.011	(0.659)	-0.027	0.036	0.040
DB2	0.013	0.085	-0.090	-0.171	(0.718)	0.114	0.128	0.211
DB3	-0.007	-0.002	-0.054	-0.128	(0.814)	0.122	0.062	0.163
DB4	-0.039	-0.066	0.127	0.093	(0.814)	-0.078	-0.078	-0.068
DB5	-0.093	0.010	0.121	-0.034	(0.767)	0.137	-0.018	-0.097
DB6	-0.075	-0.043	0.023	0.195	(0.614)	-0.109	-0.198	-0.050
DB7	0.055	-0.029	-0.211	-0.129	(0.715)	0.010	0.108	-0.095
DB8	0.163	0.017	0.019	0.186	(0.770)	-0.189	-0.058	-0.106
OS1	-0.037	-0.050	-0.018	0.030	-0.027	(0.831)	0.026	0.009
OS2	-0.025	-0.059	-0.022	0.012	0.029	(0.841)	-0.035	0.076
OS4	0.041	0.037	0.014	0.075	0.116	(0.851)	-0.060	-0.070
OS5	0.031	0.004	-0.030	-0.036	0.133	(0.852)	-0.022	0.013
OS6	0.024	-0.032	0.033	-0.009	-0.131	(0.879)	-0.017	0.015
OS7	-0.039	0.107	0.022	-0.075	-0.125	(0.788)	0.177	-0.045
FL1	-0.002	0.025	-0.023	0.013	0.014	0.017	(0.750)	0.040
FL2	-0.042	-0.028	-0.009	-0.174	-0.180	0.119	(0.800)	0.026
FL3	0.045	0.003	0.004	0.073	0.027	0.034	(0.855)	-0.020
FL4	-0.024	-0.073	-0.016	0.045	-0.031	-0.021	(0.859)	-0.016
FL5	0.056	-0.029	0.174	0.193	0.038	-0.091	(0.752)	-0.098
FL6	-0.066	0.062	-0.070	-0.025	0.030	-0.069	(0.872)	0.060
FL7	0.041	0.040	-0.043	-0.177	0.103	0.012	(0.806)	0.000
LV_FFPV	-0.137	-0.006	-0.060	-0.063	-0.008	-0.015	-0.009	(0.827)
LV_FWPV	-0.052	0.018	0.090	-0.033	0.040	0.056	-0.140	(0.796)
LV_HWPV	0.202	-0.012	-0.029	0.102	-0.033	-0.043	0.154	(0.767)

Notes: WLBPA=WLB programs availability; JP=job performance; TI=turnover intention; AC=affective organizational commitment; DB=Deviant workplace behavior, POS=perceived organizational support; FL=fatigue level; WLBPV=WLB programs value; N=219

Table 3.9: Combined loadings and cross-loadings for latent variables for India

	WLBPA	JP	TI	AC	DB	POS	FL	WLBPV
LV_FFP	(0.780)	0.024	0.106	0.086	0.122	-0.017	-0.001	-0.079
LV_FWP	(0.755)	0.011	-0.108	0.017	-0.025	0.017	0.073	0.055
LV_HWP	(0.856)	-0.031	0.001	-0.094	-0.089	0.000	-0.065	0.022
EP1	0.071	(0.672)	0.077	0.205	-0.309	-0.038	0.049	-0.033
EP2	-0.002	(0.653)	0.163	-0.065	0.058	0.254	-0.108	0.098
EP3	0.229	(0.684)	-0.105	-0.088	-0.084	0.028	0.013	-0.022
EP4	0.094	(0.623)	0.068	-0.101	-0.041	-0.049	-0.144	0.063
EP5	-0.071	(0.701)	-0.055	0.078	-0.006	-0.152	-0.026	0.112
EP6	-0.168	(0.614)	-0.065	0.286	0.224	-0.221	0.056	0.052
EP7	-0.149	(0.631)	-0.033	-0.143	0.120	0.261	0.056	-0.208
EP8	0.038	(0.685)	0.035	0.173	0.011	-0.241	-0.042	-0.189
EP9	-0.068	(0.604)	-0.089	-0.381	0.061	0.190	0.028	0.138
TI2	-0.115	0.125	(0.680)	0.163	-0.150	0.072	0.059	-0.069
TI3	-0.073	-0.093	(0.853)	-0.144	0.181	0.031	-0.062	0.111
TI5	0.013	-0.020	(0.810)	-0.017	0.074	-0.220	0.045	0.118
TI7	0.172	0.014	(0.760)	0.034	-0.147	0.135	-0.031	-0.189
AC1	0.076	-0.027	-0.105	(0.833)	-0.055	0.230	0.084	0.010
AC2	-0.003	-0.057	0.069	(0.763)	-0.030	-0.284	-0.017	-0.046
AC3	-0.076	0.083	0.044	(0.793)	0.087	0.031	-0.071	0.034
DB1	0.013	-0.088	0.158	-0.068	(0.721)	0.222	0.074	-0.096
DB2	0.001	0.061	-0.008	-0.047	(0.748)	0.105	0.268	-0.203
DB3	0.064	0.013	-0.042	0.109	(0.728)	-0.133	-0.059	-0.059
DB4	-0.105	0.037	-0.037	-0.108	(0.801)	-0.030	-0.074	0.024
DB5	-0.111	-0.039	0.103	0.175	(0.801)	-0.088	-0.045	0.004
DB6	-0.065	0.135	-0.068	-0.024	(0.801)	-0.018	-0.186	0.037
DB7	0.046	-0.041	-0.110	0.004	(0.766)	-0.056	0.157	0.107
DB8	0.164	-0.082	0.011	-0.041	(0.812)	0.014	-0.107	0.160
OS1	0.022	-0.046	0.112	0.266	-0.113	(0.837)	0.002	0.016
OS2	-0.125	-0.064	0.040	-0.119	0.088	(0.803)	-0.058	0.172
OS4	-0.058	0.202	0.042	0.178	0.115	(0.761)	-0.039	-0.197
OS5	0.125	-0.067	0.188	0.064	-0.124	(0.744)	0.056	-0.183
OS6	0.084	-0.013	-0.104	-0.072	-0.014	(0.787)	-0.017	-0.053
OS7	-0.063	-0.004	-0.383	-0.383	0.074	(0.580)	0.078	0.315
FL1	-0.112	-0.023	0.084	0.056	0.040	-0.057	(0.803)	0.104
FL2	-0.139	0.100	-0.075	0.163	0.056	-0.051	(0.720)	-0.034
FL3	0.187	-0.154	0.009	-0.177	-0.187	0.213	(0.768)	0.103
FL4	0.025	-0.089	-0.059	0.115	-0.112	-0.148	(0.832)	0.091
FL5	-0.032	0.034	0.033	-0.154	-0.027	0.194	(0.741)	-0.163
FL6	0.040	0.104	-0.104	0.081	0.054	-0.199	(0.824)	-0.099
FL7	0.021	0.035	0.115	-0.095	0.168	0.081	(0.782)	-0.015
LV_FFPV	0.094	0.012	0.088	-0.063	-0.224	-0.020	0.010	(0.814)
LV_FWPV	-0.118	0.217	0.040	0.094	0.103	0.028	0.013	(0.830)
LV_HWPV	0.027	-0.238	-0.131	-0.034	0.122	-0.009	-0.024	(0.798)

Notes: WLBPA=WLB programs availability; JP=job performance; TI=turnover intention; AC=affective organizational commitment; DB=Deviant workplace behavior, POS=perceived organizational support; FL=fatigue level; WLBPV=WLB programs value; N=159

Shown in both tables are those indicators (gray) that demonstrated a loading higher than 0.5. Items that did not meet the criteria were eliminated and the models were retested. Items that were eliminated from both samples that did not meet the threshold are TI1, TI4, TI6, AC4, AC5, OS3, and OS8, which belongs to turnover intention, affective commitment, and perceived organizational support constructs. The items removed were reversed items that did not met the threshold criteria. Including reverse items in a study can lead to undesired effect that include lower reliability and distortion of the factor structure (Schriesheim, Eisenbach, and Hill, 1991; Marsh, 1996).

Reliability

Reliability examines if the questions-statements implemented for the study reflect the same or similar results when used multiple times (Nunnally, 1978; Kock, 2018). Acceptable reliability demonstrates consistency of the measurements. To ensure acceptable reliability, Cronbach's Alpha needs to be at the level of 0.7 or higher (Kock, 2018). Composite reliability is also considered an alternative form to measure the reliability of the instruments. In the same manner as observing the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient, a threshold of 0.7 or higher demonstrates good reliability (Nunally, 1978). Table 3.10 and 3.11 illustrate both composite reliability and Cronbach's Alpha for both samples. As shown in both tables, the coefficients for both samples are above the threshold of 0.7, which demonstrates good internal consistency.

Table 3.10: Latent variable reliability coefficients for US

	WLBPA	JP	TI	AC	DB	POS	FL	WLBPV
Composite Reliability	0.834	0.944	0.910	0.891	0.904	0.935	0.932	0.839
Cronbach's Alpha	0.702	0.934	0.868	0.816	0.878	0.917	0.915	0.712

Notes: WLBPA=WLB programs availability; JP=job performance; TI=turnover intention; AC=affective organizational commitment; DB=Deviant workplace behavior, POS=perceived organizational support; FL=fatigue level; WLBPV=WLB programs value; N=219.

Table 3.11: Latent variable reliability coefficients for India

	WLBPA	JP	TI	AC	DB	POS	FL	WLBPV
Composite Reliability	0.846	0.870	0.859	0.839	0.922	0.891	0.917	0.855
Cronbach's Alpha	0.726	0.831	0.780	0.712	0.903	0.852	0.894	0.745

Notes: WLBPA=WLB programs availability; JP=job performance; TI=turnover intention; AC=affective organizational commitment; DB=Deviant workplace behavior, POS=perceived organizational support; FL=fatigue level; WLBPV=WLB programs value; N=159

Collinearity

Like any other study, there is a possibility of the presence of multicollinearity that can affect the results. Therefore, a collinearity test was performed by examining the variance inflation factor (VIF) values of the latent variables. WarpPLS permits the assessment of both vertical and lateral collinearity, which provides support to demonstrate no multicollinearity problems (Kock and Lynn, 2012). To identify no problems of multicollinearity in the study, it is recommended that VIF values should be lower than 3.3 (Petter, Straub, and Rai, 2007). Tables 3.12 and 3.13 illustrates the VIF values for both samples. As shown in both tables, all VIF indicators are below the value of 3.3, which suggests that there are no multicollinearity problems.

Table 3.12 Variance influence factors from full collinearity test for U.S.

WLBPA	1.164
JP	1.285
TI	1.961
AC	2.190
DB	1.429
POS	2.071
FL	1.320
WLBPV	1.358

Notes: WLBPA=WLB programs availability; JP=job performance; TI=turnover intention; AC=affective organizational commitment; DB=Deviant workplace behavior, POS=perceived organizational support; FL=fatigue level; WLBPV=WLB programs value; N=219

Table 3.13 Variance influence factors from full collinearity test for India.

WLBPA	1.538
JP	1.607
TI	1.578
AC	2.362
DB	2.181
POS	2.212
FL	1.788
WLBPV	1.712

Notes: WLBPA=WLB programs availability; JP=job performance; TI=turnover intention; AC=affective organizational commitment; DB=Deviant workplace behavior, POS=perceived organizational support; FL=fatigue level; WLBPV=WLB programs value; N=159.

Model Fit

To assess the model fit, four measures were considered: Simpson's Paradox Ratio (SPR), average R-squared (ARS), average path coefficient (APC), and average variance inflation factor (AVIF). For the model to illustrate a good fit, (SPR) should ideally be a score of 1, both ARS and APC are acceptable if p-values are below 0.05, and AVIF is acceptable if the score is 5 or lower (Kock, 2018). As shown in both tables below, both models passed the acceptable thresholds.

Table 3.14: Model fit indices for U.S.

APC	0.156	p=0.005
ARS	0.226	p<0.001
AVIF	1.041	Acceptable if ≤ 5, ideally ≤3.3
SPR	0.828	Acceptable if > 0.7, ideally = 1

Note: N=219.

Table 3.15: Model fit indices for India.

| APC	0.172	p=0.006
ARS	0.278	p<.001
AVIF	1.072	Acceptable if ≤ 5, ideally ≤3.3
SPR	0.931	Acceptable if > 0.7, ideally = 1

Note: N=159

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

U.S. Results

The results of the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) analyses for the two countries are illustrated in Figure 4.1 and Figure 4.3. The models include the control variables of gender, age, and the number of children. The results of the hypotheses will be examined in this section.

Figure 4.1: United States results
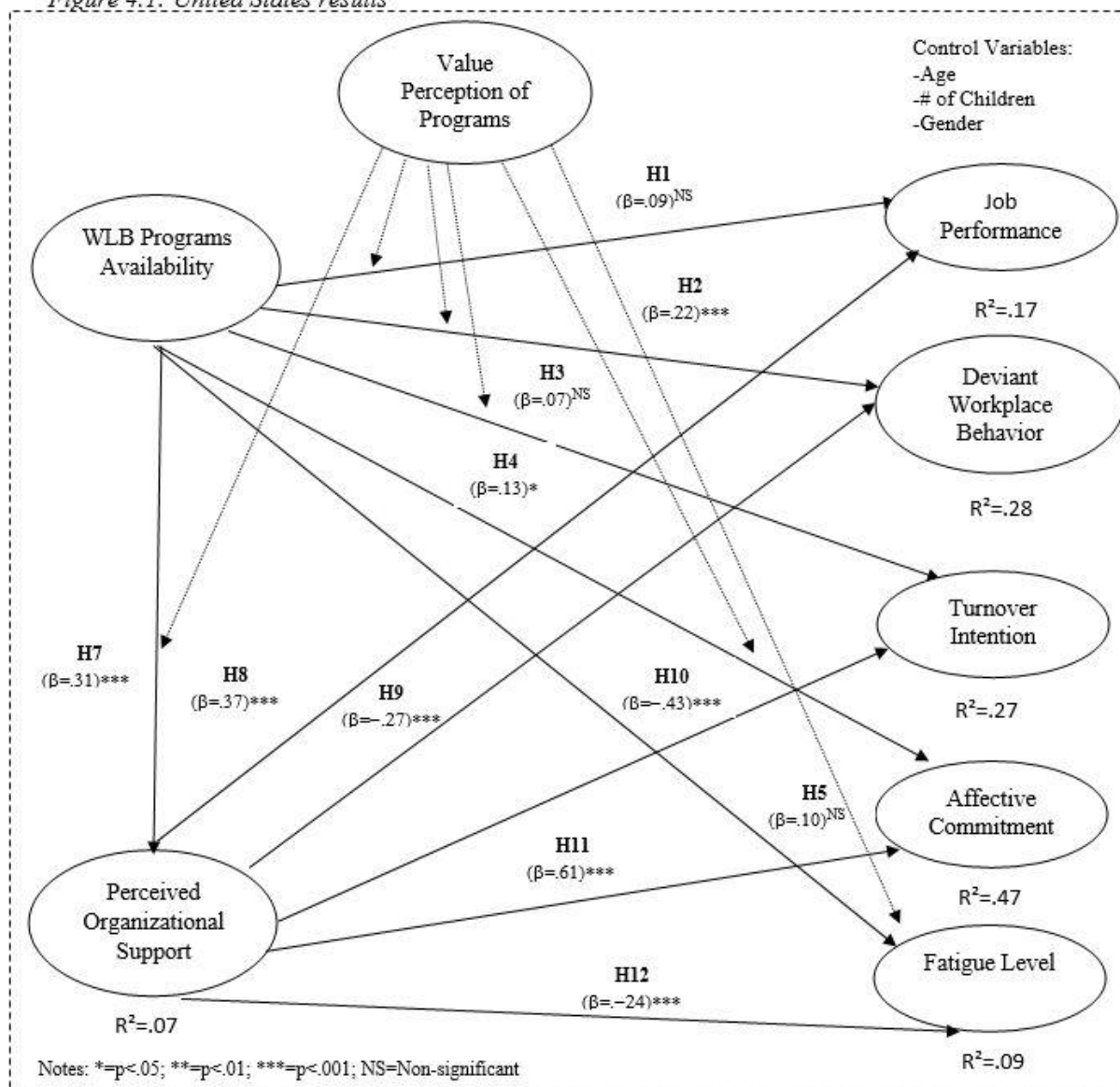
Hypothesis one proposes that the availability of WLB programs leads to higher employee performance. The results of the model indicate a positive relationship; however, it was non-significant (β=0.09, p=0.10). Such result indicates that the availability of WLB programs does not affect an employee's performance directly. Therefore, HI was not supported.

The second hypothesis is concerned with the relationship between the availability of WLB programs and deviant workplace behavior. For this hypothesis, it was expected that the availability of WLB programs would decrease deviant workplace behavior. Contrary to the expectations, the result (β=0.22, p<.001) illustrates that the availability of the programs increases an employee's participation in deviant behavior. The second hypothesis is not supported. Further explanation of such result will be elaborated in the discussion section.

The third hypothesis indicates that the availability of WLB programs has a negative relationship with turnover intention. While the model showed an opposite result, the p-value was non-significant (β=0.07, p=.14). Based on the result, this hypothesis was not supported. Further explanation of such result will be elaborated in the discussion section.

The fourth hypothesis deals with the relationship between the availability of WLB programs and affective organizational commitment. It was hypothesized that the availability of the programs leads to a higher emotional bond between the employees and the organization. The results showed the existence of a positive and significant relation between WLB programs availability and affective organizational commitment (β=0.13, p<.05). As such, H4 is supported.

The fifth hypothesis proposes a negative relationship between the availability of WLB programs and fatigue level. While the model showed an opposite result, the coefficient was non-significant (β=0.10, p=.06). The results showed that the availability of the programs will not affect an employee's fatigue level. Thus, this hypothesis is not supported.

The sixth hypothesis is concerned with whether value perception of the programs moderates the relationship between the availability of WLB programs and the outcomes (job performance, deviant behavior, turnover intention, affective commitment, fatigue level, and perceived organizational support). To examine this hypothesis, the feature "Explore full latent growth" from WarpPLS was implemented. The inclusion of a moderating variable can lead to certain issues that include increasing Simpson's paradox and multicollinearity (Kock, 2018). The main advantages of using the "Explore full latent growth" feature is that it estimates the moderating effect without its inclusion in the model, which prevents such issues. As shown in Table 4.1, the perception of the value of the programs only moderates the relationship between WLB programs availability and deviant behavior (β=0.11, p=.04). Therefore, it is expected that the value of the programs strengthens the relationship between WLB programs availability and deviant workplace behavior. Further explanation will be given in the discussion section. Thus, the sixth hypothesis is partially supported but not in the sense expected.

Table 4.1: Moderating effects for U.S.

WLBPV Moderating Effects		
	β	p
WLBPA ➡ JP	.05	.23
WLBPA ➡ DB	.12	**.04**
WLBPA ➡ TI	.06	.19
WLBPA ➡ AC	.03	.34
WLBPA ➡ FL	-.04	.30
WLBPA ➡ POS	.06	.20

Notes: WLBPA=WLB programs availability; JP=job performance; TI=turnover intention; AC=affective organizational commitment; DB=Deviant workplace behavior, POS=perceived organizational support; FL=fatigue level; WLBPV=WLB programs value; N=219.

The seventh hypothesis indicates that the availability of WLB programs has a positive and significant effect on perceived organizational support. The result (β=0.31, p<.001) illustrates that the availability of the programs leads to higher perceived organizational support. As expected, WLB programs serve to enhance the perception that the organization cares for the employees. Therefore, the seventh hypothesis is supported.

The eighth hypothesis proposes that perceived organizational support has a positive relationship with job performance. The results of the model (β=0.37, p<.001) suggest that the higher the perception of organizational support, the higher the job performance of the employees. Based on the results, this hypothesis is supported.

The ninth hypothesis deals with the relationship between perceived organizational support and deviant workplace behavior. The model results indicate that the higher perception of organizational support, the lower the participation of employees in deviant behavior (β=−0.27, p<.001). As such, this hypothesis is supported.

The tenth hypothesis elaborates that perceived organizational support has a negative relationship with turnover intention. The results of the model showed that perceived organizational reduces the intention of an employee to leave the company (β=−0.43, p<.001). Based on the results, this hypothesis is supported.

The eleventh hypothesis indicates a positive and significant relationship between perceived organizational support and affective organizational commitment. The results indicate that higher perceived organizational supports leads to higher affection of the employees toward the organization (β=0.61, p<.001). As expected, the way the employees perceive the organization influences the level of affection towards them. Thus, this hypothesis is supported.

The twelfth hypothesis proposes that perceived organizational support affects an employee's fatigue level. Results illustrate that perceived organizational support decreases an employee's fatigue level (β=−0.24, p<.001). This result provides a better understanding how organizational support influences the fatigue level of an employees. Therefore, this hypothesis is supported.

The thirteenth hypothesis elaborates that perceived organizational support mediates the effect between the availability of WLB programs and employee outcomes. To examine whether perceived organizational support serves a mediator, the study implements the Baron and Kenny (1986) approach in which three conditions must be met. By executing a first model, there should be a significant relationship between X and Y, a significant relationship between X and M will be shown in the second a model, and a significant relationship between M and Y is also expected in the second model (Kock, 2011). Furthermore, full mediation is shown when in the second model the effect of X on Y is non-significant, and if such relationship is still significant, then there is a partial mediation (Kock, 2011).

As shown in the results, all tests passed the first step, which illustrates a significant relationship between the availability of WLB programs and employee outcomes: JP (β=.18, p=<.01); DB (β=.24, p<.001); TI (β=−.15, p<.01); AC (β=.30, p<.01); FL (β=−.15, p<.01). The second step shows that perceived organizational support fully mediates the relationship between the availability of WLB programs and job performance, turnover intention, and fatigue level. Furthermore, perceived organizational support partially mediates the relationship between the availability of WLB programs, and both affective organizational commitment and deviant workplace behavior.

Figure 4.2: Mediating effects for U.S.
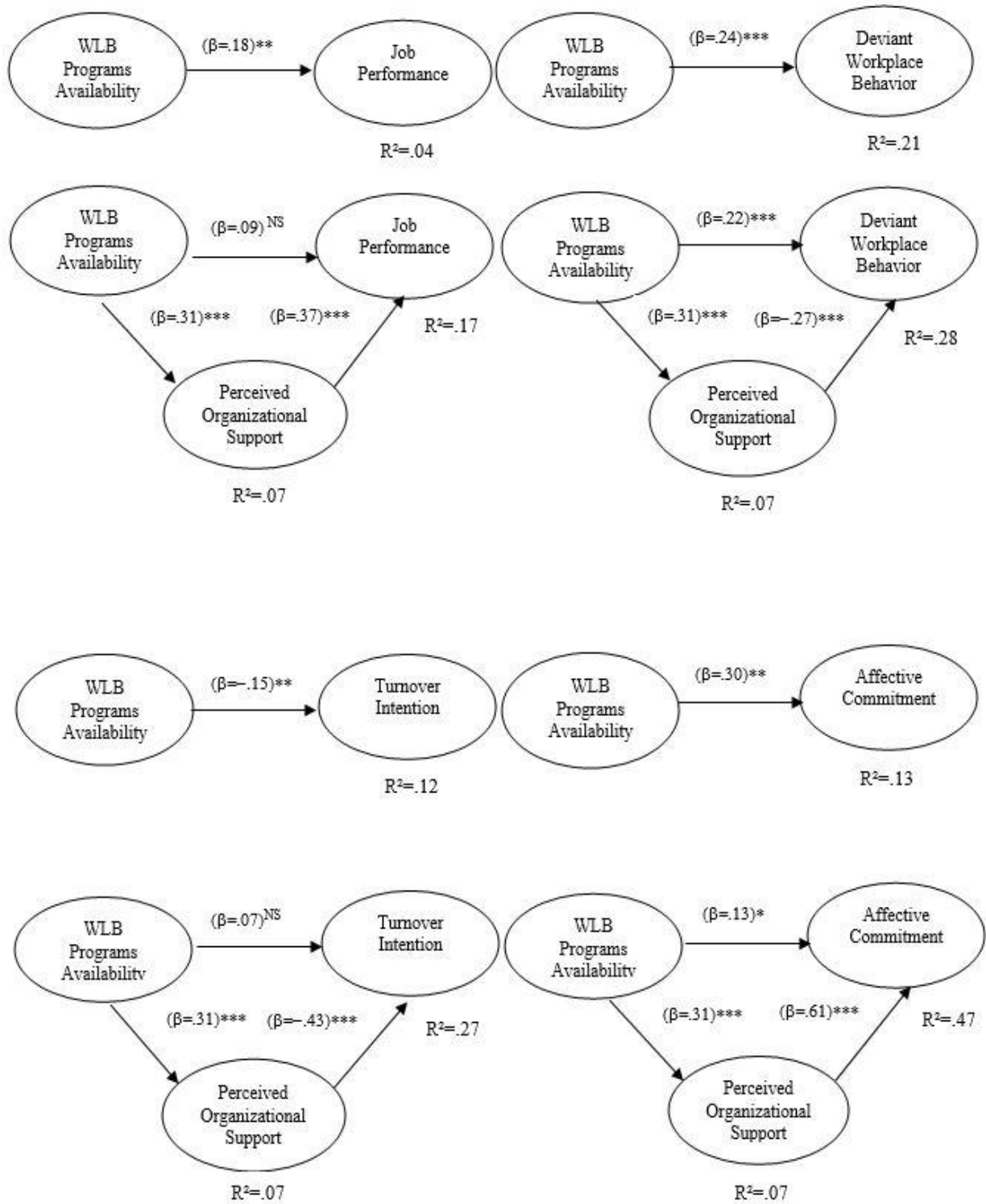
Figure 4.2 Continued
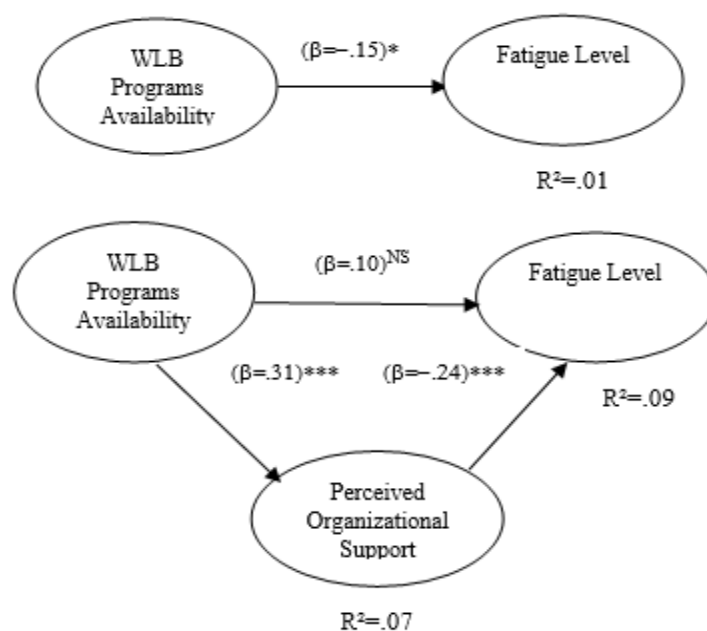
Notes: *=p<.05; **=p<.01; ***=p<.001; NS=Non-significant

As shown in Table 4.2, several of the hypotheses were supported. The following table illustrates the hypotheses examined in the study, expected outcomes, p-values, and beta coefficients.

Table 4.2: U.S. hypotheses outcomes

Number	Hypothesis	β	p	Supported
H1	WLB programs availability will have a positive relationship with job performance.	.09	.10	No
H2	WLB programs availability will have a negative relationship with deviant workplace behavior.	.22	**<.001**	No
H3	WLB programs availability will have a negative relationship with turnover intention.	.07	.14	No
H4	WLB programs availability will have a positive relationship with affective commitment.	.13	**<.05**	Yes
H5	WLB programs availability will have a negative relationship with fatigue level.	.10	.06	No
H6	The perceived value of WLB programs will moderate the relationship between WLB programs and employee outcomes.			

Table 4.2 Continued

Number	Hypothesis	β	p	Supported
H6A	WLBPV moderates the relationship between WLB programs availability and job performance.	.05	.23	No
H6B	WLBPV moderates the relationship between WLB programs availability and deviant workplace behavior.	.12	**.04**	Yes
H6C	WLBPV moderates the relationship between WLB programs availability and turnover intention	.06	.19	No
H6D	WLBPV moderates the relationship between WLB programs availability and affective commitment.	.03	.34	No
H6E	WLBPV moderates the relationship between WLB programs availability and fatigue level	-.04	.30	No
H6F	WLBPV moderates the relationship between WLB programs availability and POS.	.06	.20	No
H7	WLB programs availability will have a positive relationship with perceived organizational support.	.31	**<.001**	Yes
H8	Perceived organizational support will have a positive relationship with job performance.	.37	**<.001**	Yes
H9	Perceived organizational support will have a negative relationship with deviant workplace behavior.	-.27	**<.001**	Yes
H10	Perceived organizational support will have a negative relationship with turnover intention.	-.43	**<.001**	Yes
H11	Perceived organizational support will have a positive relationship with affective commitment.	.61	**<.001**	Yes
H12	Perceived organizational support will have a negative relationship with fatigue level.	-.24	**<.001**	Yes
H13	POS will have a significant mediating effect between WLB programs availability and employee outcomes.			
H13A	POS has a significant mediating effect between WLB programs availability and job performance	Full Mediation		Yes
H13B	POS has a significant mediating effect between WLB programs availability and deviant workplace behavior.	Partial Mediation		Yes
H13C	POS has a significant mediating effect between WLB programs availability and turnover intention	Full Mediation		Yes
H13D	POS has a significant mediating effect between WLB programs availability and affective commitment.	Partial Mediation		Yes
H13E	POS has a significant mediating effect between WLB programs availability and fatigue level.	Full Mediation		Yes

Notes: WLBPA=WLB programs availability; JP=job performance; TI=turnover intention; AC=affective organizational commitment; DB=Deviant workplace behavior, POS=perceived organizational support; FL=fatigue level; WLBPV=WLB programs value; N=219.

Figure 4.3 India results

Figure 4.3 India results
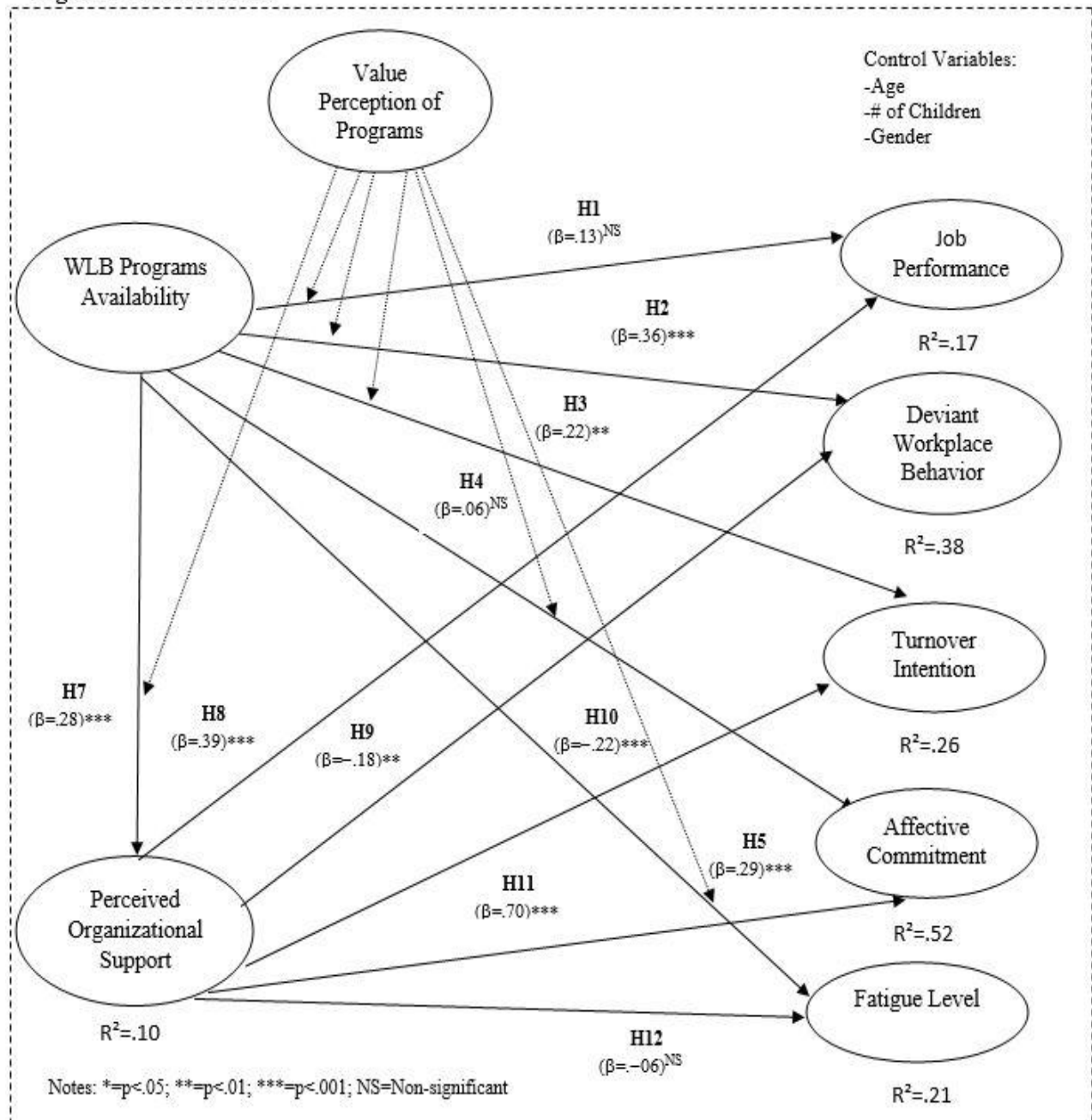
India Results

Hypothesis one proposes that the availability of WLB programs leads to higher employee performance. Similar to the results of the U.S., the Indian model shows a positive relationship; however, it was also non-significant (β=0.13, p=0.06). Such result indicates that the availability

of WLB programs does not affect an employee's performance directly. Therefore, HI was not supported for the India model. Explanation in regards to why there is not a significant direct relationship between the availability of WLB programs and employee performance will be given in the discussion section.

The second hypothesis deals with the relationship between the availability of WLB programs and deviant workplace behavior. The results of the model of India are similar than those of the U.S. Contrary to the expectations, the results (β=0.36, p<.001) shows that the availability of the programs leads to higher participation in deviant behavior. Further explanation of such result will be elaborated in the discussion section.

The third hypothesis indicates that the availability of WLB programs has a negative relationship with turnover intention. Contrary to expectations, programs availability increases the intention of an employee to leave an organization (β=0.22, p<.01). Therefore, this hypothesis is not supported. Further explanation of such result will be elaborated in the discussion section.

The fourth hypothesis deals with the relationship between the availability of WLB programs and affective organizational commitment. Contrary to the results of the U.S., there is a non-significant relationship between the availability of programs and an employee's emotional attachment toward the organization (β=0.06, p=.21). Further discussion of the result differences between the U.S. and India will be given in the discussion section. Based on the results, the fourth hypothesis is not supported.

The fifth hypothesis proposes a negative relationship between the availability of WLB programs and fatigue level. The results showed that the availability of the programs has a positive and significant relationship with fatigue level (β=0.29, p<.001). Contrary to expectations, the availability of WLB programs leads to higher fatigue level. Therefore, this

hypothesis is not supported. Further explanation of such result will be elaborated in the discussion section.

The sixth hypothesis is concerned with whether the value perception of the programs moderates the relationship between the availability of WLB programs and the employee outcomes. Similar to the examination of the U.S. model, the feature "Explore full latent growth" was implemented. As shown in table 4.3, the value of the programs does not moderate any relationship between the availability of WLB programs and the outcomes. Thus, the sixth hypothesis is not supported.

Table 4.3: Moderating effects for India

WLBPV Moderating Effects		
	β	p
WLBPA ➡ JP	.01	.43
WLBPA ➡ DB	-.11	.07
WLBPA ➡ TI	-.06	.22
WLBPA ➡ AC	-.001	.49
WLBPA ➡ FL	-.10	.09
WLBPA ➡ POS	.001	.49

Notes: WLBPA=WLB programs availability; JP=job performance; TI=turnover intention; AC=affective organizational commitment; DB=Deviant workplace behavior, POS=perceived organizational support; FL=fatigue level; WLBPV=WLB programs value; N=159.

In regards to the seventh hypothesis, the result (β=0.28, p<.001) showed that the availability of the programs leads to higher perceived organizational support. As expected, the programs can enhance the perception that the organization cares about the employees. Based on the results, the seventh hypothesis is supported.

India shows similar results than those from the U.S. for hypothesis eight through

eleventh. Perceived organizational support shows a positive and significant relationship with job performance ($\beta=0.39$, p<.001), and affective commitment ($\beta=0.70$, p<.001). Perceived organizational support shows a negative and significant relationship with deviant workplace behavior ($\beta=-0.18$, p<.01), and turnover intention ($\beta=-0.22$, p<.001). Therefore, hypothesis eight through eleventh are supported. As expected, if the employees perceived high support by the organization, this can lead to positive outcomes for the employees.

India shows a different result from the U.S. for hypothesis twelve. The results showed that perceived organizational support will not influence an employee's fatigue level ($\beta=-0.06$, p=.23). Based on the results, the twelfth hypothesis is not supported. Further explanation of such result will be elaborated in the discussion section.

The thirteenth hypothesis elaborates that perceived organizational support mediates the effect between the availability of WLB programs and employee outcomes. The same procedure was conducted like the U.S. sample to analyze if perceived organizational support serves as a mediator. As shown in Figure 4.4, all tests passed the first step, which illustrates a significant relationship between WLB programs availability and employee outcomes which are as follow: JP ($\beta=.15$, p=<.05); DB ($\beta=.37$, p<.001); TI ($\beta=.24$, p<.01); AC ($\beta=.25$, p<.01); FL ($\beta=.30$, p<.001).

The second step shows that perceived organizational support fully mediates the relationship between the availability of WLB programs and job performance, and affective commitment. Furthermore, perceived organizational support partially mediates the relationship between the availability of WLB programs, and both turnover intention and deviant workplace behavior. The flowing figure provides a better illustration of the mediating test results.

Figure 4.4: Mediating effects for India
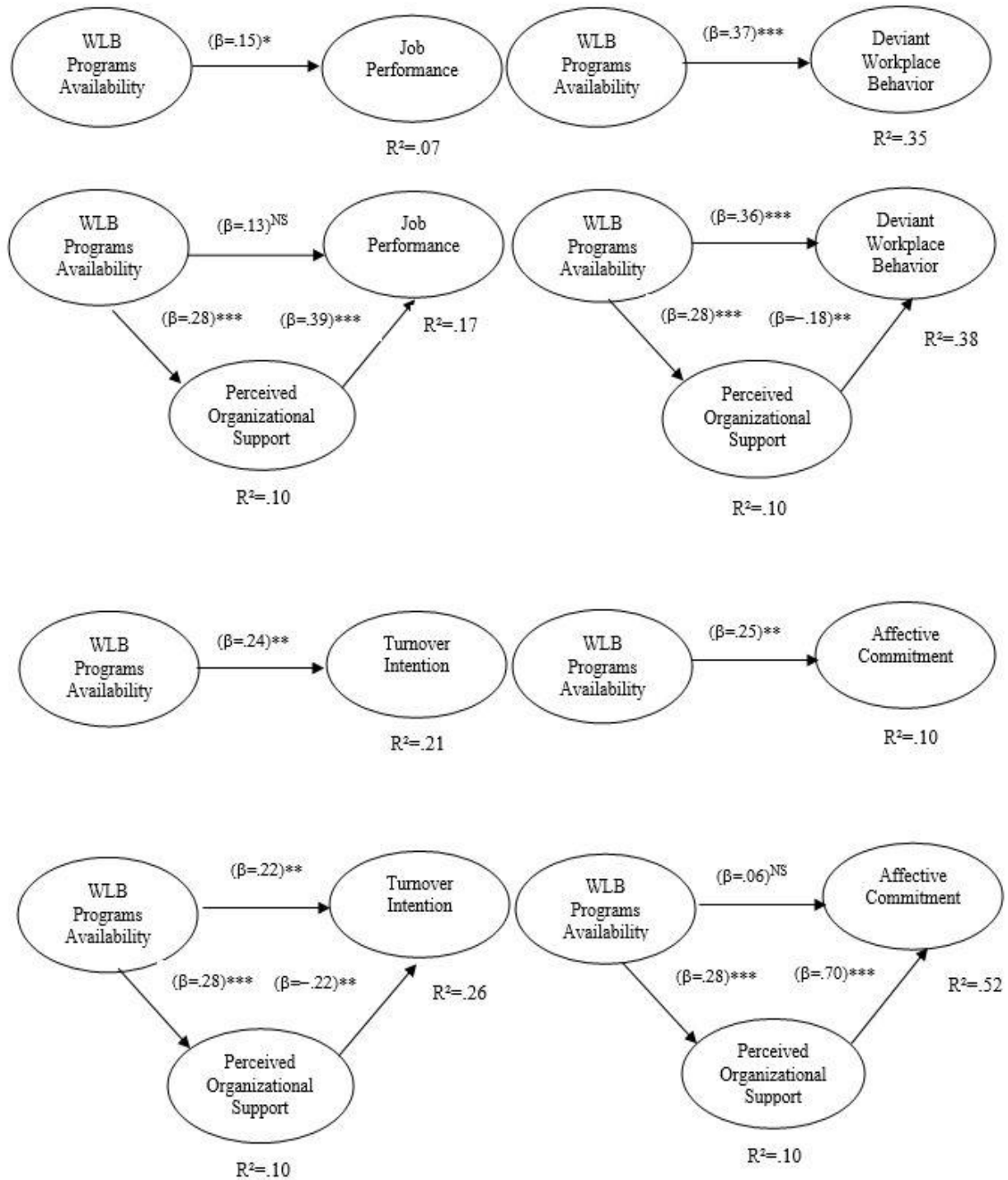
Figure 4.4 Continued
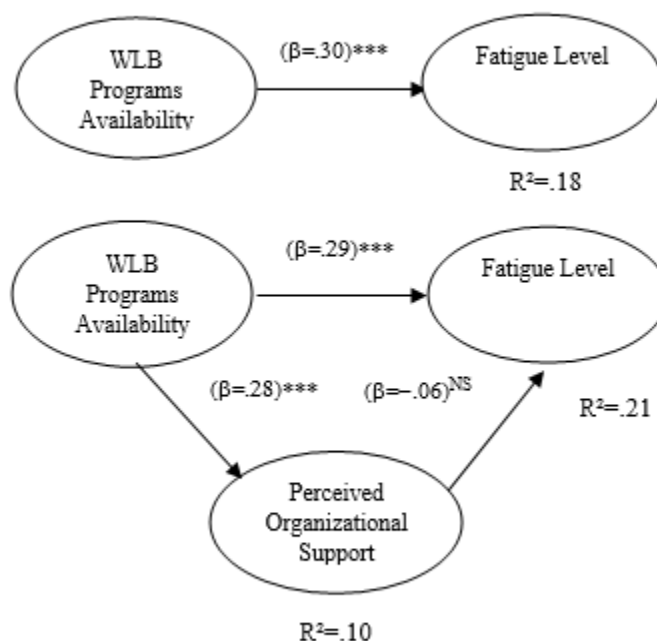
Notes: *=p<.05; **=p<.01; ***=p<.001; NS=Non-significant

The fourteenth hypothesis concerns with illustrating a country comparison between the

U.S. and India. This hypothesis proposes that there are some significant differences in the results

between the U.S. and India. To examine this hypothesis, the Satterthwaite method was used,

which is a feature provided in WarpPLS 6.0. The method takes into consideration the standard

errors and the coefficients of each path, which is used to calculate the paths' t-value and p-value.

Results of the Satterthwaite method are shows in Table 4.4. This table provides a better

illustration of the differences. As shown in the results, three of eleven relationships show

significance: 1) WLBPA ➡ fatigue level (p<.05); 2) POS ➡ turnover intention (p<.05); and 3)

POS ➡ fatigue level (p<.05). Therefore, in the fourteenth hypothesis there is support for 3 out of

11 relationships.

Table 4.4: Comparison between U.S. and India

Path	U.S. Coefficient	SE	India Coefficient	SE	Satterthwaite Method t-value	p-value
WLBPA						
Job Performance	.09	.07	.13	.08	1.39	.08
Turnover Intention	.07	.07	.22	.08	1.45	.07
Deviant Behavior	.22	.07	.36	.07	1.49	.07
Affective Commitment	.13	.07	.06	.08	.41	.34
Fatigue Level	.10	.07	.29	.08	2.03	**.02**
POS	.31	.07	.28	.08	.11	.45
POS						
Job Performance	.37	.07	.39	.07	.26	.40
Turnover Intention	-.43	.07	-.22	.08	2.1	**.02**
Deviant Behavior	-.27	.07	-.18	.08	.99	.16
Affective Commitment	.61	.06	.70	.07	.74	.23
Fatigue Level	-.24	.07	-.06	.08	1.71	**.04**

Notes: WLBPA=WLB programs availability; POS=perceived organizational support; SE=Standard error; p-values are the result of a one-tailed test; U.S, N=219; India, N=159.

As shown in Table 4.5, several of the hypotheses were supported. While India shows some differences from the U.S. there are also some similarities. The following table illustrates the hypothesis examined in the study, expected outcomes, p-values, and beta coefficients.

Table 4.5: India hypotheses outcomes

Number	Hypothesis	β	p	Supported
H1	WLB programs availability will have a positive relationship with job performance.	.13	.06	No
H2	WLB programs availability will have a negative relationship with deviant workplace behavior.	.36	**<.001**	No
H3	WLB programs availability will have a negative relationship with turnover intention.	.22	**<.01**	No
H4	WLB programs availability will have a positive relationship with affective commitment.	.06	.21	No
H5	WLB programs availability will have a negative relationship with fatigue level.	.29	**<.001**	No
H6	The perceived value of WLB programs will moderate the relationship between WLB programs and employee outcomes.			
H6A	WLBPV moderates the relationship between WLB programs availability and job performance.	.01	.43	No
H6B	WLBPV moderates the relationship between WLB programs availability and deviant workplace behavior.	-.11	.07	No
H6C	WLBPV moderates the relationship between WLB programs availability and turnover intention	-.06	.22	No
H6D	WLBPV moderates the relationship between WLB programs availability and affective commitment.	-.001	.49	No
H6E	WLBPV moderates the relationship between WLB programs availability and fatigue level	-.10	.09	No
H6F	WLBPV moderates the relationship between WLB programs availability and POS.	.001	.49	No
H7	WLB programs availability will have a positive relationship with perceived organizational support.	.28	**<.001**	Yes
H8	Perceived organizational support will have a positive relationship with job performance.	.39	**<.001**	Yes
H9	Perceived organizational support will have a negative relationship with deviant workplace behavior.	-.18	**<.01**	Yes
H10	Perceived organizational support will have a negative relationship with turnover intention.	-.22	**<.001**	Yes
H11	Perceived organizational support will have a positive relationship with affective commitment.	.70	**<.001**	Yes
H12	Perceived organizational support will have a negative relationship with fatigue level.	-.06	.23	No

Table 4.5: Continued

Number	Hypothesis	β	p	Supported
H13	Perceived organizational support will have a significant mediating effect between WLB programs availability and employee outcomes.			
H13A	POS has a significant mediating effect between WLB programs availability and job performance	Full Mediation		Yes
H13B	POS has a significant mediating effect between WLB programs availability and deviant workplace behavior.	Partial Mediation		Yes
H13C	POS has a significant mediating effect between WLB programs availability and turnover intention	Partial Mediation		Yes
H13D	POS has a significant mediating effect between WLB programs availability and affective commitment.	Full Mediation		Yes
H13E	POS has a significant mediating effect between WLB programs availability and fatigue level.	No Mediation		No
H14	There will be significant differences for the results between the U.S. and India.	Significant differences found for 3/11 paths		Yes

Notes: WLBPA=WLB programs availability; JP=job performance; TI=turnover intention; AC=affective organizational commitment; DB=Deviant workplace behavior, POS=perceived organizational support; FL=fatigue level; WLBPV=WLB programs value; N=159.

Power analysis

For this study, a power analysis was performed for the path coefficients in the models of the U.S. and India. A power analysis provides a better understanding of the results. The function of a power test is to determine the minimum samples size required to achieve a specific power level for the path coefficient. An acceptable level of power for a path coefficient is 0.80 (Kock and Hadaya, 2018). Results of the power analysis for both the U.S. and India are shown in Tables 4.6 and 4.7 respectively. To determine what is the minimum sample size required for a power level of at least 0.80, both the inverse square root method and the gamma-exponential method can be used. This provides a better illustration of the differences in the level of power for both samples.

Table 4.6: Power level test for U.S.

Sample Size: 219	Coefficient	Power	Minimum required sample size		Power level with current sample size
WLBPA		Below 0.8	Inverse square root method	Gamma-exponential method	
Job Performance	.09	Non-significant			
Turnover Intention	.07	Non-significant			
Deviant Behavior	.22***	No	126	112	
Affective Commitment	.13*	Yes	366	353	0.63
Fatigue Level	.10	Non-significant			
POS	.31***	No	64	51	
POS					
Job Performance	.37***	No	45	32	
Turnover Intention	-.43***	No	34	20	
Deviant Behavior	-.27***	No	85	71	
Affective Commitment	.61***	No	17	11	
Fatigue Level	-.24***	No	106	93	

Note: *= $p < 0.05$; **=$p < 0.01$; ***=$p < 0.001$

As shown in the results in Table 4.6, there are eight statistically significant path coefficients in the U.S. sample. Only one statistically significant path has the power level below 0.80. The relationship between the availability of WLB programs and affective commitment ($\beta = 0.13$) has a power level of 0.63. Considering the Gamma-exponential method, the minimum sample size for this coefficient to have an acceptable power is at least 353.

Table 4.7: Power level test for India

Sample Size: 159	Coefficient	Power	Minimum required sample size		Power level with current sample size
WLBPA		Below .80	Inverse square root method	Gamma-exponential method	
Job Performance	.13	Non-significant			
Turnover Intention	.22**	No	127	144	
Deviant Behavior	.36***	No	47	34	
Affective Commitment	.06	Non-significant			
Fatigue Level	.29***	No	73	59	
POS	.28***	No	78	64	
POS					
Job Performance	.39***	No	100	78	
Turnover Intention	-.22***	No	128	115	
Deviant Behavior	-.18**	Yes	191	178	0.76
Affective Commitment	.70***	No	13	11	
Fatigue Level	-.06	Non-significant			

Note: *= p < 0.05; **=p < 0.01; ***=p < 0.001

As shown in the results in Table 4.7, there are eight statistically significant path coefficients in the Indian sample. Only one statistically significant path has a power level below 0.80. The relationship between perceived organizational support and deviant behavior (β =-0.18) has a power level of 0.76. Considering the Gamma-exponential method, the minimum sample size for this coefficient to have an acceptable power is at least 178.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Overview

This study provides support for the importance of providing work-life balance programs to the employees. While previous studies have illustrated mixed results, this study provides a better perspective of the mechanism behind the programs' effect on the employees. Based on the results, it confirms that the availability of work-life balance programs elevates the perception of the support provided by an organization, which enhance positive employee outcomes while reducing undesired behaviors. To test the model, this study incorporated programs that have been studied frequently (e.g., paternal leave, telecommuting), as well as, programs that have been rarely taken into consideration (e.g., professional counseling, weight management). As competition among companies has become more intensive, it can create higher work demands for employees that may reduce their fulfillment of personal responsibilities. This can negatively influence different aspects of an employee's life, which can affect a company is goal of reaching its objectives. Therefore, it is crucial for organizations to provide WLB programs that will assist an employee to fulfill both work and personal roles.

Overall, the results provide support for the importance of incorporating WLB programs as they can influence crucial employee outcomes in the U.S. and India. The objective of the study was to not only illustrate that the programs are important to employees in the U.S. and India but to emphasize their importance to employees in general. In accordance with the results, this study can serve as a framework to support the case of offering WLB programs to employees in any organization. The following sections elaborate on the hypotheses results, WLB programs

availability, study limitations, practical implications, future research recommendations, and the conclusion to the study.

Discussion of hypotheses

Results for the first hypothesis showed to be non-significant for both countries. While it was expected that the availability of WLB programs enhances an employee's performance, the programs do not directly influence such employee outcome. The results of the hypothesis 13A for both countries show the mechanism of how WLB programs availability affects an employee's performance. While the employees perceive the availability of WLB programs, this is not enough motivation to directly influence how an employee performs. Based on the results of H13A, the availability of the programs enhances POS, which increases an employee's performance.

Regarding the second hypothesis, the results were unexpected as they were the opposite of what was hypothesized in both countries. Based on the results, the availability of WLB programs will increase an employee's participation in deviant behavior. To find an explanation of the unexpected results, a Yule-Simpson test was performed to discover whether Simpson's Paradox was present. Based on the analysis, a case for Simpson's Paradox was not present for this relationship. A possible explanation for these unexpected results may be related to the age of the respondents from both countries. For the U.S. sample, 54% of respondents were between the ages of 18 to 35 years old. For the Indian sample, 76 % of respondents were between the ages of 18 to 35 years old. Research has suggested that younger employees are more prone to engage in counterproductive behavior (Lau, Au, and Ho, 2003). It can be assumed that although organizations may offer WLB programs, employees may still engage in deviant behavior. Furthermore, the programs also have an indirect effect that leads to lower deviant workplace

behavior. WLB programs enhance POS, which reduce the participation of employees in deviant behavior.

For the third hypothesis, there was a non-significant result between the availability of WLB programs and turnover intention in the U.S. model. The result of hypothesis 13C shows a different mechanism of how the programs influence such employee outcome. For India, the results showed a significant relationship; however, it was the opposite of what was hypothesized. Utilizing the same method as the second hypothesis, a Yule-Simpson test was conducted. A possible explanation for these unexpected result may be related to the generational differences of the Indian sample. Employees that belong to Generation Y have different work values than other generations as they strive for prestige, which leads to higher turnover intention (Rani and Samuel, 2016). Since prestige is a factor that is important to Indian society, this influences the decision of an employee to join the company that is more renowned. It can be assumed that just providing WLB programs may not influence an employee to remain part of the organization. As illustrated in the results, programs may have an indirect effect that leads to lower turnover intention. WLB programs may enhance POS, which in turn reduces the intention of an individual to leave the organization.

The fourth hypothesis concern the relationship between the availability of WLB programs and an employee's affective organizational commitment. The results showed a positive and significant relationship in the U.S. model while illustrating a non-significant relationship in the India model. Since employees in the U.S. may be more concerned with achieving WLB, offering WLB programs may enhance the affection employees have toward the organization. A possible explanation for India can be based on the age of the respondents. Since most of the India sample are young respondents that strive for prestige that can be earned by working more time,

just knowing that the programs are available does not enhance affective commitment. The result from hypothesis 13D illustrates how WLB programs availability influences affective commitment. The result showed that WLB programs availability improves POS, which enhances the emotional attachment of the employee toward the organization.

The effects of the availability of WLB programs on fatigue level were not similar between the U.S. and India. The results showed a non-significant relationship in the U.S. model while illustrating a positive and significant relationship in the India model. It was not contemplated that the availability of the programs leads to higher fatigue level for the Indian model. In the same manner, as hypotheses 2 and 3, a Yule-Simpson test was conducted. Based on the analysis, a case for Simpson's Paradox was not present for this relationship. A possible explanation for the unexpected result may be related to the rising prosperity of the Indian economy. Indian employees have been overworked as a result of the intensification of global competition, which has intensified the employees' fatigue level (Tsui, 2008). While organizations may offer WLB programs, if the employees perceive them as meaningless, this may not influence the fatigue level of such employees.

The results of the study showed that an employee's perception of the value of the programs only moderates the relationship between the availability of WLB programs and deviant workplace behavior in the U.S. model. As such, the value of the programs strengthens the positive relationship between the availability of WLB programs and deviant workplace behavior. As explained previously, younger employees are more prone to participate in behavior that can harm an organization. Most of the respondents for the U.S. sample are below the age of 36. While the respondent may perceive the programs as valuable, as shown in other results the

programs itself may not influence the behavior of an employee. It is also important to consider that the moderating coefficient effect can be considered small ($\beta=0.11$, p=.04).

In both models, the results showed a positive and significant relationship between the availability of WLB programs and perceived organizational commitment. As organizations are demanding more from employees, this can disrupt their fulfillment of personal responsibilities. By offering WLB programs to the employees, such action can be perceived as the organization caring for their well-being. Therefore, it enhances the perception that the organization supports the well-being of the employees.

Hypotheses 8, 9, 10, 11, and 12 focused on the relationship between perceived organizational support and employee outcomes. The results showed that perceived organizational support enhances an employee's performance and affective organizational commitment in both the U.S. and India. As explained in the literature review, an employee that perceive greater support by an organization will reciprocate such treatment by performing at a higher level, as well as, displaying more affection toward the company. Perceived organizational support showed a negative and significant relationship with deviant workplace behavior and turnover intention for both countries. Employees who perceive greater support by an organization will behave in a manner that will be regarded as beneficial to the company. Additionally, higher POS can serve to mitigate the negative effects of a stressful workplace, which motivates an employee to remain in the company. The hypothesis of the relationship between POS and fatigue was only supported for the U.S. model while showing a non-significant relationship for India. A possible explanation for the non-significant result in India may be related to the economic development in India and the importance of prestige. The intensification of work and the goal of acquiring prestige that is

essential in Indian society increases an employee's fatigue level, regardless of the support provided by the organization (Tsui, 2008; Rani and Samuel, 2016).

Hypotheses 13A to 13E propose that POS serve as a mediator between the relationship of WLB programs availability and each employee outcome. After examining both models, it was shown that POS partially or fully mediates the relationship between programs availability and the five employee outcomes. For the U.S. model, POS fully mediates the relationship between WLB programs availability and the employee outcomes of job performance, turnover intention, and fatigue level. It can be interpreted that the availability of programs that promote WLB enhances the perception that the organization supports the employees, which leads to an employee to reduce their fatigue level, perform at a greater level, and demonstrate higher intentions of remaining in the organization. POS also demonstrate a partial mediation for the U.S. model in the relationships of WLB programs availability and the employee outcomes of deviant workplace behavior and affective commitment. As previously shown, WLB programs availability has a direct significant effect on deviant workplace behavior, and it also has an indirect effect by enhancing POS, which leads to a reduction in an employee's participation in deviant behavior. The availability of the programs enhances the affection of an employee toward the organization, and based on the results, it can enhance affective organizational commitment by augmenting POS.

For the India model, POS fully mediates the relationship between the availability of WLB programs and the employee outcomes of job performance, and affective commitment. It can be interpreted that the availability of programs that promote WLB enhances the perception that the organization supports the employees, which leads to an employee to perform at a greater level and to demonstrate a higher emotional affection toward the organization. POS also demonstrate a

partial mediation for the India model in the relationships of WLB programs availability and the

employee outcomes of deviant workplace behavior and turnover intention. WLB programs

availability has a direct significant effect on deviant workplace behavior, and it has an indirect

effect by enhancing POS, which leads to a reduction in an employee's participation in deviant

behavior. There is a direct relationship between WLB programs availability and turnover

intention, as well as, indirectly lowering an employee's intention to leave the company through

greater POS. As shown in the results, POS does not mediate the relationship between WLB

programs availability and turnover intention as the relationship between POS and turnover

intention proved to be non-significant.

As the workforce has become more globalized, it is essential to analyze if the effects of

WLB programs differ based on national context. In this study, there were significant differences

in the national dimensions of future orientation and in-group collectivism between U.S. and

India. The results provide support that there are some significant differences between the model

of the U.S. and India, which are the relationships of WLB programs availability and fatigue

level, POS and turnover intention, and POS and fatigue level.

WLB programs availability

Table E, in Appendix E, displays the availability of WLB programs as perceived by both

American and Indian respondents. Based on the frequency of their responses, the top five

programs offered for the U.S. sample (219 respondents) are as follows: 1) paid/unpaid personal

leave (176); 2) maternal leave (167); 3) part-time employment (162); 4) flextime (140), and 5) 1

to 2 hours of lunch break (129). The two programs that were least offered are child-care (45) and

elder-care support (24). For the India sample (159 respondents), there are some differences in

perceptions regarding the programs that were being offered by their companies. The top five

programs offered for the India sample are as follows: 1) flextime (134); 2) maternal leave (129); 3) telecommuting (125); 4) paid/unpaid personal leave (124), and 5) 1 to 2 hours of lunch break (112). The two programs that were least offered are child-care (68) and elder-care support (62).

As shown in Table E, there are some differences and similarities in the perceived availability of WLB programs between the U.S. and India samples. For example, telecommuting was the third most frequently offered program as perceived by Indian employees, while, for U.S. employees, this program did not even make the top five list. A possible explanation for this difference is the industry distribution for both samples. The top four industries that represent the India sample are information technology (34%), financial (20.1%), health care (10.7%), and industrials (8.8%). Companies operating under these industries are able to offer this program more often since it does not interfere with the work responsibilities of the employees. For IT workers, telecommuting is possible since they can perform their work from another location. As for the U.S. sample, only 13.7% of the U.S. respondents were working in the information technology industry. The top four industries that represent the U.S. sample are utilities (22.8%), financial (15.1%), information technology (13.7%), and health care (13.7%).

There are also several similarities in the programs most offered to American and Indian employees. Paid/unpaid leave, maternal leave, flextime, and 1 to 2 hours lunch break are the programs perceived as the most available to both samples. There are two assumptions for such a case. First, companies can more easily provide flextime programs to their employees because this program does not require a lot of financial investment or cost. This can also be the case for companies providing 1 to 2 hours of lunch break. As for the paid/unpaid and maternal leave, companies may be required by governmental regulations to provide these programs. Another similarity between the two samples is that child-care and elder-care support are the two programs

least offered by companies. Child-care is a costly program, and that may be the reason why companies are so reluctant in offering this program to their employees. As for the low availability of elder-care support, the importance of offering such a program is only recently getting recognition in the workforce.

Limitations

Like any other study, there is a need to acknowledge some limitations of this study. First, the sample size could be considered small: 219 respondents from the U.S. and 159 from India. Secondly, the questionnaire implemented for this study was based on self-report responses. This approach may weaken the level of reliability of this research. Thirdly, the study examined two countries, as such, generalization of the results cannot be assumed. Finally, since this study is cross-sectional, no causal assertions can be made.

Managerial implications

One of the major goals of this research is to provide support on how important is to provide work-life balance programs to employees. While several studies have been published, mixed results have created confusion about how important are the programs for the employees. Several studies have emphasized a direct relationship between the availability of WLB programs and employees' outcomes; however, several of this study's results showed that the programs enhance the perception of organizational support, which leads to positive outcomes.

As explained early on the dissertation, a primary duty of human resource management is to elaborate on strategies that would increase an employee's motivation (Daley, 2012; Jiang et al., 2012). Since achieving work-life balance is a primary objective of employees (Cascio and Boudreau, 2010; Darcy et al., 2012), organizations need to provide programs that will support an employee fulfillment of both work and personal roles. This study offers support that providing

WLB programs enhances an employee perception of the level of support provided by the organization. Consequently, high POS enhances employees' performance and affective commitment while reducing turnover intention, deviant behavior, and fatigue level.

While this study illustrates how the availability of WLB programs influences employee outcomes, it is crucial for organizations to have a clear understanding of their workforce. These research serves as a framework to support how important are WLB programs for the employees, and the benefits they can provide for the organization. Since an organization may have a limited budget, there will be a certain number of WLB programs they can implement. Companies should implement those WLB programs that align with their strategies, as well as, those that will be more beneficial to the employees. The inclusion of family-friendly, flexible-working, and health programs should be based on the main objectives of the company and the composition of employees.

Based on the results of the study, the implementation of WLB programs is essential to the employees and the organizations. It should also be taken into consideration that the availability of the programs can serve as a strategic tool. Since achieving work-life balance is a primary objective of employees, companies can use this to their advantage to attract talented prospects. For example, offering programs that provide schedule and location flexibility can attract talented individuals and be an incentive for current employees (Almer and Kaplan, 2002; Thompson et al., 2015). Therefore, the availability of WLB programs will serve as a strategy to create positive outcomes that are beneficial to any organization.

Practical implications

While the provision of WLB programs are a necessity to employees and it can create positive employee outcomes, there are some factors that can compromise the effectiveness of the

programs. One factor is that employees may be unaware of the WLB programs offered by their organization. The lack of communication by the organization in regards to the programs they provide can create the perception that the employees lack the support to achieve work-life balance. For example, the study by Yeandle, Crompton, Wigfield, and Dennett (2002) showed that approximately half of the respondents were unfamiliar with the WLB programs provided by their companies.

Another factor that can hinder the effectiveness of the programs is national culture. Differences in national culture can dictate the programs' usage by the employees. For examples, employees residing in a country with high in-group collectivism may not use or view as less valuable child-care or elder-care programs since family members may assist them with such responsibilities. On the contrary, employees residing in a country with low in-group collectivism may be more inclined in the usage of certain programs that can assist them with personal and work responsibilities.

Other factors that prevent employees from using WLB programs are the stigma associated with utilizing them. Employees that utilize WLB programs may be viewed as being uncooperative with reaching an organization's goals, which can affect the employee's promotion and reward opportunities. Such stigma is more frequent with male employees that want to use the programs. Male employees that request WLB programs can be viewed as weak and lacking ambition, which negatively affects their career progression and reward opportunities (Rudman, and Mescher, 2013; Vandello, Hettinger, Bosson, and Siddiqi, 2013). Female employees also face the stigma associated with using WLB programs. Women are reluctant to utilize WLB programs as this can create the perception of lacking the commitment to succeed, which may prevent them in acquiring managerial positions (Drew and Murtagh, 2005).

Fulfilling work and personal responsibilities is a primary goal of employees; therefore, it is necessary for organizations to create a climate that encourages the usage of WLB programs. Management should be supportive of the necessities of the employees and enforce the idea that employees will not be punished for using the programs that assist in their responsibilities.

Future research

Future research should address the limitation of this study, which would contribute to the work-life literature. The acquisition of a larger dataset will enhance the validation of the study's results. The acquisition of a data sample that represent different demographics will provide more reliable support of how important are the programs for the employees.

While this is a cross-sectional study that provides an insight into the importance of work-life balance programs for the employees, a longitudinal study will provide support if the results remain the same or they change.

Studies should consider collecting data from other countries that have not been studied, which may illustrate the influence of national culture on the effects of work-life balance programs. Other factors should be considered including if a country is classified as developed or developing. While employees working in developed countries may perceive work-life balance as necessary, employees in developing countries may view it as a luxury. The necessity of employees in developing countries to acquire the necessary income to survive may decrease the effects of work-life balance programs. Therefore, it essential to examine whether there are significant differences between developed and developing countries.

Another consideration for future studies is to examine if results will be different when comparing young and older employees. While a primary goal of employees is to achieve WLB,

the availability of WLB programs may have different effects when considering the age of the employees.

Based on the results of the power analysis, future studies should consider that some of the examined relationships in the study were below the power level of 0.8. As such, it is advised for future studies that may examine such relationships to acquire a sufficient sample size to achieve a power level of .80. For example, future research that may examine such relationships should consider obtaining a sample size of at least 400 participants.

Conclusion

This study provides support for the importance of WLB programs to employees, and how they can enhance positive outcomes while reducing negative behavior. Based on the results, the availability of programs enhances the perception that the organization cares for the employees, which leads to beneficial employee outcomes. Furthermore, the results showed that cross-national setting influences the effect of the programs on the employees. While there are some limitations present in this study, the results show interesting findings that are beneficial for both practitioners and academia. Further testing should be employed by using samples from different countries, which can show if results are similar or they differ based on national context. The results of the studies could offer substantial support for the importance of offering WLB balance programs to employees.

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APPENDIX A

Programs Description

The following information was provided to the respondents to help them have a better understanding of the WLB programs.

- **Telecommuting**-The opportunity to work outside the location of the company (e.g., home, library, coffee shops, etc.).

- **Compressed Workweek**-The opportunity to complete the required working hours of the week in less than 5 days by working longer hours.

- **Flextime**-The opportunity to choose the starting and finishing work time within the available hours of the company.

- **Job Sharing**-Two employees share the working responsibilities and duties of a full-time position.

- **Weight Management Program**-Program designed to help an employee to manage and lose weight, which includes dietary plans and weight loss techniques. Rewards an employee for reaching or maintaining a healthy weight.

- **Stress Management Program**-Stress management tools provided to the employees to reduce their level of stress. These include providing a room for meditation or yoga, provision of stress relief information, or stress management trainings.

- **Paid/Unpaid Leave for Personal/Family Matters**-The opportunity to temporarily be absent from work for personal (e.g., school, medical issues, special events) or family reasons (e.g., taking care of a dependent which include spouse, child, or parent).

- **Elder-Care Support**- Providing a discounted rate for in-home elder care, support to fill insurance paperwork, and provision of elder care resource and referral services.

- **Professional Counseling**-Counselors that provide individuals strategies to overcome challenges including relationship and marriage problems, work issues, depression, parenting problems, anxiety, etc.

- **Maternity/Paternity Leave-**The opportunity granted for a leave of absence to a mother or father to satisfy the responsibilities of taking care of the baby.

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire

WLB Programs Availability

For the following questions, please answer *Yes* if you perceive that your workplace offers such programs or *No* if you perceive they do not offer them.

1. Does your workplace provide flextime?	{No}	{Yes}
2. Does your workplace provide maternal leave?	{No}	{Yes}
3. Does your workplace provide paternal leave?	{No}	{Yes}
4. Does your workplace provide telecommuting?	{No}	{Yes}
5. Does your workplace provide compressed workweek?	{No}	{Yes}
6. Does your workplace provide on-site child-care or offers financial support to acquire the services of one?	{No}	{Yes}
7. Does your workplace provide elder-care support?	{No}	{Yes}
8. Does your workplace provide job sharing?	{No}	{Yes}
9. Does your workplace provide part-time employment?	{No}	{Yes}
10. Does your workplace provide paid or unpaid leave for personal or family matters?	{No}	{Yes}
11. Does your workplace provide weight management programs?	{No}	{Yes}
12. Does your workplace provide stress management programs?	{No}	{Yes}
13. Does your workplace provide onsite professional counseling or offers financial support to acquire the services of one?	{No}	{Yes}
14. Does your workplace provide 1 to 2 hours of lunch break?	{No}	{Yes}

WLB Programs Value Perception

For the following questions, please answer with an X how valuable you perceive each program is for you and your family.

1. How valuable do you think flextime is for you and your family?
   Not at all valuable [ ]   Low Value [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Very Valuable [ ]   Extremely Valuable [ ]

2. How valuable do you think maternal leave is for you and your family?
   Not at all valuable [ ]   Low Value [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Very Valuable [ ]   Extremely Valuable [ ]

3. How valuable do you think paternal leave is for you and your family?
   Not at all valuable [ ]   Low Value [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Very Valuable [ ]   Extremely Valuable [ ]

4. How valuable do you think telecommuting is for you and your family?
   Not at all valuable [ ]   Low Value [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Very Valuable [ ]   Extremely Valuable [ ]

5. How valuable do you think compressed workweek is for you and your family?
   Not at all valuable [ ]   Low Value [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Very Valuable [ ]   Extremely Valuable [ ]

6. How valuable do you think child-care support is for you and your family?
   Not at all valuable [ ]   Low Value [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Very Valuable [ ]   Extremely Valuable [ ]

7. How valuable do you think elder-care support is future for you and your family?
   Not at all valuable [ ]   Low Value [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Very Valuable [ ]   Extremely Valuable [ ]

8. How valuable do you think job sharing is for you and your family?
   Not at all valuable [ ]   Low Value [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Very Valuable [ ]   Extremely Valuable [ ]

9. How valuable do you think part-time is for you and your family?
   Not at all valuable [ ]   Low Value [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Very Valuable [ ]   Extremely Valuable [ ]

10. How valuable do you think unpaid or paid leave for personal or family matters is for you and your family?
    Not at all valuable [ ]   Low Value [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Very Valuable [ ]   Extremely Valuable [ ]

11. How valuable do you think weight management programs is for you and your family?
    Not at all valuable [ ]   Low Value [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Very Valuable [ ]   Extremely Valuable [ ]

12. How valuable do you think stress management programs is for you and your family?
    Not at all valuable [ ]   Low Value [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Very Valuable [ ]   Extremely
    Valuable [ ]

13. How valuable do you think professional counseling is for you and your family?
     Not at all valuable [ ]   Low Value [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Very Valuable [ ]   Extremely
    Valuable [ ]

14. How valuable do you think 1 to 2 hours of lunch break is for you and your family?
    Not at all valuable [ ]   Low Value [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Very Valuable [ ]   Extremely
    Valuable [ ]

Job Performance

Every worker produces something in his or her work. It may be a "product" or "service". Please think carefully of the things that you produce in you work and how your performance compares to others in your work group. Please select the response that best describes your work compared to your colleagues' work.

(Supervisor's Rating)
1. Which of the following selections best describes how your supervisor rated you on your last formal performance evaluation?

Below Average	Average	Above Average	Far Above Average	Excellent
[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

(Production: Quantity)
2. How does your level of production compare to that of your colleagues' production levels?

Below Average	Average	Above Average	Far Above Average	Excellent
[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

(Production: Quality)
3. How does the quality of your products or services compares to your colleagues' output

Below Average	Average	Above Average	Far Above Average	Excellent
[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

(Production: Efficiency)
4. How efficiently do you work compared to your colleagues? In other words, how well do you use available resources (money, people, equipment, etc.)?

Below Average	Average	Above Average	Far Above Average	Excellent
[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

(Adaption: Anticipating Problems and Solving Them Satisfactorily)
5. Compared to your colleagues, how good are you at preventing or minimizing potential work problems before they occur?

Below Average	Average	Above Average	Far Above Average	Excellent
[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

(Adaption: Awareness of Potential Solutions)

6. Compared to your colleagues, how effective are you with keeping up with changes that could affect the way you work?

Below Average	Average	Above Average	Far Above Average	Excellent
[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

(Adaption: Promptness of Adjustment)

7. How quickly do you adjust to work changes compared to your colleagues?

Below Average	Average	Above Average	Far Above Average	Excellent
[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

(Adaption: Prevalence of Adjustment)

8. How well would you rate yourself compared to your colleagues in adjusting to new work changes?

Below Average	Average	Above Average	Far Above Average	Excellent
[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

(Flexibility)

9. How well do you handle workplace emergencies (such as crisis deadlines, unexpected personnel issues, resources allocation problems, etc.) compared to your colleagues?

Below Average	Average	Above Average	Far Above Average	Excellent
[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

Turnover Intention

For the following questions, please answer with an X how you feel in regards to your current job situation.

1. I expect to be working for my current employer one year from now.
   Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Disagree [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

2. I would change jobs if I could find another position that pays as well as my current one.
   Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Disagree [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

3. I am actively looking for another job.
   Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Disagree [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

4. I would like to work for my current employer until I retire.
   Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Disagree [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

5. I would prefer to be working at another organization.
Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Disagree [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

6. I can't see myself working for another organization.
Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Disagree [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

7. I would feel very happy about working for another employee.
Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Disagree [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

Affective Commitment

For the following questions, please answer with an X how you feel in regards to your organization.

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Disagree [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Disagree [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own
Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Disagree [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

4. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.
Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Disagree [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

5. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.
Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Disagree [ ]   Neutral [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

Deviant Workplace Behavior

For the following questions, please answer with an X what best describes you.

1. Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working
Never [ ]   Almost never [ ]   Sometimes [ ]   Almost every time [ ]   Every time [ ]

2. Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace
Never [ ]   Almost never [ ]   Sometimes [ ]   Almost every time [ ]   Every time [ ]

3. Come in late to work without permission
Never [ ]   Almost never [ ]   Sometimes [ ]   Almost every time [ ]   Every time [ ]

4. Neglected to follow your boss's instructions
Never [ ]   Almost never [ ]   Sometimes [ ]   Almost every time [ ]   Every time [ ]

5. Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked
Never [ ]   Almost never [ ]   Sometimes [ ]   Almost every time [ ]   Every time [ ]

6. Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job
Never [ ]   Almost never [ ]   Sometimes [ ]   Almost every time [ ]   Every time [ ]

7. Put little effort into your work
Never [ ]   Almost never [ ]   Sometimes [ ]   Almost every time [ ]   Every time [ ]

8. Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expense
Never [ ]   Almost never [ ]   Sometimes [ ]   Almost every time [ ]   Every time [ ]

Fatigue Level

For the following questions, please answer with an X what best describes your situation.

1. I find it difficult to relax at the end of a working day.
   Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Neutral [ ]
   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

2. Do to my job, I feel rather exhausted at the end of a working day.
   Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Neutral [ ]
   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

3. After work, it takes effort to concentrate in my spare time.
   Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Neutral [ ]
   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

4. In general, it takes me more than an hour to recover completely after work.
   Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Neutral [ ]
   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

5. When I come home, they must leave me alone for a while.
   Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Neutral [ ]
   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

6. After working day, I frequently feel too fatigue to engage in any other activity.
   Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Neutral [ ]
   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

7. During the last stage of working day, I often feel too fatigued to perform well.
   Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Neutral [ ]
   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

Perceived Organizational Support

For the following questions, please answer with an X how you perceive your organization.

1. My organization really cares about my well-being.
   Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Neutral [ ]
   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

2. My organization strongly considers my goals and values.
   Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Neutral [ ]
   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

3. My organization shows little concern for me.
   Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Neutral [ ]
   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

4. My organization cares about my opinion.
   Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Neutral [ ]
   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

5. My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor.
   Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Neutral [ ]
   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

6. Help is available from my organization when I have a problem.
   Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Neutral [ ]
   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

7. My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.
   Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Neutral [ ]
   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

8. If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me.
   Strongly Disagree [ ]   Disagree [ ]   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Neutral [ ]
   Somewhat Agree [ ]   Agree [ ]   Strongly Agree [ ]

Cultural Dimensions

For the following questions, please indicate the extent of how you perceive your society.

1. In this society, the accepted norm is to:

Plan for the future						Accept the status quo
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. In this society, people place more emphasis on:

Solving current problems						Planning for the future
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. The way to be successful in this society is to:

Plan ahead						Take events as they occurred
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. In this society, more people:

live for the present than live for the future						live for the future than live for the present
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. In this society, children take pride in the individual accomplishments of their parents:

Strongly agree						Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. In this society, parents take pride in the individual accomplishments of their children:

Strongly agree						Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. In this society, aging parents generally live at home with their children:

Strongly agree			Neither agree nor disagree			Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. In this society, children generally live at home with their parents until they get married.

Strongly agree			Neither agree nor disagree			Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9. In this society, people are generally:

Very concerned about others						Not at all concerned about others
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10. In this society, people are generally:

Very sensitive about others						Not at all sensitive about others
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11. In this society, people are generally:

Very friendly						Very unfriendly
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. In this society, people are generally:

Very generous						Not at all generous
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Demographics

1. Gender ( ) Male   ( ) Female   ( ) Other

2. Highest level of education completed?
() No education   () Elementary School   () Middle School   () High School
() Some College   () Bachelor   () Master's Degree   () Doctoral degree

3. Age:() 18-25   () 26-35   () 36-45   () 46-55   () 56 or above

4. What is your ethnic background?[1]
( ) White   ( ) Asian   ( ) African   ( ) Latino   ( ) European   ( ) Native   ( ) *Indo-Aryan
( ) *Dravidian   ( ) *Mongoloid   ( ) Other

5. Employment Status () Part-time   () Full-time

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[1] Notes: *For question 4 in demographics, the choices of Indo-Aryan, Dravidian, and Mongolian are used explicitly for the Indian sample.

6. Nationality: _____

7. Marital Status
() Single   () In a relationship   () Married   () Divorced   () Widowed

8. Number of children you have under 18
() None   () 1   () 2   () 3   () 4 or more

9. Tenure in the company
() 0-1 years   () 2-5 years   () 6-10 years   () 11-20 years () 21 years or more

10. Are you responsible for a family member or dependent that is elderly?
() No   () Yes

11. Which sector best describes the company where you work?

    [   ] Consumer– discretionary
    [   ] Consumer– staples
    [   ] Energy
    [   ] Financial
    [   ] Government
    [   ] Health care
    [   ] Industrials
    [   ] Information technology
    [   ] Materials extraction
    [   ] Real estate
    [   ] Telecommunication services
    [   ] Utilities
    [   ] Other

12. How many people do you perceive are employed at your organization?
    _____ Less than 100 employees (Small)

    _____ 100 to 499 employees (Medium)

    _____ 500 or more employees (Large)

APPENDIX C

WLB Programs Studies

Table C illustrates some studies regarding the effects of WLB programs on several outcomes from the years 2000-2017.

Work-life Variable	Programs in Study	Outcome Variables	Sample	Source
Work-Life Balance Programs Satisfaction	9 Programs	Organizational Commitment	Philippine Government Managers	Kim and Ryu (2017)
Work-life balance program	4 Programs	Absences or sickness rates, motivation of staff, staff retention difficulty, ease to achieve work-life balance	20 European countries	Stavrou and Ierodiakonou (2016)
Family-Friendly Programs Availability	3 Programs	Job Performance; Job Satisfaction	U.S., China, India (Managers)	Stock et al., (2016)
Flexible Working Programs Availability and Usage	4 Programs	Turnover intention, psychological strain, work engagement	Australian Employees	Timms et al., (2015)
Work-life balance		Uncertainty Avoidance (Moderator), Employee Well-being	17 European Countries	Lucia-Casademunt, García-Cabrera, and Cuéllar-Molina, (2015)
Work-Life Balance Programs Availability and Usage	4 Programs	Health conditions, well-being, WLB	Australia	Zheng et al., (2015)
Work-life Balance	Perception of Work-life Balance	Affective Commitment (Mediator); In-role Performance	Korea (Employees)	Kim (2014)
Family-Friendly Programs	Meta-analysis	Job satisfaction, affective commitment, and intention to stay	Meta-analysis	Butts, Casper, and Yang (2013)
Family-Friendly Programs Satisfaction	5 Programs	Managerial Support and Performance-Oriented Management (Moderators); Job Satisfaction and Organizational Performance	U.S. Federal Employees	Ko et al., (2013)
Work-Life Balance Programs Satisfaction	5 Programs	Organizational Commitment, Job Involvement	U.S. Federal Employees	Caillier (2013)

Telework	1 program	Productivity, retention, turnover intention, commitment, and performance	Meta-analysis (19 articles)	Harker Martin and MacDonnell (2012)
Flexible Working Programs Availability	4 Programs	Job Satisfaction, Turnover Intention, and Work-family conflict	"Managers" Anglo Cluster (Australia, Canada, New Zealand, U.S. and UK); Asian Cluster (Hong Kong, Korea, Japan, PR China, and Taiwan); Latin American Cluster (Argentina, Chile, Bolivia, Puerto Rico, and Peru).	Masuda et al., (2012)
Work-life Balance Practices Availability	15 Programs	WLB supportive culture (Mediator); Organizational Performance	Spain (SME employees)	Cegarra-Leiva, et al., (2012)
Family-friendly Programs Satisfaction	4 Programs	Employee turnover rate and agency performance	U.S. Federal Government Employees	Lee and Hong (2011)
Family-Friendly Programs	5 Programs	Firm Productivity	Germany, France, U.K. and U.S. (Managers)	Bloom, Kretschmer, and Van Reenen, (2011)
Family-Friendly Programs	6 Programs	Organizational Commitment, Work-Family Conflict	China, Indian, Kenya, and Thailand	Wang, Lawler, and Shi (2011)
Family-Friendly Programs	7 Programs	Turnover Intention	U.S. Federal employees	Kim and Wiggins (2011)
Flexible Working Programs	2 Programs	Job Commitment, Job Satisfaction	U.K. Employees	Kelliher and Anderson (2010)
Family-Friendly Programs	9 Programs	Work-Life conflict	Hong Kong	Wood and de Menezes (2010)
Flexible Working Programs	8 Programs	Turnover	Angle Cluster (UK, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, (U.S.); Nordic Europe (Finland, Sweden, Norway, Denmark)	Stavrou and Kilaniotis (2010)
Work-Life Balance Programs Perception	Conceptual	Employee WLB policy awareness, policy uptake, policy satisfaction	Conceptual	McCarthy, Darcy, and Grady (2010)
Work-life Balance Programs	Conceptual	Performance	Conceptual	Beauregard and Henry (2009)

Family-Friendly Programs	7 Programs	Organizational Climate; Market-Related Performance; HR-Related Performance; Employee Turnover	Hong Kong (HR Directors/Managers)	Ngo et al., (2009)
Family-Friendly Programs	4 Programs	Turnover	Japan (Employees)	Yanadori and Kato (2009)
Flexible working programs	2 Programs	Work-to-family enrichment (Mediator) Job satisfaction, Turnover intention	Study Response Participants	McNall et al., (2009)
Work-life Balance Practices Perceived Value	14-15 Programs	Affective Commitment, task performance, contextual performance	U.S Healthcare and Manufacturing Employees	Muse et al., (2008)
WLB Programs	Conceptual	Turnover Intention	Conceptual	Deery (2008)
Flexible Working Programs		Firm Performance	SME (Spain)	Martínez Sánchez, Pérez Pérez, de Luis Carnicer, and José Vela Jiménez (2007).
Family-Friendly Programs	6 Programs	Transformational Leadership (Moderator), Organizational commitment, and work withdrawal	China, Kenya, India (Bank Employees)	Wang and Walumbwa (2007)
Work-life balance programs	7 Programs	Women's career advancement	14 European Countries (Senior HR Managers)	Straub (2007)
Telework	1 Program	Work exhaustion (Mediator); organizational commitment, turnover intention	U.S. (Teleworking employees)	Golden (2006)
Work-Life Programs Barriers	13 Programs (Flexible and Family-Friendly)	Programs availability; Barriers	Australia (HR Managers)	De Cieri et al., (2005).
Flexible working programs	6 Programs	Work related stress, commitment to employer, reduced organizational cost	U.S-1997 National Study of the Changing Workforce Participants	Halpern (2005a)
Family-Friendly Programs	7 Programs	Work-family conflict, job satisfaction, family satisfaction	New Zealand	Brough, O'Driscoll, and Kalliath (2005)
Family-Friendly Programs	6 Programs	Organizational Commitment	New Zealand Government	Haar and Spell (2004)

			Employees	
Family-Friendly Programs	3 Programs	Job Satisfaction, Family Satisfaction	MBA and Undergraduate students from Midwestern University, Health Care Firm Employees	Frye and Breaugh (2004)
Telework (Conceptual)	1 Program	Manager's decision to implement program	Conceptual (Northern and Southern European Countries	Peters and den Dulk (2003)
Flexible Working Programs	7 Programs	Affective commitment, self-perceived productivity	U.S. Biopharmaceutical Employees	Eaton (2003)
Telework	2 programs	Job performance, Job motivation, retention, workload success, and career opportunity and personal/family life	U.S.	Hill et al., (2003)
Family-Friendly Programs	5 Programs	Job satisfaction	U.S. Federal Government Employees	Saltzstein, Ting, & Saltzstein (2001)
Flexible working programs	5 Programs	Culture effect on implementation of programs	14 Countries (UK, France, Germany, Sweden, Spain, Denmark, Netherland, Italy, Norway, Switzerland, Turkey, Ireland, Finland, Belgium).	Raghuram, London, and Larsen (2001)
Family-Friendly programs	10 Programs	Family-Supportive Organization Perception (Mediator); Work–family conflict, affective commitment, and job satisfaction.	U.S. (522 Employees)	Allen (2001)
Work-life balance programs	19 Programs	Firm Productivity	U.S. Employees	Konrad and Mangel (2000)
Work-Life Balance Usefulness	Not specified	Organizational Citizenship Behavior	U.S. Employees	Lambert (2000)
Family-Friendly programs	8 Programs	Firm level performance (Organizational, market, and profit and sales growth)	U.S. employees	Perry-Smith and Blum (2000)

APPENDIX D

Programs Frequency Usage

Table D shows the frequency the programs have been used in studies.

Programs	Studies
Flexible Work Schedule	Kim and Ryu, 2017; Stock et al, 2016; Timms et al., 2015; Zheng et al., 2015; Ko et al., 2013; Caillier, 2013; Masuda et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2011; Kim and Wiggins, 2011; Stavrou and Kilaniotis, 2010; Ngo, 2009; Yanadori and Kato, 2009; Muse et al., 2008; Wang and Walumbwa, 2007; Straub, 2007; De Cieri et al., 2005; Brough et al., 2005; Haar and Spell, 2004; Eaton, 2003; Saltztein et al., 2005; Raghuram et al., 2001; Allen, 2001; Konrad and Mangel, 2000; Perry-Smith and Blum, 2000.
Paternal Leave	Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012, Wood and de Menezes, 2010; Ngo, 2009; Yanadori and Kato, 2009; Muse et al., 2008; Straub, 2007; De Cieri et al., 2005; Haar and Spell, 2004; Allen, 2001; Konrad and Mangel, 2000.
Telecommuting	Kim and Ryu, 2017; Stock et al, 2016; Timms et al., 2015; Zheng et al., 2015; Ko et al., 2013; Caillier, 2013; Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Bloom et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2011; Kim and Wiggins, 2011; Wood and de Menezes, 2010; Stavrou and Kilaniotis, 2010; Ngo, 2009; Wang and Walumbwa, 2007; Straub, 2007; De Cieri et al., 2005; Eaton, 2003; Saltztein et al., 2005; Raghuram et al., 2001; Allen, 2001.
Compressed Workweek	Timms et al., 2015; Masuda et al., 2012; Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Muse et al., 2008; De Cieri et al., 2005; Eaton, 2003; Saltzstein et al., 2001; Allen, 2001.
Child-Care	Kim and Ryu, 2017; Stock et al., 2016, Zheng et al., 2015; Ko et al., 2013; Caillier et al., 2013; Bloom et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2011; Kim and Wiggins, 2011; Wood and de Menezes, 2010; Ngo, 2009; Yanadori and Kato, 2009; Muse et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2007; Brough et al., 2005; Haar and Spell, 2004; Saltzstein et al., 2001; Allen, 2001; Konrad and Mangel, 2000; Perry-Smith and Blum, 2000.
Elder-Care Support	Ko et al., 2013; Caillier, 2013; Kim and Wiggins, 2011; Wood and de Menezes, 2010; Muse et al., 2008; Brough et al., 2005; Allen, 2001; Perry-Smith and Blum, 2000.
Job Sharing	Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Bloom et al., 2011; Wood and de Menezes, 2010; Stavrou and Kilaniotis, 2010; Muse et al., 2008; Brough et al., 2005; Eaton, 2003; Perry-Smith and Blum, 2000.
Part-time	Timms et al., 2015; Masuda et al., 2012; Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Stavrou and Kilaniotis, 2010; De Cieri et al., 2005; Eaton, 2003; Saltzstein et al., 2001; Raghuram et al., 2001; Allen, 2001; Konrad and Mangel, 2000; Perry-Smith and Blum, 2000.

Unpaid leave for personal/family matters	Zheng et al., 2015; Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2011; Wood and Menezes, 2010; Wang and Walumbwa, 2007; Haar and Spell, 2003; Eaton, 2003.
Weight Criteria (Included as part of health and wellness.	Kim and Ryu, 2017; Muse et al., 2008; Willis Americas, 2011.
Stress Management Programs (Included as part of health and wellness.	Kim and Ryu, 2017; Muse et al., 2008; Willis Americas, 2011.
Professional Counseling (Included as part of health and wellness.	Kim and Ryu, 2017; Muse et al., 2008; Willis Americas, 2011.
Lunch Break	Ning et al., 2015.

APPENDIX E

Table E displays the availability of WLB programs as perceived by both American and Indian respondents.

Programs	Availability	Frequency (U.S.)	Proportion (U.S.)	Frequency (India)	Proportion (India)
Flextime	No	79	36%	25	15%
	Yes	140	64%	134	85%
Maternal Leave	No	52	24%	30	19%
	Yes	167	76%	129	81%
Paternal Leave	No	120	55%	76	47%
	Yes	99	45%	83	53%
Telecommuting	No	100	46%	34	21%
	Yes	119	54%	125	79%
Compressed Workweek	No	131	60%	73	46%
	Yes	88	40%	86	54%
Child-care	No	174	80%	91	57%
	Yes	45	20%	68	43%
Elder-care Support	No	195	90%	97	61%
	Yes	24	10%	62	39%
Job Sharing	No	169	77%	65	41%
	Yes	50	23%	94	59%
Part-time Employment	No	57	26%	82	52%
	Yes	162	74%	77	48%
Paid/Unpaid Personal Leave	No	43	20%	35	22%
	Yes	176	80%	124	78%
Weight Management Programs	No	167	76%	89	56%
	Yes	52	24%	70	44%
Stress Management Programs	No	154	70%	65	41%
	Yes	65	30%	94	59%
Professional Counseling	No	154	70%	67	42%
	Yes	65	30%	92	58%
1 to 2 Hours of Lunch Break	No	89	41%	47	30%
	Yes	129	59%	112	70%

Notes: U.S, N=219; India, N=159

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- Principals of Management and Organizational Behavior (MGT-3310), Spring 2018
- Principals of Management and Organizational Behavior (MGT-3310), Fall 2017

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Human Resource Management
Organizational Behavior
International Business

Journal Publications:

Alikaj, A., Nguyen, C. N., & **Medina, E.** (2017). Differentiating the impact of CSR strengths and concerns on firm performance: An investigation of MNEs and US domestic firms. *Journal of Management Development*, *36*(3), 401-409.

Pena-Sanchez, R., & **Medina, E.** (2017) The Effect of the Board of Directors Composition on Corporate Social Responsibility for Domestic and Multinational Firms. *Journal of Academy of Business and Economics*, Vol. 17, Number 4, pp 83-90.

Pena-Sanchez, R., & **Medina, E.** (2017) Country characteristics as significant factors for attracting foreign direct investment. *Journal of Academy of Business and Economics*, Vol. 17, Number 3, pp 64-73.

Research in Progress:

The Effect of Motivating Language on Employees' Deviant Behavior: The Role of Supervisor Trust