

IMPACT OF WORK-LIFE PROGRAMS ON ORGANISATIONAL OUTCOMES

Kohinur Akter

MSc (HRM), University of Strathclyde, UK

MBA, University of Dhaka, Bangladesh

BBA, University of Dhaka, Bangladesh

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

School of Management

QUT Business School

Queensland University of Technology

2019

Keywords

Review; work–life programs; organisational outcomes; business case; perceived organisational performance, corporate social responsibility, human resource systems; financial performance, strategic human resource management theory, organisation size, industry type

Abstract

Work–life programs (WLPs) have been attracting attention as a human resource (HR) practice that benefits individual employees, organisations and the society. Despite considerable research addressing the impact of these programs on various organisational outcomes, a strong business case for the WLPs has not yet been established. The business case for WLPs show they are very important to organisations since they go through various economic, social, environmental, and technological changes globally. The social case of WLPs is also significant to various stakeholders of organisations and policy makers. However, the uptake of WLPs is contingent on the contextual phenomena. The influence of the organisational context on the effective usage of WLPs has not been comprehensively explored yet.

Through a systematic literature review of all organisation level studies, this research discourses the gaps in current knowledge on the impact of WLPs on organisational outcomes by addressing the research question: ‘To what extent and how do work–life programs impact various organizational outcomes?’ This thesis by publication consists of three manuscripts. Strategic human resource management (SHRM); stakeholder and contingent theory are adopted to explore the impact of WLPs. Organisational context (e.g., HR systems, organisation size, and industry type) has also been focused in the WLP-performance relationship. Drawing on the SHRM theory, contingency theory and stakeholder theory, this thesis unleashes the power of contextual influences that drives the proper utilisation of WLPs.

The research also uses a combination of cross-sectional and time-lagged design. The hypotheses were tested in 192 for-profit organisations in Australia. It collects data from multiple sources: a HR manager survey and archival databases. The results indicate that there is a positive relationship between WLPs and all three organisational outcomes: Perceived organisational performance, corporate social responsibility (CSR), and organisational financial performance. The results partially support the moderating effect of HR systems on the relationship between WLPs and perceived organisational performance. The research explicitly identifies the influence of organisational context (e.g., organisation size and industry type) and how this context affects the relationship.

Among the contributions, this research expands the stakeholder theory in the HR literature by addressing the social perspectives of WLPs. The research supports SHRM theory through illustrating a moderating effect of organisation size on the relationship between WLPs and organisational performance. The findings also indicate that industry type plays an

inevitable role to understand the effect of WLPs through the lens of contingency theory. The research identifies important practical contributions to various stakeholders such as HR managers, practitioners, and policy makers. The research shows that HR managers can explain the rationales of their investment into WLPs. It helps practitioners to understand the benefits of WLPs both for organisations and greater society.

Table of Contents

Keywords	ii
Abstract.....	iii
List of Figures	viii
List of Tables	ix
List of Publications	x
List of Abbreviations	xi
Statement of Original Authorship.....	xii
Acknowledgements.....	xiii
Chapter 1.....	1
Introduction.....	1
1.0 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH	1
1.2 PURPOSE AND AIM OF THE RESEARCH.....	5
1.2.1 Aims of the Research.....	5
1.2.2 Research Questions.....	6
1.3 RESEARCH SCOPE	6
1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN OF STUDIES AND LINKAGES AMONG THE STUDIES.....	7
1.4.1 Research design.....	7
1.4.2 Linkages among the studies	8
1.5 THESIS OUTLINE.....	10
Chapter 2.....	11
Literature Review.....	11
2.0 INTRODUCTION	11
2.1 WORK–LIFE PROGRAMS AND ORGANISATIONAL OUTCOMES.....	11
2.1.1 Positive findings.....	12
2.1.2 Negative findings	12
2.1.3 Non-significant findings	12
2.1.4 Mixed findings	13
2.2 BACKGROUND	13
2.2.1 Bundle Studies: Direct association with organisational outcomes.....	14
2.2.2 Separate Programs: Direct association with organisational outcomes.....	19
2.2.3 Summary: is there any business case of work–life programs?.....	23
2.2.4 Corporate Social Responsibility.....	26

2.2.5 HR systems	27
2.2.6 Organisation size.....	29
2.2.7 Industry	30
2.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	31
2.3.1 Stakeholder Theory	31
2.3.2 SHRM Theory.....	33
2.3.3 Contingency Theory.....	35
2.3.4 Social Exchange Theory	36
2.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	37
2.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	38
Chapter 3.....	39
Methodology	39
3.0 INTRODUCTION	39
3.1 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY	39
3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN & METHODS.....	40
3.3 DATA SOURCES	41
3.4 PROCEDURE.....	42
3.5 MEASURES	43
3.5.1 Demographics	43
3.5.2 Work–life programs	43
3.5.3 Perceived firm performance.....	43
3.5.4 Corporate social responsibility (CSR)	44
3.5.5 Financial performance.....	44
3.5.6 HR systems	44
3.5.7 Organisation size.....	45
3.5.8 Industry	45
3.6 ANALYSIS AND EMPIRICAL MODELS	45
3.7 LIMITATIONS.....	47
3.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	48
Chapter 4.....	49
Submitted & Revised Paper	49
Work–Life Programs and Organizational Outcomes: A Systematic Literature Review.....	49
4.1 DETAILS OF SELECTED JOURNAL.....	49
4.2 SUBMITTED PAPER	51

Chapter 5.....	89
Paper Accepted for Publication.....	89
Work–life programs and organisational outcomes: The role of the human resource system	89
5.1 DETAILS OF SELECTED JOURNAL.....	89
5.2 SUBMITTED MANUSCRIPT	91
Chapter 6.....	127
Paper Accepted for Publication.....	127
Work–life programs and performance in Australian organisations: The role of organisation size and industry type.....	127
6.1 DETAILS OF SELECTED JOURNAL.....	127
6.2 SUBMITTED MANUSCRIPT	129
Chapter 7.....	161
Discussion and Conclusion	161
7.1 RESPONSE TO OVERARCHING RESEARCH QUESTIONS	161
7.2 SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS	162
7.2.1 Main effects	163
7.2.2 Moderating effects	164
7.3 THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTIONS	165
7.4 CONTRIBUTIONS TO RESEARCH	169
7.5 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS	174
7.5.1 Policies for Government	174
7.5.2 Practices for Organisations	175
7.5.3 Implications for HR Managers.....	176
7.6 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS	177
7.7 CONCLUSIONS.....	180
References.....	181
Appendices.....	201

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction	
Figure 1.1 Research design.....	8
Figure 1.2 Manuscripts and their linkages.....	9
Chapter 2: Literature Review	
Figure 2.1 Framework capturing the impact of work-life programs on firm performance	24
Figure 2.2 Conceptual framework for work-life programs-performance relationship	38
Chapter 3: Methodology	
Figure 3.1 Research design framework.....	41
Chapter 4: Submitted and Revised Paper	
Figure 1 Systematic literature review summary.....	86
Figure 2 Search strategy framework	87
Figure 3 Factors determining work-life programs-organizational outcomes	88
Chapter 5: Submitted and Revised Paper	
Figure 1 Interaction effects of work-life programs and the human resource system	124
Chapter 6: Accepted Paper for Publication	
Figure 1 Proposed model of work-life programs and organisational outcome	134
Figure 2 Interaction effects of work-life programs and organisation size on net income	155
Figure 3 Interaction effects of work-life programs and industry type on net income	156
Figure 4 Interaction effects of work-life programs and industry type on operating revenue	157
Chapter 7: Discussion and Conclusion	
Figure 7.1 Research framework	162

List of Tables

Chapter 4: Submitted & Revised Paper

Table 1 Keywords used in the systematic review	80
Table 2 Summary of journals.....	81
Table 3 Attributes of bundle studies	82
Table 4 Impact of bundles of work–life programs on outcomes	83
Table 5 Attributes of separate program studies	84
Table 6 Separate program and outcomes	85

Chapter 5: Submitted and Revised Paper

Table 1 Mean, standard deviations and correlations	122
Table 2 Hierarchical regression analyses	123

Chapter 6: Submitted and Revised Paper

Table 1 Mean, standard deviations and correlations	153
Table 2 Hierarchical regression analyses	154
Table 3 Hierarchical regression analyses (With log transformation of Organization size).....	160

List of Publications

Manuscripts in order of presentation within this thesis

1. Akter, K., Ali. M., & Chang, A. (2nd stage R&R). *Work-life programs and Organizational performance: A Systematic Literature Review*. Under review with Community, Work and Family Journal.
2. Akter, K., Ali. M., & Chang, A. (in press). *Work-life programs and organisational outcomes: the role of human resource system*. Personnel Review Journal.
3. Akter, K., Ali. M., & Chang, A. (2019). *Work-life programs and performance in Australian Organizations: the role of organization size and industry type*. Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, doi-org.ezp01.library.qut.edu.au/10.1111/1744-7941.12235

Conference papers which are not included in this thesis:

1. Akter, K., Ali, M., & Chang, A. (2018). Work-life programs and performance in Australian organisations: The role of organization size. The 32nd Australian & New Zealand Academy of Management (ANZAM) conference, 4-7 December 2018, Massey University, New Zealand.
2. Akter, K., Ali, M., & Chang, A. (2018). Work-life programs and outcomes in Australian organisations: The role of the human resource system. The 32nd Australian & New Zealand Academy of Management (ANZAM) conference, 4-7 December 2018, Massey University, New Zealand.
3. Akter, K., Ali, M., & Chang, A. (2016). Work-life programs and organizational performance: A systematic Literature Review. The 30th Australian & New Zealand Academy of Management (ANZAM) conference, 6-9 December 2016, Queensland University of Technology (QUT), Brisbane, Australia.

List of Abbreviations

WLPs Work–life Programs

HR Human Resources

HRM Human Resource Management

CSR Corporate Social Responsibility

SHRM Strategic Human Resource Management

FWA Flexible Work Arrangements

Note: This Thesis by Publication consists of three manuscripts that are presented according to the format of the relevant journals. Therefore, there will be deviations in the spelling of a few words (for example, ‘organisation’ or ‘organization’). This indicates the spelling required by that journal.

Statement of Original Authorship

The work contained in this thesis has not been previously submitted to meet requirements for an award at this or any other higher education institution. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made.

Signature: QUT Verified Signature

Date: 13/09/2019

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, all my gratitude and thanks to my creator for making everything happen in my life. I am very much thankful to QUT for providing me the post graduate research scholarship to pursue PhD here. QUT has provided me a platform where I have got all kinds of support and skill to grow myself in the research environment. My special thanks is for the research support office at QUT. Milen and Dennis are wonderful persons who provided all the support with smiles.

I would like to acknowledge and thank my principal supervisor, Dr. Muhammad Ali, for giving me all the support and cooperation I needed to come along on this journey. My words are not sufficient to say thanks to him. I feel lucky to get you as my principal supervisor. Without you, I would not be able to come to this stage. I am also very much grateful to my associate supervisor, Associate Professor Artemis Chang. Thank you for your precious time and consistent support. My special thanks goes to the editor, Jane Todd.

My heartfelt thanks goes to my husband, Dewan Mostafizur Rahman, for being with me and saying ‘You can do it’. This single sentence revives me always and gives me confidence. He dedicated his time and took care of the kids. From PhD inception to the last stage, his guidance is invaluable. I am also extremely thankful to my parents for inspiration and trust in me. I am here for their continuous prayer and good wishes. My father is very wise and big hearted person, always had dream for me and this has come true. My mother is very brilliant and patient lady and she taught me all these to be competitive.

I am also very grateful to my friends Tahrira Ferdous, Nyma Alamgir, Sadia Nowshin, Sabina, Homaira, Farjana Akter and Zahidul Islam for immense support throughout my PhD journey. The stressful journey has become enjoyable for your presence here. My brother, Zahidul was always with me and helped me to adopt positive attitude in every aspect of my life. I am deeply grateful to him.

At last, my two sons, Albab and Anas sacrificed lots of their cuddle time for mummy’s study. Albab does a great job as an elder brother and understands me. Albab also helps me in the household chores and prepare himself for the school tasks, even without any help from me. He is a wonder boy whose words sparkle in my mind and inspire me to go ahead in the future.

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter includes a synopsis of the content of this thesis. An overview of this research into work–life programs is presented, including the research background (section 1.1), purpose and aims of the research (section 1.2) and scope of the research (section 1.3). The design of each of the studies and links among those studies is provided in section 1.4. In section 1.5, the contributions of this research to theory and practice is presented briefly. This chapter ends with the structure of the thesis. This chapter describes the rationales, background and research aims of the collective body of knowledge of this thesis.

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH

This thesis examines the impact of work–life programs (WLPs) on various organisational outcomes (perceived organisational performance, corporate social responsibility performance, financial performance) and how this impact is moderated by contextual influences. Work–life programs consist of policies and practices such as flexible work, childcare facilities, work from home, teleworking, adoption leave, parental leave, job sharing, part-time work, compressed week, flexible holidays, and support groups for single employees and working parents. Work–life programs can be defined as: ‘how the organisation intends to allow employees greater flexibility in their working patterns so that they can balance what they do at work with the responsibilities and interests they have outside work’ (Armstrong, 2017, p. 86). The term ‘work–life programs’ is used interchangeably with work–family programs in literature (Chang et al., 2010; Keeney et al., 2013). The initiatives of these programs are recent developments in the HR literature which are considered an extension of work and family practices to cater for most of the workforce who have life other than family responsibilities outside their work domain (e.g., sport and community commitments). As work and life programs are a recent phenomenon, much of this literature is based on earlier work and family over the period 1990-2010 (Chang et al., 2010). These programs allow employees to carry out their work varying the time, place, and mechanisms. Life comprises of multiple aspects (personal/family life, work/professional, and community) which requires proper functioning,

meaning, and balance (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007). Balancing these multifaceted aspects is a universal matter of struggle across different stages of everyone's life irrespective of gender and profession. Work-life programs are considered a strategic and innovative HR practice, which can address these multifaceted demands derived from various domains of life (Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000; Yang & Jiang, 2017). Since employees devote most of their productive time, energy, and effort to their work, these programs increase self-confidence while allowing flexibility and capability to perform various work and non-work roles simultaneously. As a result, employees feel gratitude towards organisations for their job satisfaction, which in turn leads to many aspects of family life satisfaction (work-to-family enrichment) (Chan et al., 2016; Voydanoff, 2005). On a similar note, satisfaction in family roles leads to better job functioning and performance (family-to-work enrichment). Thus, work-life programs act as positive mechanisms to manage various work and family domains (Carlson et al., 2014; Carlson et al., 2006).

There are several factors contributing to the uptake and usage of work-life programs in organisations including economic, environmental, health, and technological factors. Here, economic environment has a substantial impact on how employers perceive costs and benefits of work-life programs in a particular context (Arthur & Cook, 2003; Cooper & Antoniou, 2013). For instance, the economic crises of two recessions in the 2000s influenced organisations to curtail work-life programs as a way of reducing the cost of business (Been et al., 2015; Naithani, 2010). Many employers reduce labour costs through offshoring jobs from industrialised countries to developing countries (Gambles et al., 2006). Besides, the rapid technological development drives employers to go for a 24/7 business model that requires various programs such as flexible work options, telecommuting, and flexi hours. These inevitable changes improve firm performance in many cases and increase operational costs (James, 2014). Hence, it is evident that a strong business case is essential for employers to keep work-life programs in their mainstream HR system while being competitive with external forces (Kossek et al., 2009).

A large body of research has been conducted both at the individual and organisational level investigating the impact of work-life programs on employees and employers' benefits. At the individual level, the general notion is that WLPs promote greater employee commitment to organisations (Casper & Harris, 2008; Grover & Crooker, 1995; Parkes & Langford, 2008); increase employee job satisfaction (Scandura & Lankau, 1997; Yuile et al., 2012); stimulate

greater employee attachment to organisations, and reduces turnover rate of employees (Goldberg et al., 1989; Roehling et al., 2001). It is noteworthy that WLPs assist employees to experience positive outcome in their broader work–life domain. Moreover, a number of studies have investigated the effects of work–life programs on various organisational outcomes, namely, employee productivity, financial performance, profit, shareholder return, risk level, and cost savings (Ali et al., 2014; Blazovich et al., 2013; Bloom et al., 2011; Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Clifton & Shepard, 2004; Gonyea & Googins, 1992; Kelly et al., 2008; Konrad & Mangel, 2000; Kossek et al., 2011; Kossek et al., 2009; Osterman, 1995; Wood & de Menezes, 2010). The outcomes of work–life programs are mixed and non-significant in many cases (Bloom et al., 2011; Giardini & Kabst, 2008). A strong business case for work and life programs in organisations is not established yet (Kelly et al., 2008; Kossek et al., 2011; Yamamoto & Matsuura, 2014). It is still unknown to what extent work–life programs improve various organisational performance.

Thus, many scholars examined the effectiveness of these programs in a multidimensional way rather than bottom-line indicators. They give emphasis on both the social and business case of work–life programs. In regard to the social case of work–life programs, broader HR practices have shifted to an outside/inside approach from an inside/outside approach. This inside/outside approach of HR focuses mainly on administrative tasks which ensure the internal efficiency of organisations. In this approach, HR develops various talent management practices to encourage higher employee productivity. On the other hand, the outside/inside approach creates value through serving internal and external stakeholders of organisations, namely investors, customers, and communities (Ulrich & Dulebohn, 2015). Overall, this transformation indicates that HR practices create value through serving internal and external stakeholders of organisations including investors, customers, and communities rather than focusing on administrative efficiency of organisations (Ulrich & Dulebohn, 2015). In addition, Jackson et al. (2014) brought the issue of stakeholders concern (e.g., investors, community, customers, and environment) as an outcome measure of HR practices to assess the impact from broader perspectives. Importantly, assessing the impact of work–life programs on various stakeholders is neglected and a missing agenda in both the work–life and broader HR research (Colakoglu et al., 2006; Jabbour & Santos, 2008).

HR scholarship also asserts that work–life programs exist within a system, where multiple stakeholders exist and interact in the different layers of the environment. Work–life programs need to be integrated within the broader human resource system and broader organisational

environment. Hence, understanding the organisational context is unequivocally an important reality to ensure the proper functioning of work–life programs (Kossek et al., 2009). The contingency theory (Galbraith, 1995) and organisational systems theory (Katz & Kahn, 1978) suggest that work–life programs are highly interdependent on various internal and external conditions. Synergistic effect arises if two or more HR practices are properly aligned or fitted with each other (Wright & McMahan, 1992). It is a matter of fact that very little is known about the organisational internal and external context such as size of the organisation, strategy, and HR systems, as well as culture and industry context while assessing the impact of work–life programs. More research warrants from organisational HR systems aspect, size context and industry context in relation to WLPs. This might explore what factors are acting as a driver or creating barrier for the effectiveness of WLPs in organisations. This also might reinvigorate the mechanisms of how WLPs increase organisations' overall performance, financial performance, employee productivity and CSR performance through the interaction of organisational context (Grote & Guest, 2017).

This research is based on the Australian context. In Australia, there are several global, economic, and social factors that drive the increasing awareness of work–life programs. Firstly, increasing employment rates along with the demographic changes led to the demand for work–life programs. Women's participation in the Australian labour force has increased 60% of total employment growth in 2015-2016 (Department of Employment, 2016). Female employees are approximately half of the workforce (46.2%) in Australia (Workplace Gender Equality Agency, 2016) who use various work–life programs to balance both work–life and family care (Rose et al., 2013). Secondly, single parent families and dual-career families also have risen significantly in the Australian labour market (ABS, 2010). Thirdly, there is also substantial growth in the aging workforce. These broader demographic and social phenomena have influenced the human resource practices of organisations (Skinner & Pocock, 2011). In addition, the millennials are about 42% of the total Australian workforce (McCrimble, 2008) whereas, the number of millennial generation would be half of the global workforce (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2011). Most of the millennials workforce put a higher priority on work–life programs than financial rewards and benefits (Buzza, 2017; Sutcliffe & Dhakal, 2018).

In response to the growing awareness of work–life programs in Australian organisations (De Cieri et al., 2005), more than half of the organisations offer flexible work options to their employees (Fair Work Commission, 2014). Moreover, the industrial and

legislative protection authority enforced the provision of national paid parental leave in January 2011 (Department of Social Services, 2016). These policies allow employees to request flexible work options from their employers. The legislative framework and labour market phenomena of Australia are different from the countries of the European Union (EU) and the US, where most of the research of work–life programs at the organisational level has taken place. In Australia, very little is known about the usage and the effectiveness of work–life programs at the organisational level. Moreover, very few studies have investigated the impact of WLPs at the individual level (McDonald et al., 2007; Pocock et al., 2013; Todd & Binns, 2013). Hence, the research interest of work–life programs is highly pragmatic to Australian academics, employers, practitioners, and policy makers.

1.2 PURPOSE AND AIM OF THE RESEARCH

The purpose of this research is to contribute to the knowledge on WLPs, specifically its impact on organisational outcomes both economic and social and the integration of HR systems for this impact. This research also offers insight into the industry and organisational size context of WLPs that contributes to the research scope between the existence and its impact on various organisational outcomes.

1.2.1 Aims of the Research

The aims of this research include examining multidimensional outcomes of work–life programs that provide a business and social case for organisations. At first, this research contributes to the current body of WLP research by compiling the evidence of the business case at the organisational level. In doing so, this research provides a better understanding of the business case for work–life programs in the Australian context. This research also examines the impact of WLPs on perceived organisational performance and financial performance and sheds light on the social impact of these programs (Beer et al., 2015; Grote & Guest, 2017). By conceptualising work–life programs as an example of HR practices and using the lens of stakeholders and SHRM theories (Freeman, 1983; Huselid, 1995), this research discusses the multifaceted impact of work–life programs that might help to achieve sustainable HR practices. Finally, understanding various contextual influences on the work–life programs–performance relationship is also one of the most significant research aims. Specifically, it enhances the understanding of how organisational contexts affect the organisational outcomes of WLP. Through illuminating the contextual dynamics (e.g., organisational size, industry, HR system) that contribute to the WLP-organisational performance relationship, this research aims to focus

on how the benefits of WLP are determined by the context. Collectively, the basic aim of this thesis is to address this overarching research question: ‘To what extent and how do work–life programs impact various organisational outcomes?’

1.2.2 Research Questions

Despite an extensive body of research in the WLPs field, research into the social case of WLPs and organisational and industry context on WLPs is inadequate. Thus, this research has taken a quantitative approach to investigate the contextual influences on the effectiveness of WLPs. Initially, it studies the impact of commitment and control HR systems to understand how various HR systems influence the outcome of WLPs. To comprehend how organisation size and industry context influence the extent of effectiveness, this thesis uses organisation size and industry as moderating variables. Overall, the principal research question is: ‘what is the impact of work–life programs on the organisational outcomes and how do HR system, organisational size, and industry context influence this impact?’ In this regard, five sub-questions were developed to understand the principal research question:

1. Do work–life programs improve various organisational outcomes?
2. Are there any business and social cases for WLPs?
3. Do HR systems strengthen or weaken the WLPs–performance relationship?
4. Does organisation size strengthen or weaken the WLPs–performance relationship?
5. Does industry type strengthen or weaken the WLPs–performance relationship?

The details of aims and questions are further clarified in Chapter 2, section 2.9.

1.3 RESEARCH SCOPE

This thesis contributes to multi-dimensional knowledge on WLPs and HR systems and provides insights into how various HR systems are interlinked with the outcome of WLPs. This research also provides knowledge to the industry and organisational size context in relation to WLPs. There are three manuscripts. Figure 1 presents the design of the three papers and the overall structure of the thesis in detail.

The research focus for each manuscript is summarised below.

Work–life programs and organisational outcomes: A Systematic Literature Review:
This manuscript presents a systematic literature review of the impact of work–life

programs on outcomes at the organisational level. A systematic selection process was adopted, resulting in a final sample of 32 articles published in 24 peer-reviewed journals over 28 years (1990–2017). This paper draws on quantitative and qualitative empirical studies to summarise, explain and refine the business case for work–life programs. This is the first systematic review paper which solely focuses on the impact of work–life programs at the organisational level. This paper explains the inconsistent findings of past research at the organisational level to advance knowledge about how work–life programs are positioned in the mainstream organisational systems.

Work–life programs and outcomes in Australian organisations: The role of the human resource system: This manuscript considers social exchange theory and stakeholder theory to examine the relationship between work–life programs and organisational performance. It also investigates a moderating effect of human resource systems on the work–life programs–performance relationship. The hypotheses were tested in 192 organisations in Australia. The findings of the research strengthen the business case as well as social case for work–life programs and highlights the importance of alignment between HR system and work–life programs to understand the synergistic advantages of firms.

Work–life programs and performance in Australian organisations: The role of organisation size and industry type: Drawing on strategic human resource management theory, this manuscript proposes and tests a work–life program–performance relationship. It investigates the moderating effects of organisation size and industry type on the work–life programs–performance relationship. This manuscript used a time-lagged design and data from multiple sources to examine the link of work–life programs with firm performance in 117 organisations in Australia. The findings support the business case and emphasise the organisation and industry context to capitalise the benefits of work–life programs.

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN OF STUDIES AND LINKAGES AMONG THE STUDIES

1.4.1 Research design

This research comprises one systematic literature review and two empirical studies. After doing the comprehensive review on the relationship between work–life programs and organisational performance, this thesis conducted a cross-sectional survey on HR managers of Australian private and public for-profit organisations. In the second empirical phase, a time-lagged design was adopted, and further data was taken from corporate documents and databases

of the participated organisations. Figure 1.1 illustrates the summary of the design of all studies in this research.

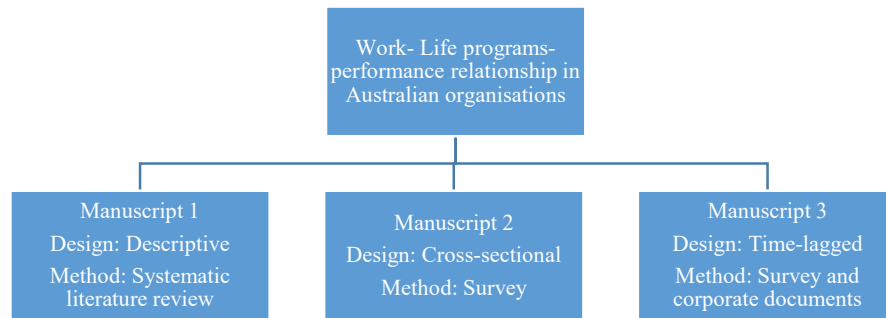


Figure 1.1: Research design

1.4.2 Linkages among the studies

The three manuscripts of this thesis are interlinked. The first manuscript, the systematic literature review of work–life programs and various organisational outcomes, is the foundation of the other two manuscripts. The possible research scopes and gaps were identified through the systematic literature review and addressed in detail in the second and third manuscripts sequentially. Figure 1.2 depicts the relationship and subsequent linkages among the studies.

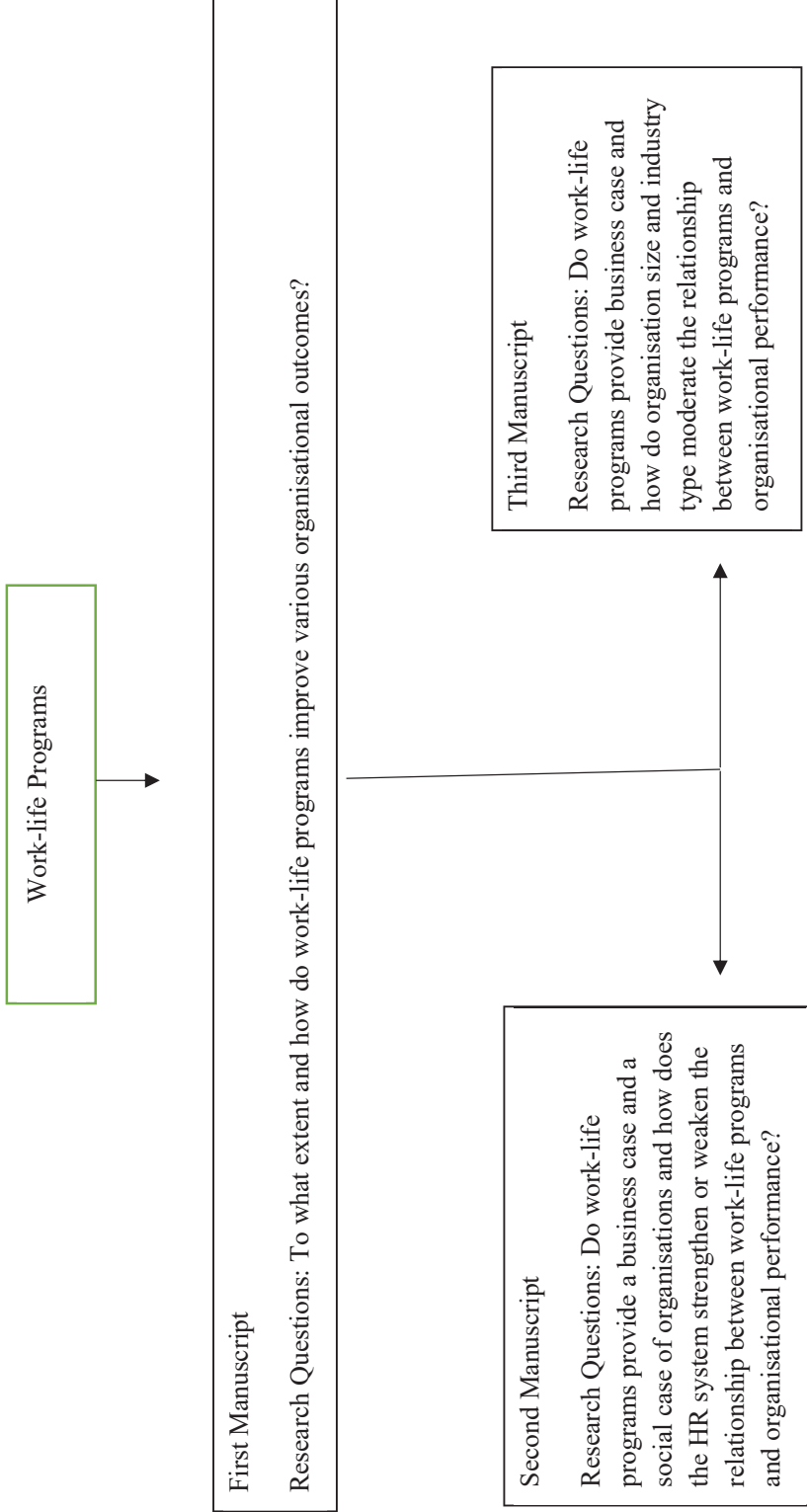


Figure: 1.2 Manuscripts and their linkages

1.5 THESIS OUTLINE

This thesis commences with a broad literature review of work–life programs that pinpoints the existing gaps in knowledge about contextual influences and impact dimensions of work–life programs (Chapter 2). Section 2.7 explains the theoretical standpoints adopted for this research and the relevance of context theories to work–life research.

Chapter 3 presents the methodology of this thesis. This chapter includes details of research design, participants, measures, and analytical framework aligning with the research questions. The submitted journal articles for publication are presented in Chapters 4-6, in the following order:

Chapter 4: Submitted manuscript (revised and resubmitted following review): *Work–life programs and organisational outcomes: A Systematic Literature Review*. Authors: Akter, Ali, & Chang; publication: *Community, Work & Family* journal.

Chapter 5: Accepted for publication (in press): *Work–life programs and outcomes in Australian organisations: The role of the human resource system*. Authors: Akter, Ali, & Chang; publication: *Personnel Review*.

Chapter 6: Accepted for publication: *Work–life programs and performance in Australian organisations: The role of organisation size and industry type*. Authors: Akter, Ali, & Chang; publication: *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*.

Each manuscript includes theoretical and practical contributions (Chapters 4-6). Further, Chapter 7 presents the key findings of this research and a summary of the combined contribution of this scholarly work. This chapter also presents the limitations of this research and concludes with a discussion of further research possibilities in the work–life field.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.0 INTRODUCTION

The following section begins with a discussion regarding the earlier literature covering work–life programs and organisational outcomes (section 2.1) and this will lead to background literature review at the organisational level in the work–life research (section 2.2). The relevant research scopes that derived from background literature review are also discussed (section 2.2) followed by the overview of human resource (HR) context and organisation and industry context on the relationship between WLPs and multiple organisational outcomes (sections 2.2.4 and 2.2.5). Section 2.3 includes the proposed theoretical framework that guides the research questions. Finally, the broader conceptual framework guiding this research is presented in section 2.4 and the research questions are presented in section 2.5.

2.1 WORK–LIFE PROGRAMS AND ORGANISATIONAL OUTCOMES

Several studies have investigated the effects of work–life programs on different organisational outcomes, that is, productivity level, financial performance, profit, shareholder return, risk level, and cost savings (Ali et al., 2014; Avgar et al., 2011; Blazovich et al., 2013; Bloom et al., 2011; Cegarra-Leiva, Sánchez-Vidal, & Gabriel Cegarra-Navarro, 2012; Clifton & Shepard, 2004; Konrad & Mangel, 2000; Kossek et al., 2011; Kossek et al., 2009; Osterman, 1995; Wood & de Menezes, 2010). At the organisational level, work–life programs literature can be described in two categories: work–life programs as bundles (programs were combined to create one bundle; e.g., Arthur & Cook, 2004) and work–life programs studied separately (each specific work–life program, such as teleworking, was examined separately in terms of its impact on organisational outcomes; e.g., Martínez- Sánchez et al., 2007). Some scholars investigated the impact of bundles of work–life programs on business outcomes, while others focused on a few specific programs (such as telecommuting, childcare services, and sick leave) to examine the effect on firm performance. The findings of the literature on work–life programs and organisational outcomes can be divided into four groups. The first group finds positive outcomes; the second group suggests negative outcomes; the third group reports non-significant findings and the fourth group refers to mixed findings.

2.1.1 Positive findings

It is evident that perceived firm-level performance such as organisational performance, market performance, and profit-sales growth are influenced by the existence of a bundle of work–life programs. Firms with a higher number of work–life programs represent better market performance and higher profit-sales growth (Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000). Previously, Edward et al. (1996) investigated the impact of flexible schedules on 36 Pharmaceuticals companies in the US and found that flexible hours policy at work boosts productivity. In addition, Avgar et al. (2011) and Clifton and Shepard (2004) found that greater availability of work–life programs increase both financial performance and quality of services of firms. On a similar note, Blazovich et al. (2013) used data from 271 firms and compared the dimensions of financial performance with control firms who do not offer work–life balance practices. It is found that financial performance is higher for firms who adopt work–life programs compared to control firms.

2.1.2 Negative findings

Research findings shows that few studies also reported negative impacts of work–life programs on financial performance and employee productivity. Meyer et al. (2001) conducted research on 100 US companies and found that teleworking is linked with financial performance. However, they also reported that job sharing and a compressed workweek is negatively related to the financial performance of organisations. Similarly, Lee and Kim (2010) investigated Korean workplace panel survey data and found that flexible work schedules decrease labour productivity and do not improve turnover rates of employees.

2.1.3 Non-significant findings

On the contrary, some studies reported non-significant outcome from work–life programs. For instance, Yamamoto and Matsuura (2014) investigated the impact of work–life programs on total factor productivity of Japanese firms and found no causal relationship between work–life balance practices and productivity. This finding is supported by a longitudinal research of Giardini and Kabst (2008) where they documented no significant financial performance for work–life programs in organisations. Bloom et al. (2011) also made an important contribution in this regard. They found that work–life programs neither improve firm performance directly or indirectly nor act as the value creating drivers. Wood and de Menezes (2010) also found no direct impact on organisational financial performance due to work–life programs.

2.1.4 Mixed findings

Most importantly, some studies reported mixed results. Sands and Harper (2007) reported the positive impact of telecommuting on firms' financial performance whereas the study of Lee and Kim (2010) contradict this finding as they found that telework is negatively related to firm performance. However, conducting a similar study, Bloom and Van Reenen (2006) did not find any direct relationship between work–life programs and higher productivity of firms. They documented positive correlations after controlling good management practices. Given these mixed findings, many organisations are in a dilemma to implement work–life programs as they remain under pressure to reach operational targets for their sustainability in competitive market (Todd & Binns, 2013). All these mixed findings give a significant ground for further research on work–life programs and their impact on organisational outcomes in organisations.

Adopting and implementing work–life programs for all employees is a matter of high cost for organisations (Pasamar & Valle Cabrera, 2013). It is highly important to assess whether the costs of these programs outweigh organisational benefits (Perrigino et al., 2018). Workforce demographics are considered another reason to dig deep into the effects of work–life programs. In addition, as we know that the millennials workforce generation expects more balanced work and family life they even prioritise work–life balance and supportive working environment over their career (Deloitte Millennial survey, 2018). This reflects that organisations need to cope up with the expectations of the workforces to gain sustainability. This warrants further research on the impact of work–life programs at the organisational level. In addition, Perrigino et al. (2018) cited some dark sides (negative attitude, negative behaviours and negative emotions) of work–life programs in their recent work. They named these dark-sides (e.g., negative career consequence and low commitment for requesting flexible work options) as 'work–family backlash'. They concluded the discussion regarding 'backlash' by emphasising strong business case of work–life programs which ensures a win-win phenomenon for both employers and employees. Future research on the work–life programs at the organisational level may justify the above circumstances.

2.2 BACKGROUND

To understand a comprehensive picture of prior research on work–life programs and their impact on multiple organisational outcomes, it is necessary to accumulate all organisation-level studies that have investigated work–life programs (bundles and separate programs). A

literature review has been conducted to investigate the research question: ‘What is the relationship between work–life programs and various organisational outcomes?’ Based on how researchers have operationalised work–life programs in their studies, the following two categories of studies have been presented separately for a logical comparison.

2.2.1 Bundle Studies: Direct association with organisational outcomes

The link with financial performance

Financial performance is the reflection of the competitive advantage of firms, and thus, it is noteworthy to investigate the impact of work–life programs on the financial performance of an organisation. The financial performance of firms generally depends on revenue enhancement and cost reduction. Research shows that investments into HRM practices are positively associated with the financial outcome of firms (Cascio, 1991). Financial measures were based on return on assets (ROA), return on equity (ROE), and return on capital employed (ROCE).

There are three studies that documented financial performance of firms. Among them, Arthur and Cook (2004) examined the share price reactions of 500 large organisations in the US between 1971 and 1996 for announcements of family-friendly initiatives and found that shareholder return tended to increase by about \$60 million for each firm and each initiative. Similarly, in a study of 173 hospitals in the UK, Avgar et al. (2011) found that higher usage of work–life programs led to better financial performance of firms. They argued that bundles of work–life practices enable employees to work flexibly, that stimulates greater effort, and hence, multiple stakeholders get a benefit from WLB practices.

However, inconclusive outcomes have been reported from Bloom et al.’s (2011) study. Bloom et al. (2011) investigated the effects of work–life programs on ROCE in 450 medium-size manufacturing organisations in the US, UK, France and Germany and documented a non-significant result. However, the result of the Bloom et al. (2011) study shows a significant positive outcome if better management practices are excluded from analysis. They argued that firms with good management practices implement more family-friendly workplace practices (FFWP) to reverberate with the corporate social responsibility and environmental sustainability, rather than focusing on financial performance (Brammer & Millington, 2008; Murillo- Luna et al., 2008). Collectively, the study of Bloom et al. (2011) concluded that FFWP do not create or add value to the existing resources.

The link with perceived firm performance

Perceived firm performance refers to the self-assessed performance measures reported by managers or HR directors of firms. This is one of the most widely used firm outcome measures by researchers (Delaney & Huselid, 1996; Jap, 2001; Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000; Smith & Barclay, 1997). Managers are asked to assess various dimensions of organisational and market performance compared to their rival firms (Singh, 2004). This measure has considerable attention in literature since it is argued that managers can quantify and predict the organisational and market performance better than others and the significance of work–life programs can be better demonstrated by this measure (Delaney & Huselid, 1996).

Studies that investigated the impact of work–life programs on perceived firm performance found mixed effects. Four studies found positive impact of work–life programs bundles on perceived firm performance (Ngo et al., 2009; Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000) whereas two studies found non-significant effects of work–life programs bundles on perceived firm performance (Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012; Giardini & Kabst, 2008). Perry-Smith and Blum (2000) conducted a cross-sectional study on 527 various size firms across industries to investigate the impact of eight work–life policies on perceived market performance, organisational performance, and profit-sales growth. Importantly, they found that firms experienced greater levels of performance for a higher range of work–family policies. They further argued that bundles or a greater range of policies act as a source of strategic advantage in a competitive business environment for firms, compared to those who execute fewer work–family policies. These essentially suggest that bundles of work–family practices are complementary and interconnected, which signals to employees that their contributions are valued in firms. A similar result has also been suggested in Asia. For instance, Ngo et al. (2009) investigated the impact of a bundle of seven family-friendly work practices (FFWP) on perceived market related and HR related firm performances through a cross-sectional study on 182 large multinational firms in Hong Kong. The result was significant positive by the mediation of organisational climate between FFWP and firm performance. It is notable that FFWP represents workplaces as supportive and caring for employees, and that a positive organisational climate essentially facilitates firms to adopt and implement FFWP (Grover & Crooker, 1995).

However, there were two studies conducted in Germany and Spain reporting non-significant results. For example, Giardini and Kabst (2008) conducted a five year time lag study in Germany on 118 and 179 large organisations to comprehend the impact of 11 work–family practices on firm performance and found inconclusive results. They argued that the outcome of work–family practices was short-lived, and thus, the positive impact was not documented in this study. Similarly, considering 229 small and medium enterprises, Cegarra-Leiva et al. (2012) examined the impact of 15 WLB practices as bundles on firm performance and found a non-significant result. They incorporated the WLB supportive culture as the mediator between WLB practices and firm performance and showed that firm performance was completely mediated by WLB supportive culture. In this regard, they pointed out that adopting WLB practices is expensive for small and medium firms compared to large organisations. However, small firms can get benefit only through the supportive culture of WLB in firms. This endorses Allen’s (2001) conclusions that supportive organisational culture is one of the determinants of the proper functioning of WLB practices in firms. Supportive culture also facilitates an employee’s positive attitudes and commitments towards firms, which stimulates firm performance. Hence, a supportive WLB or organisational culture is one of the important mediation factors for using work–life programs in organisations. It is clear from the above discussion that bundles of work–family practices in the US and Asia have reported significant positive results, whereas non-significant results have been reported in the EU countries. The possible explanations may be the contextual environment of the study, supportive culture of the organisation and industry taxonomy behind these inconsistent results.

The link with employee productivity

Employee productivity is one of the most-used outcome variables in past HRM studies and an objective measure of firm performance (Datta et al., 2005; Huselid, 1995; Koch & McGrath, 1996; Konrad & Mangel, 2000). It has numerous implications for firm performance because employees are the source of distinctive competitive advantage, which is impossible for competitors to reproduce (Huselid, 1995). Employees are human capital (individual skills, abilities, and experiences) of firms, and thus, measuring employee productivity is a significant outcome for work–life programs.

Focusing on the impact of work–life programs on employee productivity, three studies found significant positive effects (Bae & Goodman, 2014; Clifton & Shepard, 2004; Konrad & Mangel, 2000) and a similar number of studies found non-significant effects (Bloom et al.,

2009; Liu & Wang, 2011; Yamamoto & Matsuura, 2014). Based on the sample of 188 large organisations across industries, Clifton and Shepard (2004) found that employee productivity was significantly positive for 28 work–family programs. Though Clifton and Shepard (2004) examined bundles of 28 work–family programs in their study, it was essentially ambiguous regarding the specific programs affecting productivity. Similarly, positive employee productivity was also documented by Konrad and Mangel (2000) in their cross-sectional study. The sample of this study was drawn from only large organisations across different industries. The result of this study implies that firms with more women and more professionals gain higher productivity. In addition, the greater representation of women in the workforce positively affects productivity, which is consistent with the empirical study of Ali et al. (2015). It is conceivable that women face more work–life conflicts and they consider work–life programs as the mechanisms to reduce conflicts. These programs facilitate the effort level of women. Similarly, professionals can get a greater level of autonomy through various work–life programs, and can enhance productivity by reducing work–life conflicts. However, this finding is applicable to a particular workforce composition which limits the generalisability to all workforces of all kinds of organisations.

Among three studies conducted in the Asia-Pacific region, Bae and Goodman (2014) examined 158 public organisations of various sizes using Korean workplace panel survey data from 2005 to 2009 and showed that family-friendly policies increased employee productivity in public organisations. They further argued that unionisation in public organisations had a positive effect on employee productivity. However, based on large and various sized organisations from the manufacturing, service industries and across all industries, Liu and Wang (2011) and Yamamoto and Matsuura (2014) conducted time lag and panel studies in Taiwan and Japan and concluded a non-significant outcome. In a similar way, Bloom et al. (2009) conducted a cross-sectional study on 732 medium-size manufacturing organisations and they drew the samples from US, UK, France and Germany and found that employee productivity was non-significant for work–life practices. It is worth mentioning that they found a positive result if the management practices were controlled.

The link with turnover and retention

Turnover refers to the number of employees leaving a firm each year (Lee & Hong, 2011). A higher turnover rate explicitly increases the cost of the firms and these firms can also face competitive disadvantage for losing unique talents (Kellough & Osuna, 1995). Therefore,

the turnover rate is an important outcome for work–life programs. The evidence of the impact of work–life programs on turnover and retention are more conclusive, with more than 80% of studies documenting that work–life programs are linked with lower levels turnover. Early work of Ngo et al. (2009) and Yanadori and Kato (2009) support the notion that work–life programs can negatively influence the turnover rates of employees in organisations. Similarly, Avgar et al. (2011) and Cegarra-Leiva et al. (2012) investigated 173 hospitals in the UK and 149 small and medium enterprises in Spain respectively and found that employees were reluctant to leave, as they had access to work–life programs. Work–life programs facilitated them to manage multiple roles in life, and thus, they were encouraged to serve the organisations for the long term. On the contrary, using a sample of 158 public organisations across industries in South Korea, Bae and Goodman (2014) demonstrated a non-significant relationship between turnover and work–life practices. They also showed that the turnover rate was positively associated with a greater proportion of female employees in organisations, which is supported by previous research (Keith & McWilliams, 1999; Sicherman, 1996). In particular, women in the workforce value work–life programs more than males. Hence, the contextual background of the study may contribute to this non-significant finding.

The link with recruitment

Recruitment of employees is one of the vital concerns for employers in the age of war for talent. Work–life programs can be an effective mechanism to attract and retain talent for firms, and thus, employers have focused on these programs for the last two decades in order to retain a high-quality workforce (Kossek & Lambert, 2004). It is evident that work–life program bundles are positively linked to an organisation’s capacity to recruit a high quality labour pool (Bond & Wise, 2003; Maxwell et al., 2007). For instance, Bond and Wise (2003) conducted four case studies on four large service organisations in the UK and found that the main driver behind implementing work–life policies was better recruitment in all four firms. Similarly, Maxwell et al. (2007) investigated 210 small and medium-size organisations to examine the impact of bundles of flexible working practices. They found that flexible working practices enhanced better recruitment in organisations.

Of the studies that documented significant positive results, Avgar et al. (2011) investigated the effects of work–life programs on the quality of patient care in hospitals and found that service errors decreased substantially which essentially increased the quality of care to the patients of hospitals. Another two studies investigated the impact of work–life program

bundles on employee relations, motivation, commitment and job satisfaction and found that the results were significantly positive in both studies (Avogar, et al., 2011; Cegarra-Leiva, Sánchez-Vidal, & Cegarra-Navarro, 2012; Maxwell et al., 2007). In terms of the study showing non-significant result, Wood and de Menezes (2010) investigated the impact of bundles of family-friendly practices on social legitimacy of firms. Since organisations generally respond to the pressures of stakeholders and environments and comply with the social norms, laws, and beliefs (DiMaggio & Powell, 2000), merely the effects of family-friendly practices do not make any difference.

In summary, bundles of work–life programs at the organisational level demonstrate a strong business case reflected in lower turnover rate and higher financial performance. Also, there is growing support for significant positive influence on recruiting better talent in organisations. The relationship with perceived firm performance and employee productivity is not clear, though some studies regarding separate work–life programs indicate a significant positive link.

2.2.2 Separate Programs: Direct association with organisational outcomes

A wide number of separate work–life programs have been used to investigate the impact on various organisational outcomes. As the studies focused on specific programs, we considered the most influential programs impacting firm performance rather than referring all the programs. These programs include teleworking, flexible timing, part-time childcare facilities and dependent care assistance.

Teleworking

Studies investigating the impact of separate work–life programs on financial performance found distinct outcomes. For instance, Sands and Harper (2007) investigated four family-friendly benefits in 13 large organisations and found that only telecommuting was positively associated with a firm’s financial performance, and the remaining programs such as job sharing, compressed work week, and flex-time were non-significant for the firm’s financial performance. Similarly, Meyer et al. (2001) demonstrated teleworking to be positively linked with financial performance. However, they also showed job sharing and compressed workweek to be negatively related with profit and other programs found to be non-significant. This suggests that allowing greater flexibility for employees to work from home facilitates personal and professional contentment. Telework offers a multidimensional contribution not only for

individual employees but also for organisations and greater society (Kurland & Bailey, 1999), since it creates opportunities for employees to work at anytime from anywhere in the world. In particular, in the US, employees prefer teleworking, and more than 60,000 public employees have chosen teleworking (Schmidt & Duenas, 2002). Workplace technology and easy access to personal computers have made teleworking popular with employees. It is important to note that the study of Meyer et al. (2001) and Sands and Harper (2007) were conducted in the US which essentially may not be generalisable to all other countries irrespective of developed and developing economies.

Focusing on teleworking, several studies showed a significant positive relationship with perceived firm performance. Only teleworking was examined through four separate studies in EU countries, with all of them documenting a significant positive outcome for firm performance. For instance, Martínez Sánchez et al. (2007) conducted a study in Spain to demonstrate the impact of teleworking on 479 small and medium-sized firms across industries and found a significant positive result. Similarly, the other three studies investigated the impact of teleworking in Spain and other EU countries on large and various size organisations on firm performance and found a significant positive outcome (Martinez-Sánchez et al., 2008; Martínez- Sánchez et al., 2007; Stavrou, 2005).

Furthermore, teleworking is found to reduce turnover rate of employees in organisations. For instance, Sands and Harper (2007) studied telecommuting across 13 large organisations in the US and found a significant negative relationship with turnover rates. Telecommuting is considered a support from organisations to employees that encourages them to stay with firms. This finding is also consistent with other previous studies (Dex et al., 2001; Kossek et al., 2006). Similarly, Stavrou and Kilaniotis (2010) conducted their study on 3,337 organisations of various sizes across Anglo and Nordic clusters and found that turnover decreased significantly in the Nordic societal cluster for telecommuting and working from home. However, in the Anglo cluster, turnover increased for unsocial hours and part-time arrangements. Here, business demands often push employees to work unsocial hours or part-time, causing employee dissatisfaction. However, in Nordic countries, organisations believe in a 'collaborative' future where they take decisions based on the mutual harmony of all stakeholder interests and they are more focused on internal flexibility rather than external (Brewster et al., 1997; Kalleberg, 2001).

Likewise, teleworking was found to be significantly negative to the absenteeism of employees in organisations (Stavrou, 2005). Employees can give their optimum effort and best hours to work, which meets the strategic objectives in return for the flexibility (Illegems & Verbeke, 2004). Knowledge-based organisations with sophisticated technology can use these flexible practices to reduce their cost as well as to improve their performance at optimal levels. Besides, telework is considered to be one of the technology based workplace innovations that allows better functioning for businesses and better time and spatial flexibility for employees (Illegems & Verbeke, 2003; Pérez et al., 2002). These opportunities enhance employee productivity (Collins, 2005; Watad & DiSanzo, 2000), boosts the organisational commitment of employees (Felstead et al., 2002), and reduces the infrastructural costs of organisations (Watad & DiSanzo, 2000).

Flexible work schedules

Fourteen separate work–life programs are studied to examine the impact on employee productivity. Among these programs, flexible work schedules and dependent care assistance are mostly significant for improving firm productivity. However, there is an exception in South Korea where it shows that flexible work schedules decrease productivity.

Considering flexible work schedules, Edward et al. (1996) investigated the impact of flexible work schedules, particularly in large manufacturing (only pharmaceuticals) organisations in the US and showed that the productivity of employees was improved. They confirmed the positive productivity impact after considering 11 years of panel data. In many cases, employees can manage time more efficiently if they have the option of flexible schedules, and thus, they become more productive (Wood, 1999). Similar findings are also reported by Dex et al. (2001). However, after investigating 1,903 organisations of various sizes, both in the private and public sector in South Korea, Lee and Kim (2010) concluded that flextime was an ineffective method to improve employee productivity. The possible explanation is that employers in Korea mostly run flexible work schedules according to their business needs rather than considering employee preferences (Lee & Kim, 2010). Moreover, in Korean firms, the social normative pressure is not very strong and organisations consider family-friendly programs to be added costs. They argued that in South Korea, most employers adopt commitment-enhancing HRM practices and they use flexible schedules to meet business fluctuations rather than thinking of employee preferences. This employer-oriented flextime makes employees stressed and dissatisfied, and it consequently reflects positively on the

turnover rates of employees in organisations. Consequently, employers are discouraged from enhancing human capital and investing in flexible schedules (Kim, 2008).

Nevertheless, flextime can significantly improve employee relations in organisations (Lee & Kim, 2010). The plausible clarification may be that the work schedule chosen by employees is favourable for their productivity. This builds good employer–employee relations in organisations. In many cases, organisations meet their business demands through their preferred working time and in the long-run, this deteriorates the management–employee relations.

Dependent care assistance

There also have been efforts to draw the evidences on dependent care assistance and various organisational outcomes. For example, dependent care assistance was found to be significantly positive on employee productivity both in the private and public sector in South Korea (Lee & Kim, 2010). Employees felt more obligated to their work for dependent care assistance and in turn, they were more attached to the firms with higher commitment. Essentially, work efforts of employees are boosted and this is reflected in their higher productivity level. Moreover, dependent care assistance is found to be significant in reducing the turnover rate of employees in South Korea (Lee & Kim, 2010). A possible explanation is that dependent care assistance helps employees to adjust time and cost commitments, which makes them more devoted to the organisations. This also induces a positive attitude in employees, and thus, employees tend to stay with the firm for the long-term (Lee & Kim, 2009). Further support found from the study of Lee and Kim (2010) also demonstrated that dependent care assistance in organisations facilitates cooperative employee management relations. This implies that when employee’s work–family conflict is reduced by employer initiatives, it promotes a better relationship between employees and management.

Child care facilities

Evidence regarding the effect of child care policies on turnover rates of employees is also significantly negative. Research from Baughman et al. (2003) found that child care referral was negatively associated with turnover. In similar circumstances, Lee and Hong (2011) conducted a study on 105 large American public sector organisations and found that a child care subsidy policy reduced the turnover rates of all of these organisations. In particular, large organisations who had executed formal HR practices were more likely to provide childcare

facilities to employees (Wood et al., 2003). In addition, Selden and Moynihan (2000) found a decreased turnover rate in the public sector in the US due to on-site childcare provided to employees. It seems that child care centres or subsidies policy can act as a source of competitive advantage in the public sector, as it ensures employees have a higher attendance and involvement in jobs (Kossek & Nichol, 1992).

Part-time work

Dex et al. (2001) examined several work–life programs and their impact on ROCE of firms in the UK context and found that part-time work positively contributes to firm performance. Part-time work is a distinctive work arrangement that meets the ever-changing needs of markets and employees. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2014), approximately 19% of the workforce is employed in part-time work in the US, and 20% are employed in the EU region. The significant positive outcome of part-time employment is consistent with the studies of Higgins et al. (2000), Künn-Nelen et al. (2013), and Konrad and Mangel (2000). A possible explanation may be the economic and normative rationality and more women in the workforce. Women perform the motherhood, childbearing, and household responsibilities, and these compel them to work part-time. In particular, part-time programs have increased female employment in the labour market (Higgins et al., 2000).

2.2.3 Summary: is there any business case of work–life programs?

At first glance, there seems to have supporting evidence for work–life programs in improving organisational performance. Here, some studies found a positive relationship, especially attributed to either specific bundle of work–life programs or separate programs, whereas many studies showed either non-significant or a negative relationship. Hence, the cumulative evidence for work–life programs is not conclusive. In terms of bundles of work–life programs, some studies investigated multiple organisational outcomes and thus the conclusions potentially vary across multiple outcomes. Essentially, not all the bundles of work–life programs are beneficial for firm performance. Some work–life scholars argued that bundles of programs can address the needs of all employees (Batt & Valcour, 2003; Dex & Scheibl, 2001) whereas specific work–life program may limit the scope to certain groups of employees (e.g., childcare for working parents). Figure 2.1 depicts the following to give a better understanding:

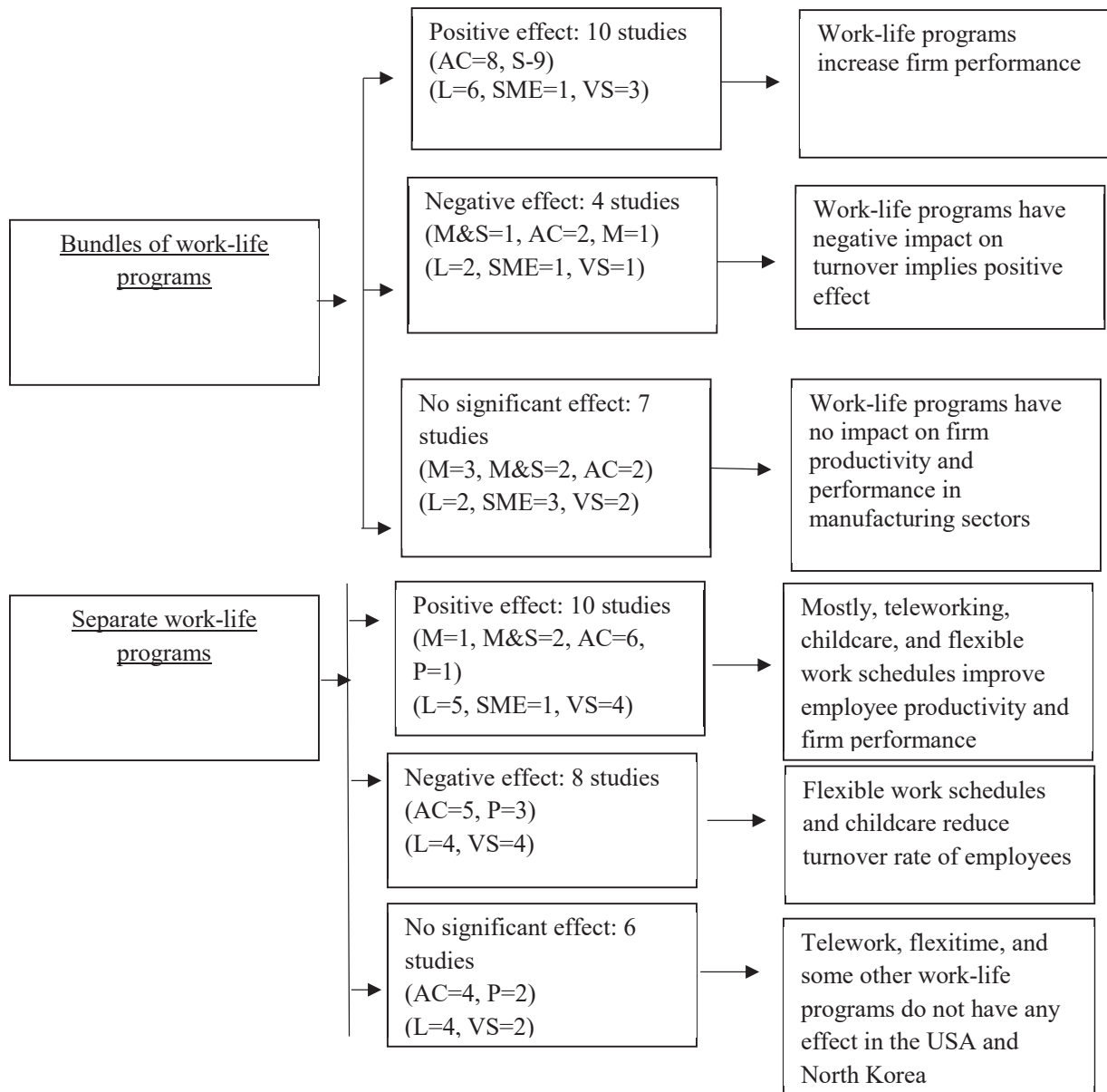


Figure 2.1: Framework capturing the impact of work-life programs on firm performance

Notes: M=Manufacturing, M&S=Manufacturing and service, S=Service, AC=Across industries, P=Public, L=Large, SME=Small and medium enterprise, VS=various size

* Total exceeds 19 bundle studies because multiple outcome measures were examined in several studies

Total exceeds 11 separate programs studies because multiple outcome measures were examined in several studies

Since this thesis considered several organisational outcomes of work–life programs, it represents diverse results with respect to each outcome. For instance, the financial performance of firms is positively influenced by bundles of work–life programs in some of the studies and mixed findings are found in other studies. In fact, there is a great deal of variation in organisational outcomes for bundles of work–life programs. Plausible patterns of inconsistent findings are presented which indicate that the size of firms and industry may posit significant contribution in shaping this outcome. Financial performance is found to be non-significant only in the manufacturing industry. Similarly, the outcome is non-significant in small and medium enterprises. In terms of perceived firm performance, the inconsistencies in the results may be due to different country contexts, industry, and cultural backgrounds.

In terms of employee productivity, findings of this review suggest that improved productivity is mostly observed in all large firms in the US and the public sector in South Korea, especially for bundles of work–life programs. Thus, a significant positive outcome is merely generalisable to all firms in an economy ranging from small and medium-sized to private sector firms. In addition, bundles of work–life programs contribute significantly to reduce the turnover rate of employees. However, in some cases, national and cultural contexts inhibit employers from providing the benefits of work–life programs. For instance, in South Korea, the turnover rate is high (Bae & Goodman, 2014; Lee & Kim, 2010) and the plausible explanation is potentially regional. Hence, considering all organisational outcomes and irrespective of size and industry, it is merely generalisable to all national contexts around the world. On a similar note, Beauregard and Henry (2009) conducted a literature review focusing on work–life balance practices and various organisational outcomes. They concluded that to some extent, there is a positive relationship between work–life programs and outcomes. But this relationship is moderated by organisational culture, employee characteristics, and contextual environment.

Many studies examined the impact of several specific work–life programs on various organisational outcomes and conclusions fluctuate across different programs and outcomes. Among the individual programs studied in the literature, very few programs, such as telecommuting and part-time work, increase return on assets (ROA), return on equity (ROE), return on capital employed (ROCE) and other financial performance measures of firms, whereas the remaining programs are shown to be non-significant. Specifically, teleworking affects perceived firm performance more positively. Nevertheless, it is important to note that teleworking has been studied only in the EU countries and flexible work schedules have been

found to enhance employee productivity in the US and the UK. However, this result is not evident in South Korea. This could be explained by the fact that there is a lack of work–life culture or supervisors’ support in Korean firms. These findings bring about understanding of the contextual differences of work–life programs and their impact on organisational performance. Therefore, it can be inferred that national context and institutional environment can predict the effectiveness of individual work–life programs. Additionally, similar types of inconclusive findings are documented for other separate work–life programs, namely flextime, flexible sick leave, paid leave, unpaid leave, and child care (Baughman et al., 2003; Sands & Harper, 2007). Collectively, the general notion is that there is no supporting evidence for the business case of work–life programs either in the form of bundles or specific programs. However, since organisations exist in a society where it is very important to be responsible to all stakeholders, including internal and external parties, measuring non-financial outcome is one of the significant parameters for impact assessment.

2.2.4 Corporate Social Responsibility

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is defined as “the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well of the local community and society at large” (Lindgreen et al., 2009). Moreover, it also can be defined as the management philosophy and corporate behaviour of organisations which is committed to improve economic prosperity, legal obligations, community’s well-being, and the environmental conditions (Carroll, 2016). Therefore, CSR impacts people, society, and environment through accountability and transparency. The fundamental principle here includes good governance, compliance with the law and ethics, mitigating business risk, enhancing reputation, and taking opportunities for new businesses (Cohen, 2017).

CSR is important for many reasons. Among them, it encourages employee engagement to work since employees enjoy working for a company that has a good public reputation (Cohen, 2017). Organisations can recruit and retain talents through their CSR enabled reputation. CSR also promotes positive working environment that enhances productivity of employees. Earlier research in this area was focused on the ethical perspectives of CSR and over time, CSR has become one of the strategic initiatives to increase firms’ competitive advantage and reputation (Hill et al., 2007). Here, CSR drives to attain planet sustainability as well as business sustainability through active stakeholder engagement (Cohen, 2017).

Importantly, CSR exists in an interconnectedness system of organisations (i.e., organisations culture, values, communications, capabilities, accountability, and responsibility) and its effectiveness depends on how the entire workforce perceive the importance of it. Presumably, HR practices and functions are considered partners and facilitators to ensure CSR enabled organisations (Voegtlin & Greenwood, 2016; Wilcox, 2006). However, very few empirical studies investigated the relationship between HR practices (i.e., recruitment and selection, appraisal and motivation, and compensation and reward) and CSR (Cooke & He, 2010; Gond et al., 2011; Gully et al., 2013; Juan & Zhang, 2017). In this regard, no prior studies are found to examine the relationship between work–life programs and CSR. But since, HR practices have transformed from an inside/outside approach to an outside/inside approach, work–life programs can add value if firms focus on business context and external stakeholders (Ulrich & Dulebohn, 2015). Thus, work–life programs are required to fit with both an internal and external context. Here, maximum benefits can be achieved from work–life programs if these programs are bundled with other HR systems and reinforce one another in an organisation (MacDuffie, 1995). The following section discusses the internal fit of work–life programs with the HR system of organisations.

2.2.5 HR systems

HR system is known as the strategic invisible asset of an organisation (Itami & Roehl, 1991). This is essentially the workforce management strategies that influence policies of managing people in organisations (Walton, 1985). It is represented to employees as the psychological aspects of work climate and a workplace's overall internal situation (Rousseau, 1995). Arthur (1992) disentangles the concept of HR systems into commitment and control-enhancing HR practices. The commitment HR system is also known by various concepts, such as high-commitment work system (Kim & Wright, 2011), high-involvement system (Batt, 2002), and high-performance work system (Huselid, 1995; Pfeffer, 1998). Besides, some researchers identified commitment-enhancing HR system as a differentiation business strategy (Schuler, 1987; Schuler & Jackson, 1987). In this regard, Arthur (1992) empirically justified that firms focusing on a differentiation business strategy generally adopt the commitment HR system.

Moreover, Mesch et al. (1995) identified two other types of HR system namely, beaurocratic and SHRM systems. Beaurocratic system is similar to control HR system and SHRM system is more like a commitment HR system. Importantly, HR systems can also be

seen as a continuum ranging from the low-commitment system (control HR system) to the high-commitment system (commitment HR system). Here, HR system is contingent on both internal and external conditions. Commitment oriented HR system in this regard points out that organisations have trust in their employees. In turn, employees feel empowered and become enthusiastic to put in their best efforts (Arthur, 1994).

On the other hand, the control HR system considers employees as commodities who are replaceable (Guthrie, 2001). This approach focuses on the centralised decision making process, narrowly defined jobs, less training, and less interdependence (Arthur, 1994). This type of HR system improves employee productivity through formal rules and regulations while reducing costs. Here, the main focus is on employees' quantifiable output. Thus, it has some parameters to quantify employees' productivity and output which essentially put caps on their efforts limited up to that parameter and they are discouraged to put their discretionary efforts to the job. However, if the HR system of an organisation is properly embedded in the operational system, it adds value in various ways while boosting the firm's capabilities (Itami & Roehl, 1991). A growing body of empirical research documented significant relationships between various types of HR systems and organisational performance. Among them, for instance, Arthur (1994) conducted a study on the US steel mini-mills, MacDuffie (1995) studied the automobile industry, Huselid (1995) conducted research on a national sample of US companies, Delery and Doty (1996) studied the US banking industry, Ichniowski and Shaw (1999) conducted research on US and Japanese steel production units, and Guthrie (2001) investigated New Zealand companies. They all found that the commitment HR system improves firm performance.

In terms of SHRM, researchers argue that synergies potentially occur among HR practices. For instance, if a certain HR system is put together with work-life programs, this might positively affect organisational performance (Huselid, 1995; MacDuffie, 1995). This embedded HR system is one of the contextual phenomena of firms that could strengthen or weaken the work-life programs-performance relationship. Importantly, no past studies examined the role of the HR system on the relationship between work-life programs and organisational performance. Investigating firms' HR system as a moderator might facilitate a deeper insight into why and how firms are widely varied in reaping the benefits of work-life programs.

2.2.6 Organisation size

Contextual phenomena in the external environment are important aspects for the effectiveness of work–life programs. Recent work of Perrigino et al. (2018) also emphasised contextual aspects to translate the benefits of work–life programs into the local context. Organisation size is one of the important characteristics in this regard to adopt and use work–life programs in the strategic human resource field. Existing literature suggest that adoption and effective use of work–life programs may vary depending on the size of the firms. Organisation size is a significant factor to respond to the institutional pressures. For instance, large organisations have bigger external scrutiny and thus, they experience more coercive pressure (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). In addition, large organisations are bounded by legitimacy issues and more often subjected to various rules and regulations (Glass & Fujimoto, 1995). Here, the execution of family-friendly initiatives is a matter of economies of scale for large organisations while complying with social norms and values (Goodstein, 1994; Ingram & Simons, 1995; Osterman, 1995). This suggests that large organisations have essentially enough resources to implement work–life programs (Gray & Mabey, 2005; Maxwell & McDougall, 2004).

Moreover, larger organisations are more accountable to various stakeholders and visible to the public which motivates them to adopt various HR practices such as work–life programs. Here, large organisations have various inter-organisational relationships for their different programs, policies, and practices (Glass & Estes, 1997). In addition, they have greater market share, can access cheap capital, can create brand easily, can spend on more research and development, and can reach a global market, (Lawler III, 1997). The most important advantage, large organisation uptakes, is economies of scale and it is convenient for them to adopt innovative HR practices.

On the other hand, small organisations manage most of their operations internally. Small firms have a lack of resources (e.g., financial, human), lack of scope of functional operation in the labour market and lack of strategic focus (Glass & Estes, 1997; Glass & Fujimoto, 1995; Konrad & Mangel, 2000; Osterman, 1995). Two empirical studies shed light on organisation size and work–life programs. Here, the impact of work–life programs is non-significant for small and medium organisations (Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012), whereas they are significantly positive for large organisations (Clifton & Shepard, 2004). This is because small and medium organisations have resource constraints and cost considerations for not implementing a wide range of work–life programs. Managerial discretion is also another issue

to determine access to work–life programs. These firms potentially have lack of managerial expertise which might discourage effective utilisation of work–life programs (Lingard et al., 2015). Moreover, small firms merely have a formal human resource management system while large firms have this in place to govern the facilities of employees. Thus, more attention is needed on the small and medium enterprises which indicate new insights and challenges in work–life research.

2.2.7 Industry

Industry wise contextual differences is also another important dimension to capitalise the benefits of work–life programs. Generally, workforce composition, strategic policies, use of technology, and adoption of any HR practices differ from manufacturing industry to service industry (Datta et al., 2005). Subsequently, the impact of work–life programs must differ from this context. Hence, it is one of the interesting research agendas to investigate industry context in the recent work–life literature.

A firm’s external environment is very important in terms of how firms interplay between resources and get the relative benefit from these resources (Burns & Stalker, 1961). Among all the external factors, industry type is very important for firms to be aligned with the internal policies. There are two broad industry types, namely, manufacturing and services. This industry context and comparative analysis is very common in different areas of research including management and human resource management (HRM) (Datta et al., 2005), gender diversity (Ali et al., 2011), innovation (Castellacci, 2008; Miles, 2007; Prajogo, 2006), and organisational performance (Sengupta et al., 2006). But in this context very little is known in work–life research. Contextual phenomena, especially industry context, is highly emphasised in the HRM research as HR practices (i.e., work–life programs) are the most localised management practices and these practices interact with various situational factors (i.e., workforce composition, HR systems, business strategy, industry type, technology, societal values, and labour market and union) (Rosenzweig & Nohria, 1994).

It is broadly acknowledged that contextual environment causes different outcomes of HR practices in manufacturing and service industries. Through the expansion of research in the field of SHRM, researchers started focusing on contextual embeddedness in various settings. For instances, Batt (2000) investigated the contextual phenomena in manufacturing and service organisations and found that HR practices and their implementations vary according to the needs of various industries. In this regard, Skaggs and Youndt (2004) investigated 234 service

organisations and found strong empirical evidence of organisational performance. They found that human capital is the key in the service sector and hence, HR practices need to be strategically linked with employees. Empirical findings on such a link are more consistent with service firms rather than manufacturing firms (Ali et al., 2011).

Primarily, service industry firms are distinct from manufacturing firms in three ways (Javalgi & Martin, 2007). First, services themselves are intangibles and the way services are given. Second, services are personalised based on customers' needs and demands. Third, services are perishable as they require human knowledge, skills, and attitudes. These services cannot be stored physically for the future. Thus, service firms focus highly on employee–customer interaction aspects. As a whole, these features of service industry require a satisfied pool of employees who can ensure better quality services for stable growth. Therefore, work–life programs can be one of the mechanisms to make a satisfied workforce who can achieve competitive advantage in the service-dominant sector (Lusch et al., 2008).

Systematic review of this thesis reports that significant positive outcomes of work–life programs are evident in service industries, whereas the outcomes are non-significant only in manufacturing (metal) industry. For instance, Bloom et al. (2011) investigated financial performance of manufacturing companies with multi-country samples and found non-significant impact for work–life programs. In this regard, Avgar et al. (2011) examined financial performance in the UK service sector and documented significant positive outcome. Therefore, industry type (manufacturing versus service) can strengthen or weaken the effects on firm performance and empirical findings on such links are more consistent with service firms than manufacturing firms (Ali et al., 2015). No prior studies in this regard are tested in terms of how industry type moderates the relationship between work–life programs and organisational performance. Hence, it is very important to investigate in a single country context whether work–life programs affect organisational performance of manufacturing or service organisations.

2.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.3.1 Stakeholder Theory

Stakeholder theory was developed by Freeman in 1983. Freeman defined stakeholders as “those groups without whose support the organisation would cease to exist’ and stakeholders include customers, employees, lenders, environment, shareowners, and environment”. There

are two principles of stakeholder theory: corporate effects and corporate rights. Corporate effects implies that organisations are responsible for their actions in all areas and all aspects whereas corporate rights implies that organisations should allow their stakeholders to pursue their personal or social interests. Here, the main point is that HR practices need to address how organisations are supporting other stakeholders than owners and shareholders. There are various groups which are interconnected and play an important role in business. Freeman (1983) in this regard argues that managers should articulate what values they are generating from various stakeholders and what values they should provide to their stakeholders. This implies that a business runs within a society and it affects multifaceted parties in a multi-dimensional way, either directly or indirectly (Costa & Menichini, 2013). Business-stakeholder relationship and its interaction create a long-term symbiotic relationship between business practices and society (Ackerman 1975). HR practices can contribute positively to this symbiotic relationship and subsequently, generates a long-term impact on the society.

Stakeholder theory is one of the mechanisms to explain the relationship between work–life programs and various organisational outcomes (Freeman, 1983). Work–life programs are essentially a system consisting of various employee-friendly HR practices which provide benefits to employees, employers, and society both directly and indirectly. Since these programs interact among multiple stakeholders of organisations, it is undoubtedly important to assess the impact of these programs on both business and social performance.

The literature review of this thesis documents mixed evidence on the work–life programs–organisational performance relationship (Bloom et al., 2011; Yamamoto & Matsuura, 2014). Most of the work–life empirical studies investigated only bottom-line indicators of organisational performance (Arthur & Cook, 2004). But both financial and non-financial outcomes are important to examine the impact of WLPs (Beer et al., 2015). Here, the impact is mostly observed from the shareholder perspective. The impact from various stakeholders’ perspectives are neglected in the broader HR and organisational performance literature. The broader HR literature suggests that work–life programs are the employer-sponsored HR practices which increase efficiency of human resources and lead to differential revenue progression (Becker & Gerhart, 1996). Presumably, human resources is a valuable source for sustainable competitive benefits (Huselid 1995) and work–life programs are the strategic initiatives for the firms’ human capital. Thus, stakeholder theory is one of the effective mechanisms to explain the impact of these programs. In this regard, Ulrich and Dulebohn (2015) noted that HR practices have shifted to an outside/inside approach from an

inside/outside approach, which implies that work–life programs can add value to the bottom line of business through multiple stakeholders (i.e., customers, investors, and community).

Moreover, work–life programs are among the most important HR practices that are likely to enhance firms' economic performance (for example, perceived firm performance, net profit margin, and turnover) and social and environmental performance (Jabbour & Santos, 2008). Most importantly, though previous studies shed light largely on organisational performance, at present research is required to understand how work–life programs are adding value not only to the firm's financial outcome but also to the multiple stakeholders and greater society (Beer et al., 2015).

2.3.2 SHRM Theory

Devanna et al. (1981) first coined strategic human resource management theory (SHRM). SHRM is completely integrated with the strategic planning of organisations. SHRM theory posits two viewpoints: vertical and horizontal. Vertically, it refers to HR practices of organisations which relate to broader strategic policies of organisation. Horizontally, it refers to the internal cohesion among various HR practices. During the period 1980-1990, SHRM theory was focused on conceptual and theoretical phenomena. Later, empirical research was conducted based on SHRM theory. In the period 2000-2005, SHRM field advanced in various ways such as HR practices-performance relationship, person-environment fit, social capital, and HR systems (Lengnick-Hall et al., 2009).

Considering SHRM theory as an underpinning framework, this thesis emphasises that work–life programs contribute to the financial aspects of organisations. In general, SHRM theory proposes that human resource practices and their impacts depend on what knowledge and skills, abilities and competencies (KSAs) employees have and what employees feel (motivation, commitment, and engagement) (Wright, 2008). The basic premise of this theory is that work–life programs increase employees' motivation, commitment or engagement (MCE) which directly or indirectly influence job performance of employees and performance of organisations (Wright, 2008). For instance, positive feelings about work–life programs result in highly motivated task behaviour of employees, whereas negative feelings might affect job performance negatively. Therefore, by influencing how human resources properly use their knowledge, skills, competencies, relationships, and abilities, work–life programs are more likely to contribute to the strategic value of organisations.

Implementing work–life programs is a strategic initiative in organisations to foster high levels of discretionary efforts of employees which translate into higher productivity and performance. This strategic capability of work–life programs link employees’ efforts, engagement, and dedication to the organisational outcomes through their outstanding work performance (Becker & Huselid, 2006). Thus, SHRM theory has been widely used in predicting the effectiveness of work–life programs on organisational performance (Bloom et al., 2011; Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000; Sands & Harper, 2007). For instance, Sands and Harper (2007) investigated four family-friendly benefits in 13 large organisations and found that telecommuting was positively associated with a firm’s financial performance. In another study, Bloom et al. (2011) investigated the effects of work–life programs on ROCE in 450 medium-size manufacturing organisations in the US, UK, France, and Germany and documented a non-significant result. However, the result of Bloom et al.’s (2011) study showed a significant positive outcome if better management practices were excluded from analysis.

All these research used SHRM as a framework to predict the relationship between work–life programs and financial performance of organisations (Devanna et al., 1981; Huselid, 1995; Wright & McMahan, 1992). Researchers in the HR field used SHRM theory to demonstrate human resources–environment fit and performance of organisations (Collins & Clark, 2003; King & Zeithaml, 2001). Thus, the proposition of SHRM theory implies that there should be an ideal fit between work–life programs and organisation’s overall business vision and contextual environment. Here, top management potentially can consider strategic imperative of work–life programs to achieve sustainable competitive advantages (Armstrong, 2005; Cascio, 2005; Lawler, 2005).

Furthermore, the moderating effect of organisation size can also be explained through the lens of SHRM theory. Organisation size is one of the determinants to use strategic proficiencies of firms. Large organisations have financial and structural capabilities to capitalise benefits of work–life programs compared to small and medium organisations. In many cases, small and medium organisations have lack of long-term strategic focus and thus they cannot integrate work–life practices in their mainstream system. They also lack a formal HR department and written guidelines to govern their workforce. So, it is difficult for small firms to have internal integration among all the HR practices to gain strategic advantage. Therefore, SHRM theory offers a comprehensive understanding to perceive the influence of organisational context and the aggregate benefits of work–life programs for organisational outcomes.

2.3.3 Contingency Theory

Contingency theory was developed to challenge the universal management philosophy of 'one size fit all' approach and address internal and external environmental conditions pertaining to organisational performance. Contingency theory proposes that there should be an appropriate fit between the existing HR practices and organisational goals and strategies. (Lengnick-Hall & Lengnick-Hall, 1988). Scholars explain the notion of fit in two ways: external and internal. External fit refers to the alignment between HR practices and overall business strategy, whereas internal fit indicates alignment among various HR practices in organisations (Baird & Meshoulam, 1988). Here, organisational effectiveness depends on how efficiently HR practices fit with internal as well as external factors.

From the lens of contingency theory, this thesis has investigated the moderating effect of HR systems on the work–life programs–performance relationship (Donaldson, 2001). The significance of work–life programs is contingent on the HR system of organisations. Contingency theory posits that work–life programs should be parallel with the HR system of organisations (Wang & Verma, 2012). HR system (commitment versus control) develops in an organisation over time and is embedded within the organisational culture (Becker & Gerhart, 1996). The embedded HR system reflects the contextual phenomena of firms that might enhance or create a barrier for the useful execution of work–life programs. As an HR system considers contextual phenomenon of business and stakeholders, it can be an important factor for linking work–life programs with organisational outcomes. In particular, HR system significantly affects a firm's entire value chain and, thus, various types of HR systems have different impacts on the effective utilisation of work–life programs and their subsequent organisational outcomes (Barney & Wright, 1998; Wright et al., 1994).

The extent of effective utilisation is conditioned on the internal fit between the existing HR system and work–life programs. Here, synergistic advantage may arise due to internal cohesion among various HR practices. For instance, if commitment-oriented HR system is put together with work–life programs, this might positively contribute to the organisational performance (Huselid, 1995; MacDuffie, 1995).

Contingency theory also shed light on understanding the effect of industry type on the relationship between work–life programs and financial performances of organisations. Industry context determines which HR practices are most relevant to which sector or industry. This implies that HR practices depend on the industry norms including business values, strategies,

and models (Tayeb, 1987). This conditioned process can be explained by contingency theory. Mainly, the broad industry is classified into two sectors: manufacturing and service. Here, there should be an internal alignment among workforce composition, business models, and adopted HR practices of both sectors. Collectively, work–life programs are perceived in various ways in both of the sectors depending on their multiple internal and external conditions. Contingence theory in this regard provides a robust understanding of the industry influence, which strengthen or weaken the impact of work–life programs.

2.3.4 Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory is one of the most prominent theoretical frameworks to comprehend workplace behaviour. This theory was well-developed long ago where social behaviour was considered as exchange (Homans, 1958). Further, Homans advanced his argument in 1961 in his '*Social behavior: Its Elementary forms*' book. On a similar note, Thibaut (2017) also contributed through their conceptual framework of social exchange. In this regard, Peter Blau amplified the social exchange process through his book *Exchange and Power* (1964). Blau (1964) defined social exchange as transactions or exchange between two groups that are mutually rewarding and contingent. According to social exchange theory, interactions occur among the parties which are interdependent as well as contingent among the individuals of the exchange process. The interdependent interactions might lead to quality interpersonal relationships (Emerson, 1976).

Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) demonstrated three components of social exchange theory: rules of exchange, resources exchanged, and social exchange relationships. This thesis uses social exchange theory as a framework to predict the relationship between work–life programs and perceived organisational performance (Blau, 1964). Researchers in the HR field introduce social exchange theory to demonstrate motivational logic behind employee behaviour and their positive attitudes (Blau, 1964; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Settoon et al., 1996; Wayne et al., 1997). Social exchange theory suggests that reciprocity occurs when employees receive some benefits from organisations and in return they make dedicated efforts at work (Lambert, 2000). This is also the reflection of social exchange relationship between parties. The establishment of high-quality exchange relationships creates an obligation for employees to reciprocate in positive and beneficial ways (Settoon et al., 1996). In fact, these exchanges drive both employers and employees to achieve organisational goals and be consistent with firm's values (Bagger & Li, 2014).

In line with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), work–life programs can be considered as important support for employees to be more dedicated and responsible to their job efforts. Specifically, work–life programs help employees to balance multiple role domains and subsequently, this is reflected in their job satisfaction and higher organisational performance.

Thus, social exchange theory has been widely adopted in predicting the effectiveness of work–life programs on organisational performance (Cegarra-Leiva, et al., 2012; Lee & Hong, 2011; Ngo et al., 2009). For instance, Perry-Smith and Blum (2000) conducted a cross-sectional study of 527 various-sized firms to investigate the impact of eight work–life programs on perceived market performance, organisational performance, and profit-sales growth. They found positive associations between all these programs and performance dimensions. Similar types of results are reported by Ngo et al. (2009) who examined the impact of a bundle of seven family-friendly work practices on perceived market and HR-related firm performances. Specifically, they conducted a cross-sectional study on 182 large multinational firms in Hong Kong and found positive results. Collectively, all these findings shed light on exchanges that occur between employees and organisations while benefiting both the parties in the long-run. Thus, social exchange theory provides a richer understanding of work–life programs and their impact on various organisational performance.

2.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This research has accumulated all organisation level studies of work–life programs to understand the effectiveness of work–life programs in organisations. In doing so, explaining the inconsistent findings of prior research is one of the significant objectives of this thesis. It is found that contextual factors drive these inconsistent results. In addition, since work–life programs exist within a social system where multiple stakeholders interact both internally and externally, this might be one of the plausible explanations for inconsistent results (Beer et al., 2015). In this regard, contextual phenomena, especially industry context, is highly emphasised as HR practices (i.e., work–life programs) are considered as one of the most localised management practices. The effective utilisation of work–life programs depends on various situational factors (i.e., workforce composition, HR systems, business strategy, industry type, technology, societal values, labour market, and union) (Rosenzweig & Nohria, 1994). Organisation size also has a significant influence to determine the effectiveness of these programs. The research scope of this thesis can be depicted through the following framework.

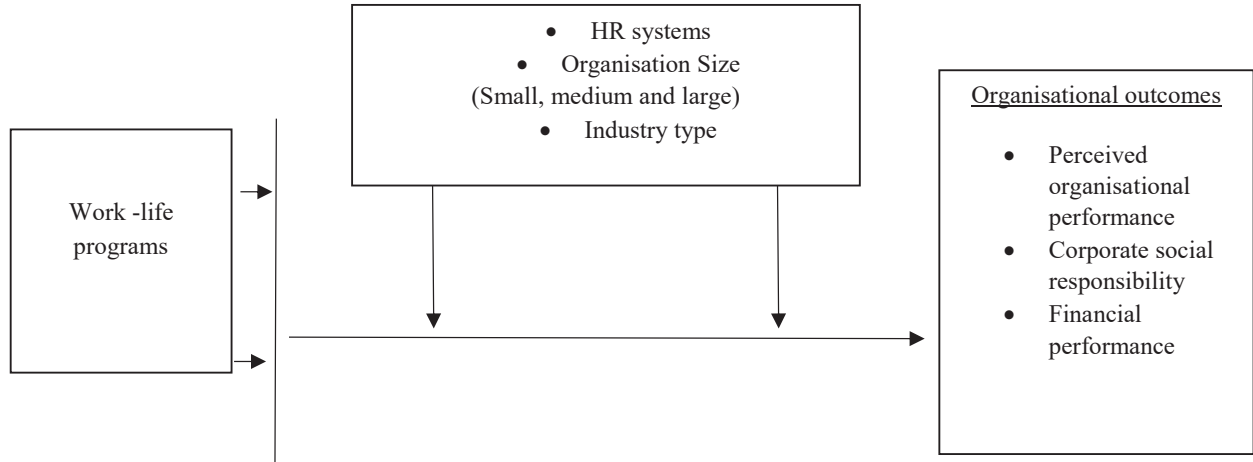


Figure 2.2. Conceptual framework for work-life programs-performance relationship

2.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This research has three objectives: to explore the business case of work–life programs, to examine the social case of work–life programs and how HR systems strengthen or weaken the work–life programs–performance relationship, and to understand the organisational context of this relationship. The basic aim of this research is to answer the following research question:

“What is the impact of work–life programs on the organisational outcomes and how do HR systems, organisation size, and industry influence this impact?”

To broadly address this research question, initially a systematic literature review has been undertaken and then two other empirical studies have been conducted with the following research questions:

1. Do work–life programs improve organisational outcomes?
2. Are there any business and social cases for WLPs?
3. Do HR system strengthen or weaken WLPs-performance relationship?
4. Does organisation size strengthen or weaken WLPs-performance relationship?
5. Does industry type strengthen or weaken WLPs-performance relationship?

Each question addressed the development of a following paper in this thesis by publication. The papers are included in Chapters 4, 5 and 6.

Chapter 3

Methodology

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the methodology adopted to answer the research questions to achieve the objectives stated in Chapter 1. This chapter is structured into eight subsections explaining the methodology adopted in this research. Section 3.1 outlines the research philosophy. Section 3.2 comprises the research design of the studies and section 3.3 includes a detailed description of data sources. Section 3.4 explains the procedure of collecting data and 3.5 presents the description of all measures. Section 3.6 overviews the empirical models and analysis and 3.7 points out the methodology limitations. Section 3.8 concludes the chapter.

3.1 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

Research philosophy refers to the belief about the mechanisms through which research data can be sourced, analysed and interpreted to develop knowledge (Lee, 2017). To formulate a research design, planning the underpinning philosophy is an important step (Wilson & McCormack, 2006). Determining the philosophical stance or research paradigm plays an integral role to interpret the research findings (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Sobh & Perry, 2006). Philosophical standpoint is also essential to gauge the quality of research (Fossey et al. 2002). The assumptions made in the research test and inform the reality through developing potential alternatives and techniques (Punch & Oancea, 2014).

Nicholson (1996) states that research designs can be adopted to test the social reality as those studied and adopted in the natural sciences. This research design is consistent with the positivist paradigm. The paradigm indicates the framework through which a researcher identifies a research problem and testifies the problem through observations. Positivist paradigm refers to the scientific method through which a social problem can be empirically investigated to explore the reality. Guba (1990) proposes that while developing the research design, researchers need the careful selection of three key paradigm: ontology, epistemology and methodology. The first research paradigm is ontology that refers to a series of events or phenomena happening or existing in any particular subject area in the reality (Fleetwood & Hesketh, 2006). Guba (1990) suggests that reality can be predicted and researchers gain knowledge through various observations of the phenomena. This research applies the rationales

of the phenomena of the HR managers discourse and various information of organisational performance.

Another element of positivist paradigm is epistemology. Matveev (2002) emphasised the objective inquiry in epistemology. It states that bias needs to be excluded from the interpretation and findings of the research. HR managers discourse and the use of corporate documents of financial information indicate that there is possibly little bias in the data. The third paradigm is methodology. While undertaking a research, methodology must be considered carefully to answer the research questions (Guba, 1990). In the realist or positivist approach, Guba (1990) suggests that hypotheses or research questions are described in propositional form and later, it is proposed to empirical investigation. The second and third manuscript in this research responded to three research questions which were conducted empirically and several statistical tools and techniques were used to investigate the significance of findings.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN & METHODS

To enable an organisation level analysis, data were derived from two sources: online questionnaires and corporate financial information. Participants completed an online survey (using key survey software) voluntarily (see Appendix). The collected data using “key survey software” was stored, monitored and processed securely. The cross-sectional and time-lagged research used descriptive, nonexperimental and moderation designs. The research was conducted using the data from online survey of HR managers including a number of validated and established scales. The secondary data was extracted from OSIRIS and ORBIS database. The three main research questions and subsequent stages of analysis adopted a series of descriptive, regression and moderation designs correspondingly. The research design framework is summarised in Figure 3.1. The collected data were executed to a SPSS version 23 system for detailed further analysis.

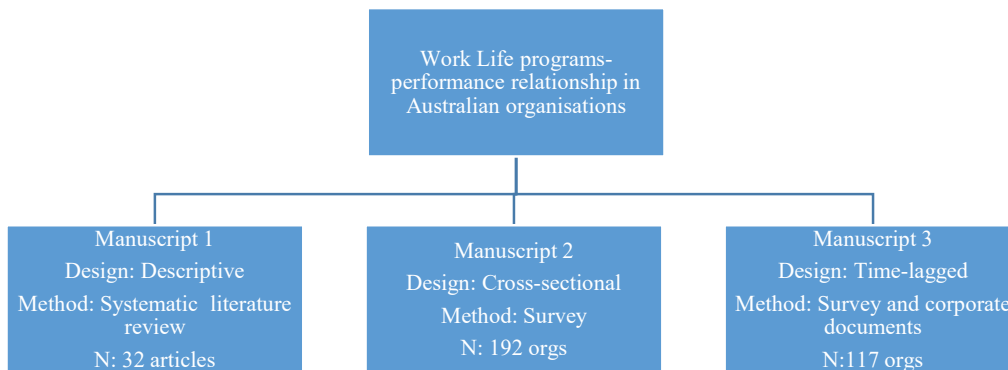


Figure 3.1. Research design framework

3.3 DATA SOURCES

This thesis comprises three manuscripts. The first manuscript is a systematic literature review. The systematic literature review process commenced with the research question and then examined the broad conceptualisations of work–life programs, organisational outcomes, inclusion and exclusion criteria, and the validation of the empirical data for analysis (Denyer & Tranfield, 2009). To select papers, the data point started in 1990. Especially, in 1990s, several empirical studies were conducted addressing individual and organisational outcomes. Since this review is solely focused on the organisational outcomes, the data point started from 1990 (De Menezes & Kelliher, 2011). In the review process the selected papers (quantitative and qualitative empirical studies) form the empirical data for the analysis. EBSCOhost and ProQuest databases were used to search the literature that is published in the English language only.

The second and third manuscript were conducted empirically using the Australian data. For the second and third manuscript, the population comprises for-profit organisations in Australia. The initial sample firms comprised 2000 for-profit firms in Australia with 50+ employees. In October 2017, an online survey titled “Work–life Programs”: A source of competitive advantage” with a cover letter was sent to relevant HR people (HR managers/ HR directors/ CEOs/managing directors) at 2000 public and private organisations in Australia with 50+ employees. After two weeks a reminder email with the survey link was sent to HR managers who had not responded to the survey. HR managers from 192 organisations completed the survey. The respondents reported on work–life programs, HR systems,

organisation size and industry type for the year 2017. The participating organisations in this research represent a wide range of firms across various sizes and industries. The size of organisations ranges from 60 employees to 40,000 employees (mean 1559.15). The organisations that participated belonged to all industry groups. After adjusting for 23 undelivered emails, the response rate for the survey was 10.7% – the low response rate can be ascribed to factors such as managers of some firms being officially restricted from participating in surveys (Baruch & Holtom 2008) and HR and senior managers being over-surveyed in general (Cycyota & Harrison 2006). The final sample of the research represents the wider population and thus a low response rate is acceptable; it allows for generalisability to the population. The second manuscript was a cross-sectional manuscript and thus, its final sample was 192.

For the third manuscript, multiple data sources were used to investigate the impact of work–life programs–financial performance relationship. This research is a nine-month time lagged study with a careful selection of work–life programs and outcome variables. Data were collected through an HR manager survey conducted in 2017 and secondary data were collected from OSIRIS and ORBIS database. HR managers of 192 organisations completed the questionnaire and after nine months of the survey, financial performance data were collected for those 192 organisations. The financial data was not available for all those respondent (192) organisations and thus, the final sample was 117 for the third manuscript.

3.4 PROCEDURE

To begin the data collection from HR managers, a questionnaire was developed through key survey software. To send this online survey to HR managers, an ethics application with all documents (e. g., cover letter, and questionnaire) was submitted to the QUT ethics office for approval. For this research, QUT ethics approval number is 1700000568. In the meantime, an address data book containing email addresses and office phone numbers was collected from a data rental company, Impact Lists PTY Ltd. After getting the approval and the address of HR managers, an online survey titled “Work–life Programs’: A source of competitive advantage” with a cover letter was sent to relevant HR people (HR managers/HR directors/CEOs/managing directors) in October 2017. A participant information sheet was provided with the survey.

The surveys were sent to 2000 public and private organisations in Australia with 50+ employees. After two weeks, a reminder email with the survey link was sent to HR managers

who had not responded to the survey. The last reminder was sent to the rest of the respondents who had not participated. After that, a phone call was made to 500 HR managers to create awareness of this survey and to increase the likelihood of participation. Out of 2000 targeted organisations, 192 organisations completed the survey. The respondents reported on work–life programs, HR systems, organisation size and industry type for the year 2017. Data on work–life programs were matched with data on financial performance from financial databases. The survey data was stored and processed securely and transferred to SPSS version 23 for detailed analysis.

3.5 MEASURES

The following section describes the details of predictor variable, outcomes variables and all relevant control variables.

3.5.1 Demographics

The online survey measured a number of demographic characteristics comprising gender, age, job title, work experience in the present position, and total job experience (see Appendix for online survey).

3.5.2 Work–life programs

Work–life programs are measured using a 23-item scale from Ali and Konrad (2017), with a reliability of 0.77. The 23 items cover a range of work–family programs offered in organisations. The response options are comprised of does not offer (1), offered to few employees (2), offered to most employees (3) and offered to all employees (4). The response options helped assess how work–life programs may benefit the maximum number of employees. The Cronbach alpha of this study for the scales of work–life programs is .83.

3.5.3 Perceived firm performance

Perceived firm performance refers to the self-assessed performance measures reported by a manager. This is one of the most widely used firm outcome measures (Delaney & Huselid, 1996; Jap, 2001; Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000; Smith & Barclay, 1997). Managers were asked to assess various dimensions of organisational performance compared to their competitors (Singh, 2004). The perceived firm performance measure consists of seven items, with a reported reliability of .86 (Delaney & Huselid, 1996). The Cronbach alpha for this study is .89. A representative item from the scale is: ‘In comparison to other organisations that are in the

same kind of business, how would you compare your organisation's overall performance during the financial year ended in 2017? What about the development of the organisation's products or services?' The respondents were asked to make this comparison on a scale ranging from: much worse (1) to much better (5).

3.5.4 Corporate social responsibility (CSR)

CSR data were collected through the survey. A seven-item scale was used to measure the CSR performance of firms. The reliability of the scale was 0.89 (Turker, 2009) and the Cronbach alpha for this study is .88. One item from this scale is: 'Our organisation implements special programs to minimise its negative impact on the natural environment.' A five-point scale was used to report on each item as follows: strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), neutral (3), agree (4), and strongly agree (5). The mean responses of the items of the CSR scale refer to the extent to which an organisation is responsible to its stakeholders.

3.5.5 Financial performance

Multiple performance measures are used, as a single measure might not reflect the effectiveness of various employee activities (van Veen-Dirks, 2010). This manuscript uses objective performance measures, which correspond to the employees' functions and its subsequent effect on the firm performance (Frederiksen et al., 2017; Singh et al., 2016). This manuscript uses two measures of financial performance: Net Income (NI) and Operating Revenue (OP_REV). Since financial performance is the reflection of the competitive advantage of firms, it is noteworthy to investigate the impact of work-life programs on the financial performance of organisations. The financial performance of firms generally depends on revenue enhancement and cost reduction. Research shows that investments into HRM practices are positively associated with the financial outcome of firms (Cascio, 1991). Data on Net Income and Operating Revenue for the year 2017-2018 were obtained from the Osiris and Orbis database.

3.5.6 HR systems

The commitment HR system was measured using a five-item scale from Arthur (1992). A representative item is: 'Our organisation believes in providing extensive training.' The five-point scale used to report on each item was: strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), neutral (3), agree (4), and strongly agree (5). The mean responses of the HR system scale items refer to the

extent to which the organisation practices a commitment HR system. The Cronbach alpha for this study is .78.

3.5.7 Organisation size

Organisation size is linked to the adoption of work–life programs and HR policies and practices (Konrad, 2007; Kotey & Sheridan, 2004). Organisation size is operationalised as the total number of employees in any particular year (Huselid, 1995). Similar to previous research, organisation size is calculated as the total number of full-time employees (Alexander et al., 1995; Jackson et al., 1991). Large organisations are likely to offer more work–life programs because of the economies of scale and the resources. As such, large firms have higher possibility to get numerous benefits from work–life programs.

3.5.8 Industry

The effect of work–life programs on organisational performance can vary across service and manufacturing industries due to the workforce composition and level of interactions among employees, internal stakeholders, and external stakeholders (e.g., Ali et al., 2011; Godthelp & Glunk, 2003). The sample organisations are divided into services and manufacturing following the nine Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) industry groups (Richard et al., 2007). Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing, Construction, Mining and Manufacturing are classified into manufacturing category. Transportation, Communications, Electric, Gas and Sanitary Services, Retail Trade, Wholesale Trade, Finance, Insurance and Real Estate Services are categorised as service industry (Richard et al., 2007). A dummy variable named “Industry” is created with ‘1’ representing services and ‘0’ representing manufacturing.

3.6 ANALYSIS AND EMPIRICAL MODELS

This research includes three inter-related manuscripts. In the first manuscript, to understand the link between work–life programs and firm performance at organisational level, a systematic literature review has been conducted. In the second manuscript, empirically to investigate the relationship between work–life programs and firm performance and how the human resource system moderates this relationship, correlation matrix and hierarchical regression models are used. Descriptive statistics are also reported to find the consistency of data with prior studies. Perceived firm performance and corporate social performance are the two measures of firm performance used in this manuscript. Initially, the control variables are inserted into the first model and then a predictor is included into the second model. The final

model includes interaction term and its constituents to account for any moderating role of human resource system. The hierarchical regression models for firm performance are summarised below where firm performance can be either perceived firm performance or corporate social performance and controls are organisation size, organisation age, and organisation type.

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{Firm Performance}_i \\
 &= \beta_0 + \sum_{k=2}^4 \beta_k(\text{Controls})_i \\
 &+ \varepsilon_i
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{Firm Performance}_{i,t} \\
 &= \beta_0 + \sum_{k=2}^4 \beta_k(\text{Controls})_i + \beta_5(\text{Worklife programs})_i \\
 &+ \varepsilon_i
 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{Firm Performance}_{i,t} \\
 &= \beta_0 + \sum_{k=2}^4 \beta_k(\text{Controls})_i + \beta_5(\text{Worklife programs})_i \\
 &+ \beta_6(\text{Human resource system})_i \\
 &+ \beta_7(\text{Worklife programs} \times \text{Human resource system})_i \\
 &+ \varepsilon_i
 \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

In the third manuscript, taking time-lag into consideration and using a similar type of empirical model the relationship between work–life programs and firm performance is examined. In addition, how organisation size and industry moderate this relationship are also examined in this research. Correlation matrix and hierarchical regression models are used to investigate this relationship. For variables to be consistent with prior studies, descriptive statistics are also reported. Operating Revenue (OP_REV) and Net Income (NI) are the two measures of firm performance used in this study. Importantly, these outcome variables are observed with a time-lag of nine months. Initially, the control variables are regressed and then a predictor is included into the second model. The final model includes both the interaction terms and their constituents to account for any moderating role of organisation size and

industry. The hierarchical regression models summarised below account for either OP_REV or NI and controls are organisation age and organisation type.

$$\begin{aligned}
 & Firm\ Performance_i \\
 &= \beta_0 + \sum_{k=2}^3 \beta_k(Controls)_i \\
 &+ \varepsilon_i
 \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & Firm\ Performance_i \\
 &= \beta_0 + \sum_{k=2}^3 \beta_k(Controls)_i + \beta_4(Worklife\ programs)_i \\
 &+ \varepsilon_i
 \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & Firm\ Performance_{i,t+1} \\
 &= \beta_0 + \sum_{k=2}^3 \beta_k(Controls)_i + \beta_4(Worklife\ programs)_i \\
 &+ \beta_5(Organization\ size)_{i,t} + \beta_6(Industry)_i \\
 &+ \beta_7(Worklife\ programs \times Organization\ size)_i \\
 &+ \beta_8(Worklife\ programs \times Industry)_i \\
 &+ \varepsilon_i
 \end{aligned} \tag{6}$$

3.7 LIMITATIONS

This research has some limitations. The first limitation is cross-sectional data of the second manuscript. Self-report bias and common method variance are concerned issues in cross-sectional data (Podsakoff et al., 2003). This data cannot demonstrate causality. However, self-report is one of the key mechanisms to understand the managers' perspectives of how work-life programs have affected various organisational outcomes. The research does not investigate the actual usage of work-life programs and its impacts, rather it accounts the offerings of work-life programs and its subsequent impact on various outcomes. Hence, the research cannot account for the cost of these programs and presumably, cannot quantify the benefits of it.

The sample of this research covers all for-profit organisations in Australia and thus, generalisability is confined to for-profit organisations. In addition, generalisability is confined to organisational outcomes of work–life programs but no other employee-related outcomes such as commitment or engagement. Moreover, this research has targeted HR managers or senior managers or managing directors and owners. Since these participants are senior executives, they have busy schedules and they are reluctant to participate in this kind of research (Cycyota & Harrison, 2006).

3.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has focused on the research methodology including research design, data collection details and analysis steps. The procedure of research and sample descriptions were also stated in this chapter. The steps of data analysis according to research questions were described in this chapter. Appendix A provides the online survey of this research that includes all the questions regarding the predictor and outcome variables.

Chapter 4

Submitted & Revised Paper

Work–Life Programs and Organizational Outcomes: A Systematic Literature Review

This chapter is the first manuscript in the series of three. The title of the manuscript is '*Work–life Programs and organizational Outcomes: A Systematic Literature Review*'. Section 4.1 presents the details of the journal. The manuscript was submitted to the Community, Work & Family Journal in March 2018 and went through a double-blind peer review process. Associate editor of the journal and two reviewers provided comments. The manuscript was revised according to the comments and resubmitted with the full response letter to the journal in November 2018. This manuscript was also presented at the 30th Australian & New Zealand Academy of Management (ANZAM) conference held in Brisbane, Queensland University of Technology (QUT), Australia on 6-9 December 2016.

4.1 DETAILS OF SELECTED JOURNAL

This section presents details of the journal in which the first manuscript was submitted after revising.

Journal: Community, Work & Family

Publisher: Taylor & Francis Online

Scimago Journal ranking: Development: Q2



Statement of Contribution of Co-Authors for Thesis by Published Paper

The following is the suggested format for the required declaration provided at the start of any thesis chapter which includes a co-authored publication.

The authors listed below have certified that:

1. they meet the criteria for authorship in that they have participated in the conception, execution, or interpretation, of at least that part of the publication in their field of expertise;
2. they take public responsibility for their part of the publication, except for the responsible author who accepts overall responsibility for the publication;
3. there are no other authors of the publication according to these criteria;
4. potential conflicts of interest have been disclosed to (a) granting bodies, (b) the editor or publisher of journals or other publications, and (c) the head of the responsible academic unit, and
5. they agree to the use of the publication in the student's thesis and its publication on the [QUT's ePrints site](#) consistent with any limitations set by publisher requirements.

In the case of this chapter:

Title: Work–life programs and Organizational performance: A Systematic Literature Review

Publication Journal: Community, Work and Family Journal (Revised and resubmitted)

Contributor	Statement of contribution*
Kohinur Akter	Designing the study, analysis of the literature, interpretation of findings, preparation of manuscript
Signature: kohinur	
27/06/2019	
Dr. Muhammad Ali	Guidance to write the systematic literature review paper and contribution to manuscript
Associate Prof. Artemis Chang	Guidance to write the systematic literature review paper and contribution to manuscript

Principal Supervisor Confirmation

I have sighted email or other correspondence from all Co-authors confirming their certifying authorship. (If the Co-authors are not able to sign the form please forward their email or other correspondence confirming the certifying authorship to the RSC).

Dr Muhammad Ali

 Name

QUT Verified Signature

 Signature

June 27, 2019

 Date

4.2 SUBMITTED PAPER

Work–Life Programs and Organizational Outcomes: A Systematic Literature Review

Work–life programs research has been conducted at the individual and organizational levels. Yet, one important question remains unanswered: Do work–life programs improve organizational outcomes? This paper presents a systematic literature review of the impact of work–life programs on outcomes at the organizational level. A systematic selection process was adopted, resulting in a final sample of 32 articles published in 24 peer-reviewed journals over 28 years (1990–2017). This paper draws on quantitative and qualitative empirical studies to summarize, explain and refine the business case for work–life programs. The findings suggest these programs can result in positive, negative or no impact on organizational outcomes, depending on the context. The paper also notes ways to advance work–life research to strengthen the business case for work–life programs.

Keywords: review; work–life programs; organizational outcomes; business case

Introduction

Balancing multiple life domains (such as work, personal life, community) is a struggle for most individuals (Darcy et al., 2012; Emslie & Hunt, 2009). This struggle has received much attention from employers, practitioners, and policy makers, since global socioeconomic changes and macroeconomic circumstances influence the family structure, organizational policies and practices, and the broader societal system (Cahill et al., 2015). Also, the increasing trend of dual-earner couples, single-parent families, employed individuals with care-giving responsibilities, and the substantial participation of women in work has received wide publicity during the past two decades (Aziz & Cunningham, 2008; Neal & Hammer, 2007; Sharabi, 2017). These changes have motivated organizations to introduce work–life programs to support employees’ personal, professional, and societal lives (Kossek et al., 2011; Kossek et al., 2009).

Despite this surge of attention, researchers observe there has been a decline in the implementation of work–life programs in organizations. Despite this surge of attention, researchers observe that work–life programs are being marginalized in organizational systems, essentially creating a significant implementation gap of these programs in organizations (Kelly et al., 2008; Kossek et al., 2011; Kossek et al., 2009).

Global employment challenges (Dhakal et al., 2018) and the global economic downturn followed by the global recession in 2007–2008 compelled many employers to curtail their work–life programs (Ernst Kossek et al., 2010; Naithani, 2010). Employers may place less emphasis on employees’ work–life balance matters due to cost considerations (Dex & Scheibl, 2001; Gambles et al., 2006; Ollier-Malaterre, 2009; Ollier-Malaterre, 2017). Also, although several studies suggest that the outcomes of work–life programs at the organizational level are largely positive (e.g. Arthur & Cook, 2004; Avgar et al., 2011), others indicate some negative or non-significant effects (e.g. Bloom et al., 2011; Sands & Harper, 2007; Yamamoto & Matsuura, 2014). Unless employers are confident that they can offset the incurred costs of these initiatives it is difficult for them to justify the continuance of work–life programs (Kelly et al., 2008). Hence, this paper presents a systematic review of the literature on work–life programs and their impact on multiple organizational outcomes, potentially providing a foundation to better understand the business case. This review is guided by the following research question: What is the relationship between work–life programs and various organizational outcomes?

A systematic literature review provides unbiased insights into a specific research question, based on explicit selection criteria for the studies reviewed and a synthesis of their findings (Tranfield et al., 2003). It can also identify existing research gaps and offer recommendations for practitioners and policy makers (Webster & Watson, 2002). The current state of the work–life programs literature at the organizational level demands a systematic review for the following reasons. First, a considerable amount of literature has accumulated on

the organizational level impact of work–life programs, with two main streams of research; the *bundles of work–life programs* and *separate work–life programs*. Many studies have investigated the impact of a bundle of work–life programs on organizational outcomes (e.g. Clifton & Shepard, 2004; Konrad & Mangel, 2000), while others focused on the impact of individual programs (e.g. telecommuting, childcare services, sick leave, etc.) to examine their separate effects on outcomes (e.g. Martínez- Sánchez et al., 2007; Sands & Harper, 2007). Second, the evidence provided by the current literature is mixed: positive effects on organizational outcomes (e.g. Arthur & Cook, 2004; Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000), negative effects on organizational outcomes (e.g. Baughman et al., 2003; Meyer et al., 2001), no effects on organizational outcomes (e.g. Bloom et al., 2011; Yamamoto & Matsuura, 2014). Although a few literature reviews have been conducted in the work–life field (Casper et al., 2007; Chang et al., 2010; Eby et al., 2005), little is known about the overall evidence provided by the body of literature in terms of various work–life programs and their impact on *organizational outcomes*.

This review makes three contributions. First, it is the first systematic review that focuses on the impact of work–life programs on organizational, not individual employee outcomes. Beauregard and Henry (2009) conducted a *narrative* review of work–life studies where they focused on both individual-level and organizational-level outcomes. De Menezes and Kelliher (2011) conducted a systematic literature review of *flexible working arrangements* (FWAs) only and performance-related outcomes, and reviewed both individual-employee-level and organizational-level outcomes. Kossek and Ozeki (1999) also conducted a review of 27 studies on work–life *conflict* and its impact on individual and organizational effectiveness (e.g. absenteeism, organizational commitment, job involvement).

Second, it pioneers in categorizing the literature into bundles of work–life programs studies and separate work–life programs studies, given the different measurements of work–

life programs across these two streams. This helps avoid incorrect comparisons of findings across the two categories (Subramony, 2009). The synthesis of the findings in each stream highlights the comparative benefits of implementing bundles of work–life programs vs. separate programs (MacDuffie, 1995; Stavrou & Brewster, 2005). It also provides insights into which specific work–life programs are beneficial for organizational outcomes (Stavrou & Kilaniotis, 2010). Third, this review partly explains the inconsistent findings of past research at the organizational level by taking account of factors such as region, industry, and organization size (Ali et al., 2011).

Next, we present the systematic process used to select the papers investigating work–life programs at the organizational level. Details are provided regarding the search strategy framework, keyword selection, quality of the studies, and publication year of the papers. The paper concludes by noting the limitations and inadequacies in the current research and proposes directions for further research.

Methodology

A systematic review uses a structured question or a set of structured questions which help to identify and select literature to analyze data from those studies to draw conclusions and future research directions (Khan et al., 2001). Tranfield et al. (2003) developed three stages: planning the review, conducting the review, and reporting and dissemination. These stages comprise several phases of review directions. Moreover, Denyer and Tranfield (2009) developed four principles (transparency, inclusivity, explanatory, and heuristic) that comprise five steps: question formulation, locating studies, study selection and evaluation, analysis and synthesis, and reporting and using the results. Based on Tranfield et al. (2003) three review stages and the Denyer and Tranfield (2009) framework, this paper followed the systematic literature review process as shown in Figure 1.

[Insert Figure 1 About Here]

Search Strategy

This systematic literature review process commenced with the research question and then examined the broad conceptualizations of work–life programs, organizational outcomes, inclusion and exclusion criteria, and the validation of the empirical data for analysis (Denyer & Tranfield, 2009). We used the EBSCOhost and ProQuest databases to search the literature published in the English language. To undertake a systematic and comprehensive literature review we conducted a series of searches to select suitable papers. To do this, the search sets were organized into two categories: work–life programs and organizational outcomes (see Table 1). Work–life programs search sets include family friendly programs, work–life balance programs, work–family enrichment programs etc. and organizational outcomes include financial performance, profits, productivity, reputation, turnover etc. All possible commonly used synonyms were identified within each of the search sets. We selected 1990 as our starting point for data collection; in the 1990s, parallel to diversity management field, empirical studies started to investigate the individual and organizational outcomes of work–life programs (De Menezes & Kelliher, 2011; Kochan et al., 2003).

[Insert Table 1 About Here]

A systematic search strategy, illustrated in Figure 2, was followed. All searches were restricted to peer-reviewed journal publications and full-text formats. The two search sets resulted in thousands of articles. Several search strings were then developed by combining terms from search sets A and B (see Figure 2), leading to 508 papers. A citation analysis was conducted and the reference lists of four review articles pertinent to work–life programs and organizational performance were also searched (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; De Menezes & Kelliher, 2011; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999; Özbilgin et al., 2011). The N remained at 508. The titles were reviewed as per the search strategy framework, and all articles other than those at

the organization level were excluded, leaving 111 articles. In the next step, the abstracts of the 111 papers were read to remove additional papers that matched the exclusion criteria. Thus, in several cases, many parts of the papers were read in detail, resulting in a final 32 papers (noted in the reference list using ‘*’) selected for analysis. Thirty-one studies used quantitative methods and one used a qualitative method. 19 studies investigated the impact of bundles of work–life programs on outcome variables, while 13 examined the separate impact of individual work–life programs on outcomes.

[Insert Figure 2 About Here]

Table 2 shows the journal titles, article count, year(s) of publications, percentage, and journal rankings. A wide range of journals have published these 32 papers, including journals from the field of human resource management, management and organizational behavior. Many studies were published between 2000 and 2010. We used the SCImago Journal Rank (SJR) system for ranking of journals. The SJR is a large citation index with 1.4 billion cited references (Yuen, 2018). There are four quartile scores for journal rankings, based on the impact factor. Q1 represents the top 25% of the journals, Q2 denotes the next 25%, Q3 refers to the next 25%, and Q4 comprises the bottom 25% journals (Falagas et al., 2008). Fourteen out of the 32 papers were published in Q1 journals. Only two Q3 sources and no Q4 sources were identified.

[Insert Table 2 About Here]

Coding and Analysis of Studies

The first author coded the information from the 19 bundle-program studies and 13 separate programs studies. The second author then randomly checked the coding of 20% of the articles from both sets and found a 10% coding error. Both authors discussed the errors to make corrections, ensuring a high level of inter-coder agreement.

Table 3 shows that the 19 bundle-program studies were coded for their following attributes: bundle size (number of work–life programs forming a bundle), design, industry,

organization size, country, performance measure, and findings. The *bundle size* ranged from only four programs to 19 programs, with the average size of the bundle being 9.7. Most studies (12) used a cross-sectional *research design* which raises concerns regarding the internal validity (predictor affects outcomes) of their findings. Other research designs used comprise time-lagged (4) and panel data designs (3). No attention has been given to longitudinal designs, which could provide stronger evidence for the business case for work–life programs (Konrad & Mangel, 2000; Ngo et al., 2009; Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000). Most studies were conducted across *industries* (11) whereas fewer studies were conducted solely in the manufacturing (4) or service (2) or manufacturing and services (2) industries.

[Insert Table 3 About Here]

Regarding *organization size*, Table 3 shows that eight studies were conducted in large firms, and six in firms of various sizes. Very few studies used a sample of medium-size firms (2) and small/medium-size firms (3). This could be partly attributed to the fact that large firms are likely to offer more work–life programs (e.g. Konrad & Mangel, 2000). However, it has led to a lack of knowledge of the work–life program–performance relationship in small or medium-sized firms. Nearly all studies were conducted in *developed countries*, with most studies conducted in the developed economies of North America and Western Europe (e.g. Arthur & Cook, 2004; Giardini & Kabst, 2008). Thus, little is known about the effect of bundle of work–life programs on organizational performance in developing and emerging economies.

Table 3 indicates that a range of performance outcomes were used: financial performance (e.g. Arthur & Cook, 2004; Avgar et al., 2011), perceived performance (e.g. Ngo et al., 2009; Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000), employee productivity (e.g. Bae & Goodman, 2014; Clifton & Shepard, 2004; Konrad & Mangel, 2000), employee turnover/retention (e.g. Ngo et al., 2009; Yanadori & Kato, 2009), recruitment (e.g. Wise & Bond, 2003), reduced absenteeism, and other measures (e.g. Wood & de Menezes, 2010). *Financial performance*

measures include return on assets, return on equity, return on capital employed, profit rate, and share price reactions (Arthur & Cook, 2004; Bloom, et al., 2011; Sands & Harper, 2007). *Perceived firm performance* refers to the self-assessed *organizational* performance reported by an organizational representative (e.g. HR director). A range of scales has been used to subjectively measure multiple dimensions of organizational performance, in comparison to competition (Singh, 2004). A representative item from a scale is ‘In comparison to other organizations that are in the same kind of business, how would you compare your organizations overall performance during the last twelve months in regard to the development of new products and services?’ *Employee productivity* is an objective measure and can be calculated as operating revenue divided by the number of employees (Huselid, 1995). *Turnover* refers to the number of employees leaving a firm each year (Lee & Hong, 2011). As lower turnover is desirable, turnover was reverse coded as retention. Other performance measures included employee relations, and motivation (Giardini & Kabst, 2008).

Table 3 also shows the findings of the studies. Overall, 17 counts of positive effects were recorded on various outcome measures, with eight counts of non-significant effects. The total exceeds 19 as multiple performance measures were used in many studies. None of the studies found significant negative effects on any performance measure. Thus, this body of literature supports a business case for bundles of work–life programs. Table 4 illustrates the impact on various performance measures. Employee productivity and perceived performance are among the most studied outcome measures. The evidence for a business case is stronger for financial performance, recruitment and other measures.

[Insert Table 4 About Here]

Table 5 displays the following attributes of 13 separate programs studies: research design, industry, organization size, country, work–life programs, performance measures and findings. Most studies (8) used a cross-sectional research *design* which again raises concerns

regarding internal validity of their findings. Other research designs used are panel data designs (3) and time-lagged (2). Most studies were conducted across *industries* (10) whereas two studies were conducted on the manufacturing and service sectors and one study was conducted in the manufacturing sector. Industry-specific research (research in services sector and additional research in manufacturing sector) might help in understanding how industry type influences the work–life programs–organizational outcomes relationship. Regarding *organization size*, Table 5 shows that eight studies were conducted in large firms and four in firms of various sizes whereas one study used a sample of small/medium-sized firms. As mentioned earlier, regarding the *country context*, nearly all studies were conducted in developed *countries*, with most studies conducted in the developed economies of North America and Western Europe (e.g. Lee & Hong, 2011; Meyer et al., 2001). Table 5 illustrates that a range of *performance measures* were used and the findings are mixed across studies.

[Insert Table 5 About Here]

As separate programs studies investigated either a single program or multiple separate programs, Table 6 displays the findings for each program separately. In comparison to the impact of bundles of work–life programs (see Table 4), the findings re the effects of separate programs on organizational outcomes are more mixed. Some programs (i.e. flexible scheduling and child care/dependent care) have positive, negative and non-significant effects on outcomes. Others have only positive effects (i.e. employee assistance program and sick leave), negative effects (i.e. overtime, shift work and weekend work) or non-significant effects (i.e. compressed work week). Overall, separate programs studies provide mixed evidence for the business case of work–life programs. However, each separate program can be very different, so analyzing the evidence for each program separately may provide clearer results. The following work–life programs have been most studied: teleworking, flexible work schedules, childcare/dependent care assistance. The evidence presented in Table 6 suggests that the positive effects of

teleworking, flexible scheduling and childcare/dependent care assistance outnumber negative or non-significant effects. Evidence for other separate programs is insufficient in most cases.

[Insert Table 6 About Here]

Bundle and Separate Programs Studies

The above analysis of the empirical literature at the organizational level provides stronger evidence for a positive impact (18 counts) of work–life programs bundles on organizational outcomes than the negative (0 count) or non-significant effects (8 counts) (see Table 4). However, with regard to separate work–life programs, the evidence for a business case is mixed: 26 counts of positive effects, 13 counts of negative effects, and 26 counts of non-significant effects (see Table 6). The next section provides a possible explanation for these inconsistent findings and presents directions for future research for both bundle studies and separate programs studies.

Factors contributing to inconsistent findings and directions for future research

Our analysis suggests that inconsistent findings can be partly attributed to research design, industry, organization size and country or the regional context of the studies (see Figure 3). An examination of these inconsistencies shows potential avenues for future research.

Design and operationalization

Huselid (1995) and Wright et al., (2005) note some major shortcomings of the research designs adopted in HRM research. These include temporal precedence of the predictor (work–life programs), test of reverse causality (performance–work–life programs relationship), and a reasonable time-lag between predictor (work–life programs) and outcome (e.g. financial performance) (Menard, 1991). Many of these shortcomings are also present in the work–life literature. A study design addressing these shortcomings will improve the internal validity of

the research – the causal relationship between work–life program and outcomes.

Only 21% of work–life bundle programs studies and 15% of separate programs studies used a time-lagged design, ensuring that work–life programs precede outcomes. It is important to note here that work–life programs studies provide stronger evidence for a business case. Thus, the remainder of the studies might demonstrate the impact of performance on offering of work–life programs, rather than vice versa. A test of the curvilinear relationship between work–life programs and outcomes might help refine the impact and explain some of the inconsistent findings (Ali et al., 2011). Explanatory case studies of firms would facilitate building theories as well as examine the benefits and actual costs associated with various work–life programs (Kossek et al., 2011).

Measures of work–life programs have ranged from the offering of programs, availability to all employees (Ierodiakonou & Stavrou, 2015; Meyer et al., 2001; Sands & Harper, 2007), and actual usage of the programs (Baughman et al., 2003; Lee & Hong, 2011). These program dimensions might have contributed to inconsistent findings. As work–life programs bundle studies investigated the impact of the entire bundle, it is impossible to isolate the possible effect of any particular work–life program. However, there is little research examining the synergies from different bundles of work–life programs. For instance, is the possible effect on organizational outcomes greater if flexible work schedules are combined with childcare facilities? It is important to examine which components of work–life bundles drive significant results (Glass & Finley, 2002). Are the effects of bundles larger than the sum of the effects of separate programs? Do organizations benefit from synergistic effects of bundling certain work–life programs (Kossek et al., 2011)? Are some combinations more beneficial than others? Additional research is also required on the different measures of work–life programs, since some work–life programs may have a distinct relationship with organizational performance. Moreover, research evidence shows that weekend work, shift

work, and overtime are known as unsocial hours and are offered according to employer preferences, causing employee stress (Brewster, Mayne, & Tregaskis, 1997; Scheibl & Dex, 1998). Further investigation is required to determine whether these programs serve as a form of work intensification or as a form of flexibility provided to employees (Lewis & Humbert, 2010).

Moreover, Tables 3 and 5 suggest that prior research in work–life programs has investigated various organizational outcomes measures, such as financial performance, turnover, perceived firm performance, employee productivity, turnover and other measures. The impact of work–life programs on social performance measure (e.g., corporate social responsibility, impact on stakeholders) has been ignored in the work–life literature. It is evident that work–life programs are among the employment practices which increase employers’ attractiveness in the labor market (Bourhis & Mekkaoui, 2010; Love & Singh, 2011; Schlechter et al., 2015). Investigating whether work–life programs enhance employer branding in the internal and external labor market is an important field of research (App et al., 2012).

Industry

More than half of the reported significant positive outcomes of work–life programs bundles were based in service firms and firms across industries, whereas almost all bundle studies conducted in the manufacturing sector found non-significant effects. Avgar et al. (2011) investigated the impact of work–life programs on financial performance in 173 hospitals in the United Kingdom (UK) and found that higher usage of work–life programs led to better financial performance. However, non-significant outcomes were reported by Bloom et al. (2011), who investigated the effects of work–life programs on financial performance in 450 medium-sized manufacturing organizations in the United States (US), the UK, France, and Germany and documented a non-significant result. Generally, manufacturing organizations focus more on tangible resources (such as technology), which are imitable (Hitt et al., 1998),

and focus less on employee–customer interaction aspects. In addition, manufacturing firms concentrate mainly on advancing their production or process technologies, rather than emphasizing new human resource (HR) initiatives like work–life programs (Morris & Johnston, 1987). They are generally less keen to implement work–life programs compared to service firms (Konrad & Mangel, 2000). In this regard, Datta et al. (2005) documented some limitations of the manufacturing industry’s implementation of HR practices. Another explanation might be the manufacturing industry’s workforce composition. For instance, in Spain’s metal manufacturing sectors, eight of every 10 workers employed are male (Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012a). Hence, a plausible explanation might be that work–life programs benefit those firms whose workforces comprise more females than males (Goodstein, 1994; Poelmans et al., 2003).

Service firms (e.g., financial firms, insurance companies, hospitals, call centers) mostly emphasize employee–customer interaction. Thus, employees’ creativity, commitment, and market insights are required to serve customers, and employers are eager to satisfy employees by providing work–life programs (Osterman, 1995; Poelmans, et al., 2003). Therefore, organizations with advanced programs to support employees’ work–life demands are more likely to produce a large number of satisfied customers through their high-quality employee–customer interactions. Additionally, the workforce composition of the service sector contributes to these findings. Service firms that employ knowledge workers and women are more concerned about the effective implementation of work–life programs compared to manufacturing firms (Morgan & Milliken, 1992; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004; Poelmans et al., 2003; Ponzellini, 2006). Importantly, in this information and technology age, the global economy focuses on the service sector, as it involves knowledge-intensive activities and offers enormous job creation (Quinn, 1999; Van Biema & Greenwald, 1996). However, it is also

argued that the value creation of manufacturing firms depends on employees' commitment and skills, which can be positively influenced by these kinds of HR programs (Snell & Dean, 1992).

Industry sector appears to moderate the impact of HRM on performance (Ali et al., 2011). Contextual phenomena, especially the industry context, are highly emphasized in HRM research since HR practices (e. g. work–life programs) are the most localized of management practices given that they interact to a much greater degree with various situational factors (e.g. workforce composition, HR systems, business strategy, industry type, technology, societal values, labor market, and union) (Rosenzweig & Nohria, 1994). In addition, the comparison of manufacturing and service firms is common in management and HRM research (Datta et al., 2005), as is in gender diversity (Ali et al., 2011), innovation (Castellacci, 2008; I. Miles, 2007; Prajogo, 2006), and organizational performance (Chu & Chen, 2007; Sengupta, Heiser, & Cook, 2006); however, very little is known about these industry contexts in work–life research. In the field of work–life programs there is a lack of extensive research in the manufacturing sector in both developed and emerging markets. Since most of the non-significant findings are from studies in the manufacturing sector (Bloom et al., 2011; Giardini & Kabst, 2008), future research should further explore the causes of a lack of effect. Future research can also benefit from studying the manufacturing and service sectors from the same regional context to compare the findings; previous studies were conducted in either manufacturing or service sectors in different contexts, and therefore cannot be compared or generalized. Future research would also benefit from broadening the focus on industry-specific work–life programs. For instance, the three mostly studied separate work–life programs (teleworking, flexible work-schedule and child/dependent care) found positive effects mainly in across-industries studies. The external validity of the research (generalizability to other contexts) can also be improved by conducting studies based on a large sample of organizations across industries (M. Arthur & Cook, 2004) and countries (Bloom et al., 2011).

Organization size

The body of literature on bundles and separate work–life programs mainly focused on large organizations (47% of studies) or organization of various sizes (32% of studies). A lack of attention to small and medium organizations has led to insufficient evidence regarding the impact of programs in these organizations.

The impact of work–life programs bundles is mainly positive for large organizations or organizations of various sizes (e.g. Arthur & Cook, 2004; Avgar et al., 2011), whereas the impact of bundles in small and medium-sized organizations is mixed (e.g. Bloom et al., 2011; Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012a). For instance, Arthur and Cook (2004) examined the share price reactions to family-friendly initiatives in 500 large organizations between 1971 and 1996 and noted a positive impact. Similarly, in a study of 173 hospitals in the UK, Avgar et al. (2011) found that higher usage of work–life programs led to improved financial performance. The findings suggest that bundles of work–life practices enable employees to work flexibly, which stimulates greater effort and, hence, multiple stakeholder benefits.

For large organizations the effective execution of family-friendly initiatives benefits from economies of scale and organizational legitimacy, affirming that the organization complies with social norms and values (Goodstein, 1994; Ingram & Simons, 1995; Osterman, 1995). These organizations have sufficient resources to implement work–life programs (Gray & Mabey, 2005; Maxwell & McDougall, 2004), meeting employees' needs through a large number of work–life programs (Friedman, 2001). In addition, Ponzellini (2006) argues that large firms are more efficient at executing work–life programs to retain employees and avoid recruitment costs.

In contrast, medium-sized and small organizations have resource constraints and cost considerations preventing them from implementing a wide range of work–life programs. For instance, Bloom et al. (2011) investigated the effects of work–life programs on return on capital

employed in 450 medium-sized organizations in the US, the UK, France, and Germany and documented non-significant results. The authors concluded that family-friendly work programs do not add value to existing resources. Similarly, considering 229 small and medium-sized enterprises, Cegarra-Leiva et al. (2012a) examined the impact of 15 work–life balance practices as bundles on organizational outcomes and found non-significant results.

Of the studies that investigated the three most commonly studied separate programs (teleworking, flexible work schedules, childcare/dependent care assistance), only one study focused on small and medium enterprises and reported positive effects (teleworking in a study by Martínez-Sánchez et al., 2007). Thus, additional research is needed in these types of organizations. Small and medium-sized organizations have resource constraints and cost considerations – possible reasons for not focusing on a wide range of work–life programs. In particular, small firms rarely have formal HRM practices and managerial expertise to formulate and implement work–life programs (Lingard et al., 2015). Therefore, more research attention to small and medium-sized enterprises might bring new insights (Lingard et al., 2015). Moreover, the research on work–life programs in the private sector needs to include work intensification (e.g. long working hours, high job strain, and work intensity), which is prevalent in this sector (Kelliher & Anderson, 2010). Increased autonomy over working hours can lead to greater intensification and may not contribute to the greater well-being of society (Kvande, 2009). Thus, further research on private sectors may unearth the emergence of work–life programs and can contribute new dimensions to work–life research.

Country or Regional context

The regional context plays an important role in the effectiveness of work–life programs (Ollier-Malaterre, 2009; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004). As national differences represent various social, cultural, political, economic, and environmental conditions, the impact of work–life programs varies accordingly (Dulk, 2001). For instance, in the US and the UK, work–life issues

are a private matter. Therefore, in most cases, employees manage their life domain by themselves (Kammerman & Kahn, 1997). Similarly, in France, employers do not feel obligated to execute a wide range of work–life programs, as they perceive these programs to be a gender issue, although government regulations favor these policies for employees (Ollier-Malaterre, 2009). French employers are less confident about the business case for the work–life programs, which may discourage managers from effectively implementing these programs.

Table 3 indicates that the impact of bundles of work–life programs on financial performance, when investigated in a single-country context (US or UK), reported positive results (Arthur & Cook, 2004; Avgar et al., 2011). However, Bloom et al. (2009) conducted their studies in a multi-country context and reported non-significant effects. The studies conducted in Germany (Giardini & Kabst, 2008) and Spain (Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012a) found non-significant effects. Because of various cultural, political, and comparative backgrounds, employees of German organizations expect more from their employers compared to those from the US or Asia. The German government extensively promotes and subsidizes public childcare facilities (Klammer & Letablier, 2007). This generous government policy creates higher employee expectations, and this may be the possible reason for why work–life programs do not reflect on organizational outcomes in the long run. The national context of Spain is not similar to Germany (Hofstede, 2001). In the Spanish context, employees work long hours and perceive work–life programs as their right from employers rather than as support. Spanish managers are less sensitive to work–life balance of employees and the workplaces have a lack of supportive culture to use work–life programs. These perceptions are reflected in the study by Cegarra-Leiva et al. (2012a) where they investigated 229 manufacturing organizations and found non-significant impact of work–life programs on organizational performance.

Table 6 indicates that all separate programs studies were conducted in developed countries. Hence, future research investigating the impact of particular work–life programs

(e.g. teleworking, part-time, childcare) in other national contexts (e.g. developing economies) will provide invaluable insights. Teleworking is found to have a significant positive impact on organizational outcomes in Spain. Flexible work schedules have a significant positive impact on employee productivity in the US (Edward et al., 1996) and a significant negative impact on employee productivity in South Korea (Lee & Kim, 2010). Based on data from 1,903 organizations of various sizes, in both the private and public sector in South Korea, Lee and Kim (2010) concluded that flexitime was an ineffective method to improve employee productivity. The possible explanation is that the Korean employers mostly run flexible work schedules according to their business needs rather than considering employee preferences (Lee & Kim, 2010). Moreover, the social normative pressure in Korea is not very strong and organizations consider family-friendly programs to be added costs. They argue that, in South Korea, most employers adopt commitment-enhancing human resource management (HRM) practices and use flexible schedules to meet business fluctuations rather than to meet employee needs.

Conclusion

The bundles of work–life programs literature provides evidence for a strong business case. Scholars argue that bundles of programs can address the needs of all employees (Batt & Valcour, 2003; Dex & Scheibl, 2001). Alternatively, separate work–life programs literature provides mixed evidence for most commonly studied programs (teleworking, flexible work-schedule and child/dependent care) and insufficient evidence for other programs. Research design and contextual factors (e.g. design and operationalization, industry, organization size, and country and regional context) have contributed to some inconsistent results pertaining to many organizational outcomes. Our review suggests that a contextual perspective on work–life programs is more plausible than a universalistic perspective (Miles & Snow, 1984; Pfeffer, 1994). Contextual factors are indispensable for the effective implementation and outcome of

any HR practices, since context determines how HR practices are understood among stakeholders (Bondarouk & Brewster, 2016). Work–life programs are surrounded by a social system where multiple stakeholders interact internally and externally, and this might potentially explain the inconsistent results (Beer, 1985; Beer et al., 2015). Along similar lines, Ulrich and Dulebohn (2015) emphasized the influence of contextual factors in adding value to any adopted HR programs (e.g. work–life programs). HR creates value through serving internal and external stakeholders of organizations, including investors, customers and communities, through integrated, aligned and innovative practices.

References

*References marked with an * were included in our review*

- Adame-Sánchez, C., González-Cruz, T. F., & Martínez-Fuentes, C. (2016). Do firms implement work–life balance policies to benefit their workers or themselves? *Journal of Business Research*, *69*, 5519-5523.
- Ali, M., Kulik, C. T., & Metz, I. (2011). The gender diversity–performance relationship in services and manufacturing organizations. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *22*, 1464-1485.
- Allen, T. D., Herst, D. E. L., Bruck, C. S., & Sutton, M. (2000). Consequences associated with work to-family conflict: A review and agenda for future research. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *5*, 278–308.
- App, S., Merk, J., & Büttgen, M. (2012). Employer branding: Sustainable HRM as a competitive advantage in the market for high-quality employees. *Management revue*, 262-278.
- Arthur, J. B. (1992). The link between business strategy and industrial relations systems in American steel minimills. *ILR Review*, *45*, 488-506.
- *Arthur, M. M., & Cook, A. (2004). Taking stock of work-family initiatives: How announcements of “family-friendly” human resource decisions affect shareholder value. *Industrial & Labor Relations Review*, *57*, 599-613.
- *Avgar, A. C., Givan, R. K., & Liu, M. (2011). A balancing act: Work–life balance and multiple stakeholder outcomes in hospitals. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, *49*, 717-741.
- Aziz, S., & Cunningham, J. (2008). Workaholism, work stress, work-life imbalance: exploring gender's role. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, *23*(8), 553-566.
- *Bae, K. B., & Goodman, D. (2014). The influence of family-friendly policies on turnover and performance in South Korea. *Public Personnel Management*, *43*, 520-542.
- Barney, J.B., & Wright, P.M. (1998). On becoming a strategic partner: The role of human resources in gaining competitive advantage. *Human Resource Management*, *37*, 31-46.
- *Baughman, R., DiNardi, D., & Holtz-Eakin, D. (2003). Productivity and wage effects of “family-friendly” fringe benefits. *International Journal of Manpower*, *24*, 247-259.

- Beauregard, T. A., & Henry, L. C. (2009). Making the link between work–life balance practices and organizational performance. *Human Resource Management Review, 19*(1), 9-22.
- Becker, B. E., Huselid, M. A., Pickus, P.S., & Spratti, M.F. (1997). HR as a source of shareholder value: Research and recommendations. *Human Resource Management, 36*, 39-47.
- Been, W. M., den Dulk, L., & van der Lippe, T. (2016). Dutch top managers and work-life arrangements in times of economic crisis. *Community, Work & Family, 19*, 43-62.
- Beer, M. (1985). *Human resource management: A general manager's perspective: Text and cases* (Vol. 1). Free Press.
- Beer, M., Boselie, P., & Brewster, C. (2015). Back to the future: Implications for the field of HRM of the multistakeholder perspective proposed 30 years ago. *Human Resource Management, 54*, 427-438.
- *Bloom, N., Kretschmer, T., & Van Reenan, J. (2009). Work–life balance, management practices and productivity. In R. B. Freeman & K. L. Shaw (eds.), *International differences in the business practices and productivity of firms* (pp. 15-54). University of Chicago Press. Cambridge. Massachusetts.
- *Bloom, N., Kretschmer, T., & Van Reenen, J. (2011). Are family- friendly workplace practices a valuable firm resource? *Strategic Management Journal, 32*, 343-367.
- Bondarouk, T., & Brewster, C. (2016). Conceptualising the future of HRM and technology research. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 27*, 2652-2671.
- Bowen, D. E., & Ostroff, C. (2004). Understanding HRM–firm performance linkages: The role of the “strength” of the HRM system. *Academy of Management Review, 29*, 203-221.
- Bourhis, A., & Mekkaoui, R. (2010). Beyond work-family balance: Are family-friendly organizations more attractive? *Relations industrielles/industrial relations, 65*(1), 98-117.
- Brewster, C., Mayne, L., & Tregaskis, O. (1997). Flexible working in Europe: A review of the evidence. *MIR: Management International Review, 37*, 85-103.
- Cahill, K. E., McNamara, T. K., Pitt-Catsoupes, M., & Valcour, M. (2015). Linking shifts in the national economy with changes in job satisfaction, employee engagement and work–life balance. *Journal of Behavioral and Experimental Economics, 56*, 40-54.
- *Caillier, J. G. (2016). Does satisfaction with family-friendly programs reduce turnover? A panel study conducted in US federal agencies. *Public Personnel Management, 45*, 284-307.

- Castellacci, F. (2008). Technological paradigms, regimes and trajectories: Manufacturing and service industries in a new taxonomy of sectoral patterns of innovation. *Research Policy*, *37*, 978-994.
- *Cegarra-Leiva, D., Sánchez-Vidal M. E., & Cegarra-Navarro, J. G. (2012a). Understanding the link between work life balance practices and organisational outcomes in SMEs: The mediating effect of a supportive culture. *Personnel Review*, *41*, 359-379.
- *Cegarra-Leiva, D., Sánchez-Vidal, M. E., & Cegarra-Navarro, J. G. (2012b). Work life balance and the retention of managers in Spanish SMEs. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *23*, 91-108.
- Chu C-M., & Chen, D- H. (2007). Performance appraisal systems in service and manufacturing industries: Evidence from Taiwan. *International Journal of Management*, *24*, 512.
- *Clifton, T. J., & Shepard, E. (2004). Work and family programs and productivity: Estimates applying a production function model. *International Journal of Manpower*, *25*, 714-728.
- Darcy, C., McCarthy, A., Hill, J., & Grady, G. (2012). Work–life balance: One size fits all? An exploratory analysis of the differential effects of career stage. *European Management Journal*, *30*(2), 111-120.
- Datta, D. K., Guthrie, J. P., & Wright, P. M. (2005). Human resource management and labor productivity: Does industry matter? *Academy of Management Journal*, *48*(1), 135-145.
- De Menezes, L. M., & Kelliher, C. (2011). Flexible working and performance: A systematic review of the evidence for a business case. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, *13*, 452-474.
- de Sivatte, I., Gordon, J. R., Rojo, P., & Olmos, R. (2015). The impact of work–life culture on organizational productivity. *Personnel Review*, *44*, 883-905.
- den Dulk, L. (2001). *Work-family arrangements in organisations: A cross-national study in the Netherlands, Italy, the United Kingdom and Sweden*. Rotterdam: Erasmus University.
- Denyer, D., & Tranfield, D. (2009). Producing a systematic review. In D. A. Buchanan & A. Bryman (eds.), *The Sage Handbook of Organizational Research Methods* (pp. 671-689). Sage Publications.
- Dex, S., & Scheibl, F. (2000). Business performance and family-friendly policies. *Journal of General Management*, *25*(4), 22-37.

- Dex, S., Smith, C., & Winter, S. (2001). Effects of family-friendly policies on business performance. Research Papers in Management Studies-University of Cambridge Judge Institute of Management Studies WP.
- Dhakal, S. P., Connell, J., & Burgess, J. (2018). Inclusion and work: Addressing the global challenges for youth employment. *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal*, 37(2), 110-120.
- *Durst, S. L. (1999). Assessing the effect of family friendly programs on public organizations. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 19(3), 19-33.
- *Edward III, M. S., Clifton, T. J., & Kruse, D. (1996). Flexible work hours and productivity: Some evidence from the pharmaceutical industry. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society*, 35(1), 123-139.
- Emslie, C., & Hunt, K. (2009). “Live to work” or “work to live”? A qualitative study of gender and work–life balance among men and women in mid- life. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 16(1), 151-172.
- Friedman, D. E. (2001). Employer supports for parents with young children. *The Future of Children*, 11(1), 62-77.
- Gambles, R., Lewis, S., & Rapoport, R. (2006). *The myth of work–life balance: The challenge of our time for men, women and societies*. John Wiley & Sons. England.
- Giancola, F. L. (2011). Can the work–life movement regain its balance? *Compensation & Benefits Review*, 43(5), 291-299.
- *Giardini, A., & Kabst, R. (2008). Effects of work-family human resource practices: A longitudinal perspective. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19: 2079-2094.
- Glass, J. L., & Finley, A. (2002). Coverage and effectiveness of family-responsive workplace policies. *Human Resource Management Review*, 12, 313-337.
- Goodstein, J. D. (1994). Institutional pressures and strategic responsiveness: Employer involvement in work-family issues. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37, 350-382.
- Gray, C., & Mabey, C. (2005). Management development key differences between small and large businesses in Europe. *International Small Business Journal*, 23, 467-485.
- Hitt, M. A., Gimeno, J., & Hoskisson, R. E. (1998). Current and future research methods in strategic management. *Organizational Research Methods*, 1(1), 6-44.
- Huselid, M. A. (1995). The impact of human resource management practices on turnover, productivity, and corporate financial performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 635-672.

- Ierodiakonou, C., & Stavrou, E. (2015). Part time work, productivity and institutional policies. *Journal of Organizational Effectiveness: People and Performance*, 2(2), 176-200.
- Ingram, P., & Simons, T. (1995). Institutional and resource dependence determinants of responsiveness to work-family issues. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 1466-1482.
- Kammerman, S. B., & Kahn, A. J. (1997). *Family change and family policies in Great Britain, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States*. Oxford University Press. New York, USA.
- Kelliher, C., & Anderson, D. (2010). Doing more with less? Flexible working practices and the intensification of work. *Human Relations*, 63(1), 83-106.
- Kelly, E. L., Kossek, E. E., Hammer, L. B., Durham, M., Bray, J., Chermack, K. ... Kaskubar, D. (2008). 7 Getting there from here: Research on the effects of work-family initiatives on work-family conflict and business outcomes. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 2, 305-349.
- Khan, K. S., Ter Riet, G., Glanville, J., Sowden, A. J., & Kleijnen, J. (2001). *Undertaking systematic reviews of research on effectiveness: CRD's guidance for carrying out or commissioning reviews*. NHS Centre for Reviews and Dissemination.
- Klammer, U., & Letablier, M. T. (2007). Family policies in Germany and France: The role of enterprises and social partners. *Social Policy & Administration*, 41, 672-692.
- Kochan, T., Bezrukova, K., Ely, R., Jackson, S., Joshi, A., Jehn, K., et al. (2003). The effects of diversity on business performance: Report of the diversity research network. *Human Resource Management*, 42, 3-21.
- *Konrad, A. M., & Mangel, R. (2000). The impact of work-life programs on firm productivity. *Strategic Management Journal*, 21, 1225-1237.
- Kossek, E. E., Baltes, B. B., & Matthews, R. A. (2011). How work-family research can finally have an impact in organizations. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 4, 352-369.
- Kossek, E., Lewis, S., & Hammer, L. B. (2010). Work-life initiatives and organizational change: Overcoming mixed messages to move from the margin to the mainstream. *Human Relations*, 63(1), 3-19.
- Kossek, E. E., & Ozeki, C. (1998). Work-family conflict, policies and the job-life satisfaction relationship: A review and direction for organizational behavior-human resources research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, 139-149.

- Kossek, E. E., & Ozeki, C. (1999). Bridging the work-family policy and productivity gap: A literature review. *Community, Work & Family*, 2(1), 7-32.
- Kvande, E. (2009). Work-life balance for fathers in globalized knowledge work. Some insights from the Norwegian context. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 16, 58-72.
- *Lee, B.-H., & Kim, J.-S. (2010). Is family-friendly management good for firms? The diffusion and performance of family-friendly workplaces in South Korea. *Journal of Industrial Relations*, 52, 459-475.
- *Lee, S.-Y., & Hong, J. H. (2011). Does family-friendly policy matter? Testing its impact on turnover and performance. *Public Administration Review*, 71, 870-879.
- Lewis, S., & Humbert, L. (2010). Discourse or reality? "Work-life balance", flexible working policies and the gendered organization. *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal*, 29(3), 239-254.
- Lingard, H., Turner, M., & Charlesworth, S. (2015). Growing pains: Work-life impacts in small-to-medium sized construction firms. *Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management*, 22,312-326.
- *Liu, N.-C., & Wang, C.-Y. (2011). Searching for a balance: Work-family practices, work-team design, and organizational performance. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22, 2071-2085.
- Love, L. F., & Singh, P. (2011). Workplace branding: Leveraging human resources management practices for competitive advantage through "Best Employer" surveys. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 26(2), 175-181.
- MacDuffie, J. P. (1995). Human resource bundles and manufacturing performance: Organizational logic and flexible production systems in the world auto industry. *ILR Review*, 48, 197-221.
- *Martinez-Sánchez, A., Pérez-Pérez, M., Vela-Jiménez, M., & de-Luis-Carnicer, P. (2008). Telework adoption, change management and firm performance. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 21(1), 7-31.
- *Martínez- Sánchez, A., Pérez- Pérez, M., De- Luis- Carnicer, P., & Vela- Jiménez, M. J. (2007). Telework, human resource flexibility and firm performance. *New Technology, Work and Employment*, 22, 208-223.
- *Martínez Sánchez, A., Pérez, M., de Luis Carnicer, P., & José Vela Jiménez, M. (2007). Teleworking and workplace flexibility: A study of impact on firm performance. *Personnel Review*, 36(1), 42-64.

- *Maxwell, G., Rankine, L., Bell, S., & MacVicar, A. (2007). The incidence and impact of flexible working arrangements in smaller businesses. *Employee Relations*, 29(2), 138-161.
- Maxwell, G. A., & McDougall, M. (2004). Work–life balance: Exploring the connections between levels of influence in the UK public sector. *Public Management Review*, 6, 377-393.
- Menard, S. (1991). *Sage University paper series on quantitative applications in the social sciences, Longitudinal research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- *Meyer, C. S., Mukerjee, S., & Sestero, A. (2001). Work-family benefits: Which ones maximize profits? *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 13, 28-44.
- Miles, R. E., & Snow, C. C. (1984). Designing strategic human resources systems. *Organizational Dynamics*, 13(1), 36-52.
- Miles, I. (2007). Research and development (R&D) beyond manufacturing: The strange case of services R&D. *Research & Development Management*, 37, 249–268.
- Morgan, H., & Milliken, F. J. (1992). Keys to action: Understanding differences in organizations' responsiveness to work- and- family issues. *Human Resource Management*, 31, 227-248.
- Morris, B., & Johnston, R. (1987). Dealing with inherent variability: The difference between manufacturing and service? *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, 7(4), 13-22.
- Naithani, P. (2010). Overview of work–life balance discourse and its relevance in current economic scenario. *Asian Social Science*, 6(6), 148-155.
- Neal, M. B., & Hammer, L. B. (2007). *Working couples caring for children and aging parents: Effects on work and well-being*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- *Ngo, H. y., Foley, S., & Loi, R. (2009). Family friendly work practices, organizational climate, and firm performance: A study of multinational corporations in Hong Kong. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30, 665-680.
- Ollier-Malaterre, A. (2009). Organizational work–life initiatives: Context matters: France compared to the UK and the US. *Community, Work & Family*, 12(2), 159-178.
- Osterman, P. (1995). Work/family programs and the employment relationship. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 40, 681-700.
- Özbilgin, M. F., Beaugard, T. A., Tatli A., & Bell, M. P. (2011). Work–life, diversity and intersectionality: A critical review and research agenda. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 13(2), 177-198.

- *Perry-Smith, J. E., & Blum, T. C. (2000). Work-family human resource bundles and perceived organizational performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43, 1107-1117.
- Pfeffer, J. (1994). *Competitive advantage through people: Unleashing the power of the work force*. Harvard Business Press. Boston, Massachusetts
- Poelmans, S., & Sahibzada, K. (2004). A multi-level model for studying the context and impact of work-family policies and culture in organizations. *Human Resource Management Review*, 14(4), 409-431.
- Poelmans, S. A., Chinchilla, N., & Cardona, P. (2003). The adoption of family-friendly HRM policies: Competing for scarce resources in the labour market. *International Journal of Manpower*, 24(2), 128-147.
- Ponzellini, A. M. (2006). Work-life balance and industrial relations in Italy. *European Societies*, 8(2), 273-294.
- Prajogo, D. I. (2006). The relationship between innovation and business performance—a comparative study between manufacturing and service firms. *Knowledge Process Management*, 13, 218–225.
- Quinn, J. B. (1999). Strategic outsourcing: Leveraging knowledge capabilities. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 40(4), 9.
- Rosenzweig, P. M., & Nohria, N. (1994). Influences on human resource management practices in multinational corporations. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 25(2), 229-251.
- Rousseau, D. (1995). *Psychological contracts in organizations: Understanding written and unwritten agreements*. Sage Publications. UK. USA.
- *Sands, J., & Harper, T. (2007). Family-friendly benefits and organizational performance. *Business Renaissance Quarterly*, 2(1), 107.
- Scheibl, F., & Dex, S. (1998). Should we have more family-friendly policies? *European Management Journal*, 16, 586-599.
- Schlechter, A., Thompson, N. C., & Bussin, M. (2015). Attractiveness of non-financial rewards for prospective knowledge workers: An experimental investigation. *Employee Relations*, 37(3), 274-295.
- *Selden, S. C., & Moynihan, D. P. (2000). A model of voluntary turnover in state government. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 20(2), 63-74.
- Sengupta, K., Heiser, D.R., & Cook, L.S. (2006). Manufacturing and service supply chain performance: A comparative analysis. *Journal of Supply Chain Management*, 42, 4–15.

- Sharabi, M. (2017). Work, family and other life domains centrality among managers and workers according to gender. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 44(10), 1307-1321.
- *Shepard, E. M., Clifton, T. J., & Kruse, D. (1996). Flexible work hours and productivity: Some evidence from the pharmaceutical industry. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society*, 35, 123-139.
- Snell, S. A., & Dean, J. W. (1992). Integrated manufacturing and human resource management: A human capital perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 35, 467-504.
- *Stavrou, E., & Kilaniotis, C. (2010). Flexible work and turnover: An empirical investigation across cultures. *British Journal of Management*, 21, 541-554.
- *Stavrou, E. T. (2005). Flexible work bundles and organizational competitiveness: A cross-national study of the European work context. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 923-947.
- Sutcliffe, J. E., & Dhakal, S. P. (2018). Youth unemployment amidst aged care workers shortages in Australia: Why care about the millennials? *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal*, 37, 110-120.
- Tranfield, D. R., Denyer, D., & Smart, P. (2003). Towards a methodology for developing evidence-informed management knowledge by means of systematic review. *British Journal of Management*, 14, 207-222.
- Ulrich, D., & Dulebohn, J. H. (2015). Are we there yet? What's next for HR? *Human Resource Management Review*, 25(2), 188-204.
- Van Biema, M., & Greenwald, B. (1996). Managing our way to higher service-sector productivity. *Harvard Business Review*, 75(4), 87-95.
- Walton, R.A. (1985). From control to commitment in the workplace. *Harvard Business Review*, 63, 77-84.
- Wang, C. L., & Chugh, H. (2014). Entrepreneurial learning: Past research and future challenges. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 16(1), 24-61.
- Wang, J., & Verma, A. (2012). Explaining organizational responsiveness to work- life balance issues: The role of business strategy and high- performance work systems. *Human Resource Management*, 51, 407-432.
- *Wise, S., & Bond, S. (2003). Work-life policy: does it do exactly what it says on the tin? *Women in Management Review*, 18, 20-31.

- *Wood, S. J., & de Menezes, L. M. (2010). Family-friendly management, organizational performance and social legitimacy. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21, 1575-1597.
- Wright, P. M., Gardner, T. M., Moynihan, L. M., & Allen, M. R. (2005). The relationship between HR practices and firm performance: Examining causal order. *Personnel Psychology*, 58, 409-446.
- Wright, P. M., McMahan, G. C., & McWilliams, A. (1994). Human resources and sustained competitive advantage: A resource-based perspective. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 5, 301-326.
- *Yamamoto, I., & Matsuura, T. (2014). Effect of work–life balance practices on firm productivity: Evidence from Japanese firm-level panel data. *The BE Journal of Economic Analysis & Policy*, 4, 1677-1708.
- *Yanadori, Y., & Kato, T. (2009). Work and family practices in Japanese firms: Their scope, nature and impact on employee turnover. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20, 439-456.

Table 1 Keywords used in the systematic review

Search sets	Keywords
A. Work life programs	Work life or work–life or work/life programs or policies or practices; Work family or work-family or work/family programs or policies or practices; Family friendly or family-friendly or life friendly programs or policies or practices; family-friendly management; Work life balance programs; Work life enrichment programs; Flexible working; Flexibility; Flexible work arrangements; Telework; Compressed work week; Job sharing; Child care (on-site and off-site); Paid and unpaid maternal leave; Elder-care referrals; Parental leave
B. Organizational outcomes	Organizational performance or organizational performance; Financial performance; Profits; Productivity; Recruitment; Retention or turnover; Reputation; Corporate reputation

Table 2 Summary of journals

Journal Title	Article Count	Publication year(s)	Percentage	Journal Ranking
The International Journal of Human Resource Management	5	2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2012	15.6%	Q2
Strategic Management Journal	2	2000, 2011	6.24%	Q1
Personnel Review	2	2007, 2012	6.24%	Q2
Journal of Organizational Behavior	2	2005, 2009	6.24%	Q1
International Journal of Manpower	2	2003, 2004	6.24%	Q3
Women in Management Review	1	2003	3.12%	Q1
The B.E. Journal of Economic Analysis & Policy	1	2014	3.12%	Q2
Review of Public Personnel Administration	2	1999, 2000	6.24%	Q1
Public Personnel Management	2	2014, 2016	6.24%	Q3
Public Administration Review	1	2011	3.12%	Q1
New Technology, Work and Employment	1	2007	3.12%	Q1
Journal of Organizational Change Management	1	2008	3.12%	Q2
Journal of Managerial Issues	1	2001	3.12%	Q2
Journal of Industrial Relations	1	2010	3.12%	Q3
International Differences in the Business Practices and Productivity of Firms	1	2009	3.12%	Q1
Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society	1	1996	3.12%	Q1
Industrial and Labor Relations Review	1	2004	3.12%	Q1
Employee Relations	1	2007	3.12%	Q2
Business Renaissance Quarterly	1	2007	3.12%	Q2
British Journal of Management	1	2010	3.12%	Q1
British Journal of Industrial Relations	1	2011	3.12%	Q1
Academy of Management Journal	1	2000	3.12%	Q1
Total	32		100%	

Table 3 Attributes of bundle studies

Study	Bundle size	Design	Industry	Org size	Country	Performance measure	Findings
1 Arthur and Cook (2004)	Announcements	P	AI	L	USA	FP	+
2 Avgar et al. (2011)	13	T	S	VS	UK	FP	+
3 Bae and Goodman (2014)	17	P	AI	VS	South Korea	OM	+
4 Bloom et al. (2011)	5	C	M	MD	USA, UK, France, Germany	EP	n.s.
5 Bloom et al. (2009)	5	C	M	MD	USA, UK, France, Germany	EP	n.s.
6 Bond and Wise (2003)	6	C	S	L	Scotland	R, RT	+
7 Cegarra-Leiva et al. (2012b)	18	C	M	SM, MD	Spain	RT	+
8 Cegarra-Leiva et al. (2012a)	15	C	M	SM, MD	Spain	PP	n.s.
9 Clifton and Shepard (2004)	5	C	AI	L	USA	EP	+
10 Durst (1999)	9	C	AI	L	USA	PP	+
11 Giardini and Kabst (2008)	11	T	M, S	L	Germany	RA	+
12 Konrad and Mangel (2000)	19	C	AI	L	USA	PP	n.s.
13 Liu and Wang (2011)	5	T	M, S	L	Taiwan	EP	+
14 Maxwell et al. (2007)	12	C	AI	SM, MD	Scotland	R, RT	+
15 Ngo et al. (2009)	7	C	AI	L	Hong Kong	OM	+
16 Perry-Smith and Blum (2000)	8	C	AI	VS	USA	PP	+
17 Wood and de Menezes (2010)	9	C	AI	VS	UK	RT	+
18 Yamamoto and Matsuura (2014)	7	P	AI	VS	Japan	FP	n.s.
19 Yanadori & Kato (2009)	4	T	AI	VS	Japan	EP	n.s.
						RT	+

Notes. P=panel, T=time-lag, C=cross-sectional, AI=across industries, S=service, M=manufacturing, L=large, VS=various sizes, MD=medium, SM=small, FP=financial performance, OM=other measures, EP=employee productivity, R=recruitment, RT=retention, PP=perceived performance, RA=reduced absenteeism

Table 4 Impact of bundles of work–life programs on outcomes

Organizational outcomes	Counts	Positive	Negative	Non-significant
Employee productivity	6	3	0	3
Perceived firm performance	5	3	0	2
Retention	6	5	0	1
Financial performance	3	2	0	1
Recruitment	2	2	0	0
Reduced absenteeism	1	1	0	0
Others (patient care quality, employee relations, motivation, commitment and social legitimacy)	3	2	0	1
Total	26*	18	0	8

*Total exceeds 19 as many studies included multiple measures

Table 5 Attributes of separate program studies

Reference	Design	Ind.	Org size	Country	Work-life Program	Performance measure and findings	
1	Baughman et al. (2003)	C	AI	L	USA	FL CD FS PL, CW, FS, JS, CD, FA FS, CD, EA	RT (+), OM (-) RT (+), OM (-) OM (-) RT & OM (n. s.) RT (+)
2	Caillier (2016)	P	AI	L	USA		
3	Lee and Hong (2011)	T	AI	L	USA	CD FS TW PL	FP (+), RT (+) FP (+), RT (n. s.) FP (n. s.), RT (n. s.) RT (n. s.)
4	Lee and Kim (2010)	P	AI	VS	South Korea	CD FS	EP (+), OM (+), RT (+) OM (+), EP (-)
5	Martinez-Sánchez et al. (2007)	C	M, S	L	Spain	TW	PP (+)
6	Martinez-Sánchez et al. (2007)	C	AI	SM, MD	Spain	TW	PP (+)
7	Martinez-Sánchez et al. (2008)	C	M, S	L	Spain	TW	PP(+)
8	Meyer et al. (2001)	T	AI	VS	USA	SL, TW CD, JS FS, CW, PT, PL, AA	FP (+) FP (-) FP (n. s.)
9	Sands and Harper (2007)	C	AI	L	USA	TW JS, CW, FS	FP (+) FP (n. s.)
10	Selden and Moynihan (2000)	C	AI	L	USA	CD	RT (+)
11	Shephard et al. (1996)	P	M	L	USA	FS	EP (+)
12	Stavrou (2005)	C	AI	VS	EU countries	TW NH, WO NP	PP (+), RA (+) RT (-) RT (+)
13	Stavrou and Kilaniotis (2010)	C	AI	VS	UK, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, USA, Finland, Sweden, Norway, Denmark	OT, SW, WW, PT, JS TW, FS	RT (-) RT (+)

Notes. C=cross-sectional, P=panel, T=time-lag, AI=across industries, M=manufacturing, S=service, L=large, VS=various sizes, SM=small, MD=medium, FL=flexible sick leave, CD=child or dependent care, FS=Flexible schedule/flexible work schedule/flexible timing/alternative work schedule, PL=parental leave, unpaid parental leave, additional maternity leave, CW=compressed work week, JS=job sharing, FA=flexible savings account, EA=employee assistance program, TW=teleworking/work from home, SL=sick leave, PT=part-time, AA=adoption assistance, NH= non-standard work hour, WO=work outsourcing, NP=non-standard work pattern, OT=overtime, SW=shift work, WW=weekend work, RT=retention, OM=other measures, FP=financial performance, EP=employee productivity, PP=perceived performance, RA=reduced absenteeism

Table 6 Separate program and outcomes

WLP		Performance measure and findings		
		Positive (counts)	Negative (counts)	Non-Significant (counts)
1	TW	9: FP (2), PP (4), RT(2), RA (1)		2: FP(1), RT(1)
2	FS	5: FP (1), EP (1), RT(2), OM (1)	2: EP(1), OM(1)	5: FP (2), RT (2), OM (1)
3	CD	8: FP(1), EP(1), OM (1), RT(5)	2: FP(1), OM (1)	2: RT(1), OM (1)
4	CW			4: FP(2), RT (1), OM(1)
5	FL	1: RT(1)	1: OM(1)	
6	PL			6: FP(1), RT (3), OM(2)
7	JS		2: FP(1), RT(1),	3: FP(1), RT(1), OM(1)
8	FA			2: RT(1), OM(1)
9	EA	1: RT(1)		
10	SL	1: FP(1)		
11	PT		1: RT(1)	1: FP(1)
12	AA			1: FP(1)
13	WO		1: RT(1)	
14	NH		1: RT(1)	
15	NP	1: RT(1)		
16	OT		1: RT(1)	
17	SW		1: RT(1)	
18	WW		1: RT(1)	
	Total	26*	13	26*

*Total exceeds 13 as many studies included multiple measures

Notes. TW=teleworking/work from home, FS=Flexible schedule/flexible work schedule/flexible timing/alternative work schedule/non-standard work hour/non-standard work pattern, CD=child or dependent care, CW=compressed work week, FL=flexible sick leave, PL=parental leave, unpaid parental leave, additional maternity leave, JS=job sharing, FA=flexible savings account, EA=employee assistance program, SL=sick leave, PT=part-time, AA=adoption assistance, WO=work outsourcing, NH=non-standard work hour, NP=non-standard work pattern, OT=overtime, SW=shift work, WW=weekend work, FP=financial performance, PP=perceived performance, RT=retention, RA=reduced absenteeism, EP=employee productivity, OM=other measures

Figure 1. Systematic literature review summary.

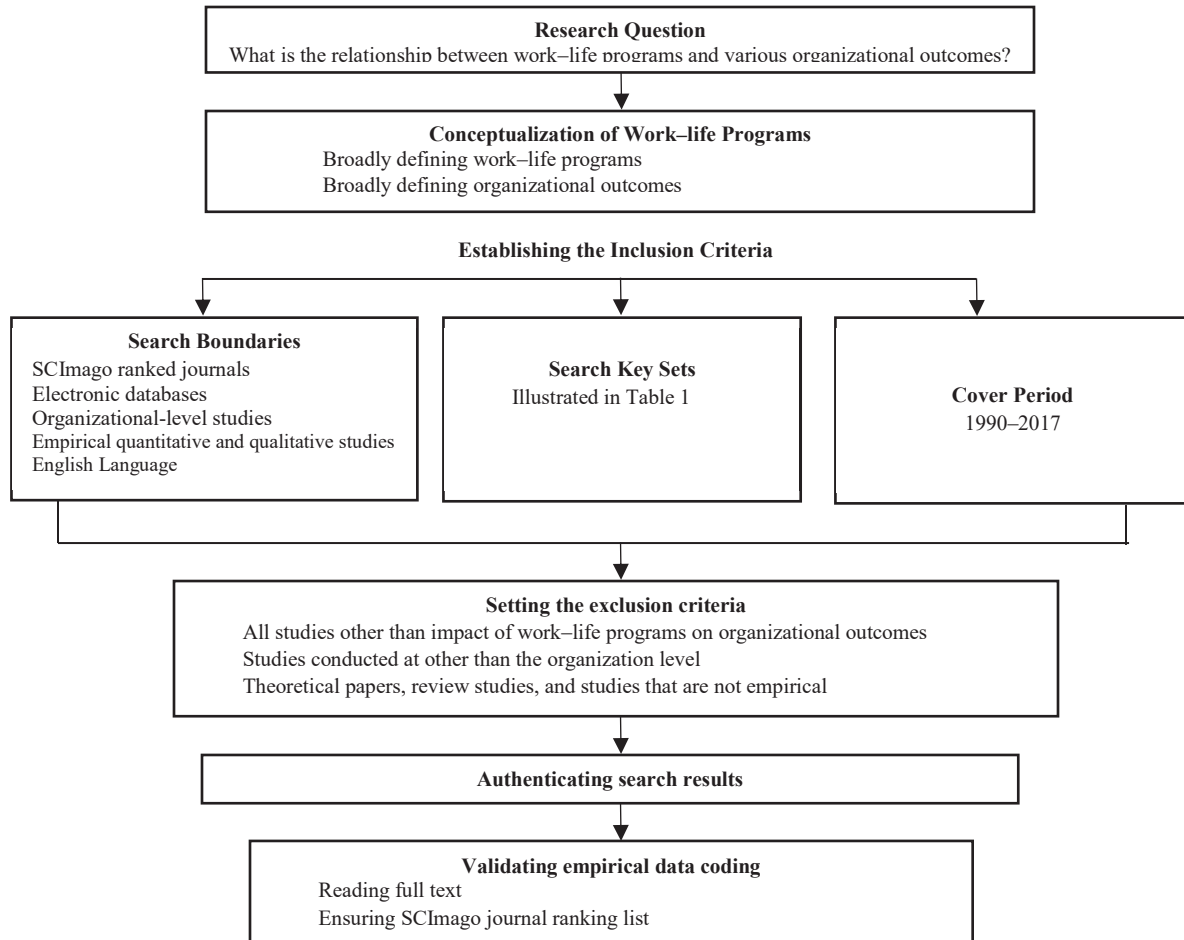


Figure 2. Search strategy framework.

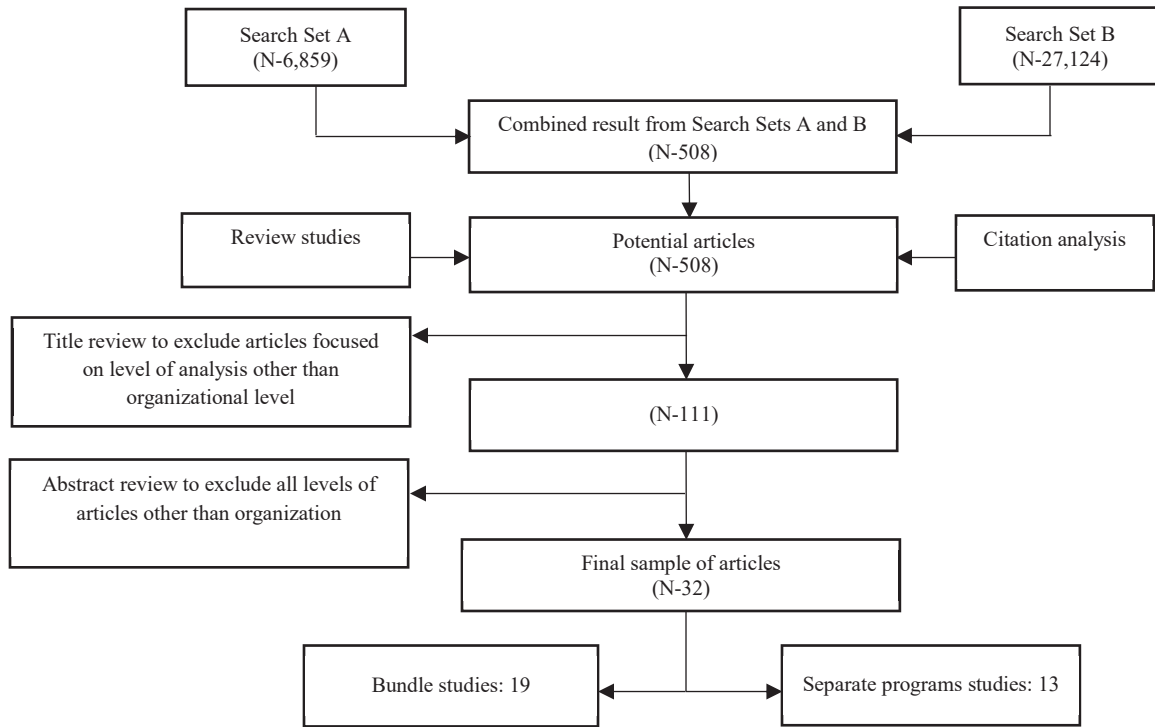


Figure 3. Factors affecting work–life programs–organizational outcomes relationship.

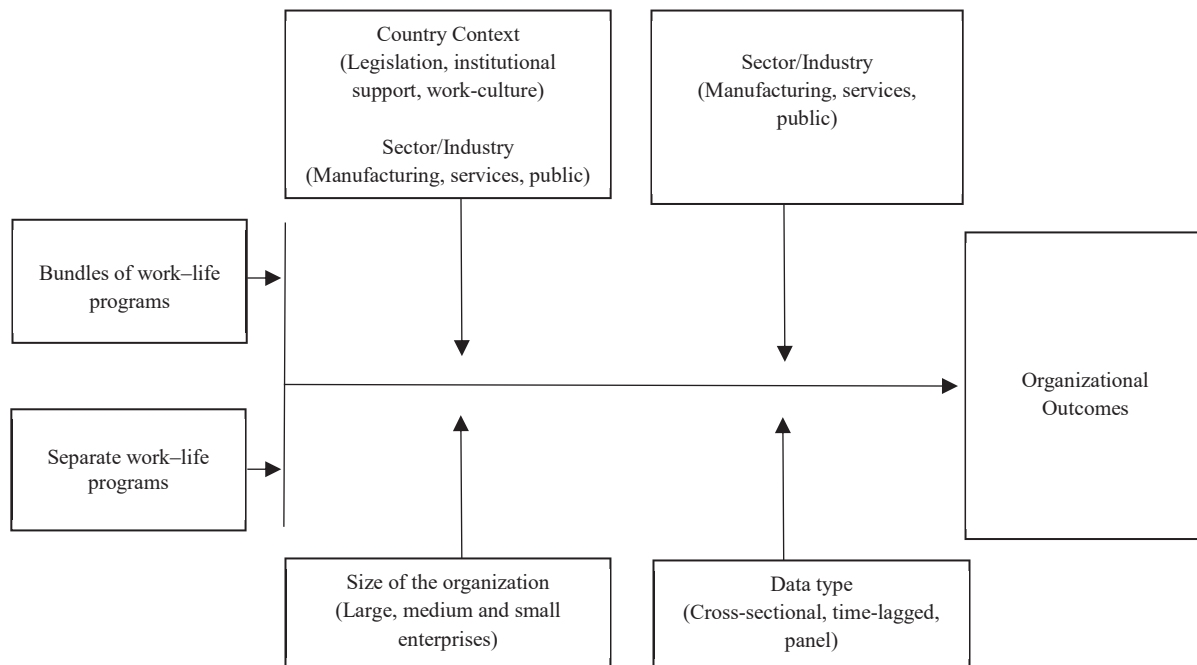


Figure captions

Figure 1. Systematic literature review summary.

Figure 2. Search strategy framework.

Figure 3. Factors affecting work–life programs–organizational outcomes relationship.

Chapter 5

Paper Accepted for Publication

Work–life programs and organisational outcomes: The role of the human resource system

This chapter presents the second manuscript in the series of three. The manuscript is titled: *Work–life programs and outcomes in Australian organisations: the role of the human resource system*. Section 5.1 presents the details of the journal. The manuscript was submitted to the Personnel Review Journal in August, 2018. This paper went through a double-blind peer review process. Associate editor of the journal and two reviewers provided comments and this paper was revised accordingly. The paper was accepted for publication on July 09, 2019 and is in press now. Moreover, this manuscript was also presented at the 32nd Australian & New Zealand Academy of Management (ANZAM) conference held in New Zealand, Massey University, New Zealand on 4-7 December 2018.

5.1 DETAILS OF SELECTED JOURNAL

Journal: Personnel Review

Publisher: Emerald insight

Scimago Journal Ranking: Organisational Behaviour and Human Resource Management:
Quartile 2



Statement of Contribution of Co-Authors for Thesis by Published Paper

The following is the suggested format for the required declaration provided at the start of any thesis chapter which includes a co-authored publication.

The authors listed below have certified that:

1. they meet the criteria for authorship in that they have participated in the conception, execution, or interpretation, of at least that part of the publication in their field of expertise;
2. they take public responsibility for their part of the publication, except for the responsible author who accepts overall responsibility for the publication;
3. there are no other authors of the publication according to these criteria;
4. potential conflicts of interest have been disclosed to (a) granting bodies, (b) the editor or publisher of journals or other publications, and (c) the head of the responsible academic unit, and
5. they agree to the use of the publication in the student's thesis and its publication on the [QUT's ePrints site](#) consistent with any limitations set by publisher requirements.

In the case of this chapter:

Title: Work–life programs and performance in Australian Organizations: The role of human resource system.

Publication Journal: Personnel Review Journal (Revised and resubmitted)

Contributor	Statement of contribution*
Kohinur Akter	Study design, data collection and analysis, interpretation of findings, preparation of manuscript.
Signature: kohinur	
27/06/2019	
Dr. Muhammad Ali	Help with data analysis and contribution to manuscript
Associate Prof. Artemis Chang	Conceptual framing of the paper and contribution to manuscript

Principal Supervisor Confirmation

I have sighted email or other correspondence from all Co-authors confirming their certifying authorship.
 (If the Co-authors are not able to sign the form please forward their email or other correspondence confirming the certifying authorship to the RSC.)

Dr Muhammad Ali
Name

QUT Verified Signature
Signature

June 27, 2019
Date

5.2 SUBMITTED MANUSCRIPT

Work–life programs and outcomes: The role of the human resource system

Abstract

Purpose – Empirical findings on the link between work–life programs and organisational performance have been inconsistent, demanding further investigation of contextual factors.

Design/methodology/approach – This study uses social exchange theory, strategic human resource management theory and stakeholder theory to examine the relationship between work–life programs and organisational outcomes, using three performance measures: perceived organisational performance, financial performance and corporate social responsibility. It also investigates the moderating effect of human resource systems on the work–life programs–performance relationship. The hypotheses were tested in 192 organisations in Australia, using data from a human resource manager survey and archival databases.

Findings – The findings support the hypotheses that work–life programs are positively associated with all three measures of performance. The results partially support the moderating effect of human resource systems on the relationship between work–life programs and perceived organisational performance.

Originality/value – This study provides pioneering evidence for the moderating effect of HR system on the work–life program–performance relationship. It also includes the rarely studied corporate social responsibility as an outcome of work–life programs.

Keywords – Work–life programs, perceived organisational performance, corporate social responsibility, financial performance, human resource system

Paper type – Research paper

Introduction

Work–life programs have been attracting attention from researchers, practitioners, government, business leaders, employers, employees, community and the media for the last few decades (Nord *et al.*, 2002; Pocock and Pocock, 2001). Participation of large numbers of women in the workplace, demographic changes, changes in household patterns, long working hours (intensification of work), the rise of the service sector, globalisation, immigration opportunities, transformation of society and a shortage of qualified labour have contributed to the importance of work–life programs (Forsyth and Polzer-Debruyne, 2007; Pocock, 2005; Straub, 2012). Taking these contributing factors into consideration, employers have implemented numerous work–life programs (e.g. flexitime, childcare centres, job sharing, part-time arrangements, maternity and other leave arrangements). Two recessions in the 2000s have compelled organisations to curtail work–life programs to reduce the cost of business (Been *et al.*, 2015; Burke, 2010; Naithani, 2010). As a result, work–life programs are being marginalised in the organisational system (Kelly *et al.*, 2008; Kossek *et al.*, 2011). Stronger and more comprehensive research evidence might help restore commitment to these programs.

Based on various theoretical foundations, several studies have been conducted on the relationship between work–life programs and organisational performance, such as productivity levels, financial performance, profits, shareholder returns, turnover and retention (e.g., Ali *et al.*, 2014; Avgar *et al.*, 2011; Blazovich *et al.*, 2013; Bloom *et al.*, 2011; Cegarra-Leiva *et al.*, 2012; Clifton and Shepard, 2004; Dex *et al.*, 2001; Konrad and Mangel, 2000; Kossek *et al.*, 2011; Wood and de Menezes, 2010). However, many studies have found inconsistent evidence of the impact of work–life programs on firm performance (Bloom *et al.*, 2011; Sands and Harper, 2007; Yamamoto and Matsuura, 2014). Since the outcomes of work–life programs are mixed and inconclusive, a strong organisational business case for these programs has not yet been established. Although employers find business cases very convincing and powerful (Kossek and Lambert, 2004), the social case of work–life programs is also noteworthy to practitioners, academics and various stakeholders (Lewis *et al.*, 2007). Despite this, however, there is a dearth of research addressing the impact of work–life programs on social concerns (Bardoel *et al.*, 2008).

The inconclusive findings have encouraged researchers to test the contextual moderating variables in the work–life programs–performance relationship (Johns, 2006). Some of the contextual moderating variables studied in the work–life programs–performance relationship are:

firm size, age and proportion of women (Perry-Smith and Blum, 2000), proportion of female employees, presence of labour unions, wage level and industry (Wood and de Menezes, 2010; Yanadori and Kato, 2009), good management practices (Bloom *et al.*, 2011), and high-performance work systems (Lee and Kim, 2010). However, there is a lack of research investigating human resource (HR)-related contextual variables (e.g., HR systems, business strategy) along with work–life programs and how these programs affect various organisational outcomes as well as multiple stakeholders (Beer *et al.*, 2015). A prior systematic literature review (Akter *et al.*, 2016) and a few other studies (Ollier-Malaterre, 2009; Ollier-Malaterre and Foucreault, 2017) suggest that contextual factors combined with work–life programs might play an inevitable role in achieving sustainable human resources (e.g., the millennial workforce generation), as context works as a continual configuration of stimuli that drives organisations (Jabbour and Santos, 2008; Johns, 2006; Parakandi and Behery, 2016). This study tests these assumptions by including the HR system in the work–life programs–performance relationship.

This study advances the field of work–life programs in four ways. Firstly, it tests social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and strategic human resource management (SHRM) theory (Wright, 2008). Specifically, the paper predicts that work–life programs are positively related to perceived organisational performance and financial performance based on social exchange theory and SHRM theory. Secondly, this study tests stakeholder theory through predicting a work–life programs–corporate social responsibility (CSR) relationship (Freeman, 1983). Work–life programs are surrounded by a social system where multiple stakeholders interact internally and externally, and stakeholder aspects are potentially the outcome of work–life programs (Beer *et al.*, 2015). At present, research is required to understand how work–life programs are adding value not only to the firm’s tangible and financial outcome aspects but also to non-financial aspects that benefit multiple stakeholders (Beer *et al.*, 2015; Colakoglu *et al.*, 2006). Stakeholders’ connections with work–life programs are ignored in the broader HR research and there is a dearth of work–life programs–stakeholder perspectives research at the organisational level (Colakoglu *et al.*, 2006; Jabbour and Santos, 2008).

Thirdly, responding to the call to examine HR-related contextual variables, this study extends contingency theory (Galbraith, 1995) to predict and explain how work–life programs and the commitment HR system interact to add value for organisations. The study contributes to aligning

various HR practices that also lead firms to generate synergistic advantages (Galbraith, 1973). Fourthly, this study is conducted in the Australian context, since work–life programs are increasingly significant to Australian individuals and businesses (Pocock, 2005). Very few work–life programs–organisational performance relationship studies have been conducted in the Australian context (e.g., Ali *et al.*, 2015). The findings stimulate awareness of work–life issues among employers, unions and government that might lead to a better life and work regime in Australia (Pocock, 2003).

Theoretical background and hypotheses

Work–life programs and perceived firm performance

We draw on social exchange theory as a framework to predict the relationship between work–life programs and perceived organisational performance (Blau, 1964). Researchers in the HR field have used social exchange theory to illuminate the motivational basis behind employee behaviours and the formation of positive employee attitudes (Blau, 1964; Konovsky and Pugh, 1994; Settoon *et al.*, 1996; Wayne *et al.*, 1997). Social exchange theory predicts that employees should be dedicated and engaged to work since they receive support from their organisations (Lambert, 2000). The basic premise of social exchange theory is that 'positive, beneficial actions directed at employees by the organisation and/or its representatives contribute to the establishment of high-quality exchange relationships that create an obligation of employees to reciprocate in positive, beneficial ways' (Settoon *et al.*, 1996). In fact, these exchanges create goodwill among employers that influence employees positively to achieve organisational goals and to be consistent with the firm's values (Bagger and Li, 2014). Ultimately, this theory offers several components of the exchange relationship; in particular, it creates goodwill, strengthens the bond between employees and the organisation through positive social exchange, motivates employees to reciprocate through a higher commitment to organisational goals and values, and engages employees to work in a way that leads to higher performance.

Based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), work–life programs are important support from employers and encourage employees to be more dedicated to and responsible in their job efforts. Work–life programs help employees to balance multiple role domains and, subsequently, they reflect the job performance that leads to higher organisational performance. Social exchange

theory has been widely adopted in predicting the effectiveness of work–life programs on organisational performance (Cegarra-Leiva *et al.*, 2012; Lee and Hong, 2011; Ngo *et al.*, 2009). Work–life programs are likely to improve various dimensions of firm performance (Cegarra-Leiva *et al.*, 2012; Giardini and Kabst, 2008). For instance, Perry-Smith and Blum (2000) conducted a cross-sectional study of 527 various-sized firms to investigate the impact of eight work–life programs on perceived market performance, organisational performance and profit–sales growth and found positive associations between all these programs and the performance dimensions. Similarly, Ngo *et al.* (2009) investigated the impact of a bundle of seven family-friendly work practices on perceived market-related and HR-related firm performances in a cross-sectional study on 182 large multinational firms in Hong Kong and found positive results.

In sum, it is expected that a significant positive relationship exists between work–life programs and organisational performance in the Australian context:

H1: Work–life programs in organisations will have a positive relationship with perceived organisational performance.

Work–life programs and financial performance

Through the lens of SHRM theory, we predict the relationship between work–life programs and financial performance of organisations (Devanna *et al.*, 1981; Huselid, 1995; Wright and McMahan, 1992). SHRM theory proposes that HR policies and practices stimulate employees’ motivation, commitment and engagement, which in turn improve customer and operational functions leading to superior financial performance (Wright, 2008). Work–life programs act as the firm’s strategic focus and, hence, they intensify employees’ intrinsic motivation and engagement that directly or indirectly influence employees’ job performance and, essentially, the organisation’s performance (Wright, 2008). For instance, positive feelings toward work–life programs result in the highly motivated task behaviour of employees, whereas negative feelings toward a lack of work–life programs might affect job performance negatively. By influencing how a firm’s workforce properly use their knowledge, skills, competencies, relationships and abilities, work–life programs are more likely to contribute to the strategic value of organisations.

Since the strategic capability of work–life programs links employee job attitudes, engagement and dedication to organisational outcomes through their outstanding work performance (Becker

and Huselid, 2006), SHRM theory has been widely adopted in predicting the effectiveness of work–life programs on organisational performance (Bloom *et al.*, 2011; Perry-Smith and Blum, 2000; Sands and Harper, 2007). In sum, a significant positive relationship is expected between work–life programs and financial performance of organisations in the Australian context:

H2: Work–life programs in organisations will have a positive relationship with financial performance.

Work–life programs and corporate social responsibility

CSR is defined in the management literature as “the firm’s considerations of, and response to, issues beyond the narrow economic, technical, and legal requirements of the firm to accomplish social [environmental] benefits along with the traditional economic gains which the firm seeks” (Davis, 1973, p. 312). More specifically, CSR refers to “context specific organisational actions and policies that take into account stakeholders’ expectations and the triple bottom line of economic, social and environmental performance” (Aguinis 2011, p. 855). It refers to the allocation of corporate resources to improve society overall through the meaningful contribution towards all key stakeholders (Barnett, 2007). The CSR literature is very diverse and has been broadly studied in the last few decades, mainly, however, in the accounting and corporate reporting literature.

The relationship between work–life programs and CSR can be predicted using the lens of stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1983). Stakeholder theory addresses the greater wellbeing of society (Freeman *et al.*, 2004). Freeman (1983) argues that managers should articulate what values they are generating and what values they should create for their stakeholders. A business runs within society and it affects multifaceted stakeholders in a multi-dimensional way, either directly or indirectly (Costa and Menichini, 2013). Stakeholder theory also proposes that organisations interact with several stakeholders who might have positive or conflicting interests (Freeman, 2010). If organisations treat their employees positively through providing various work–life programs, it creates positive employee perceptions toward organisations that might boost up their performance (e.g., commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour) toward stakeholders and also external CSR activities (Shen and Zhang, 2019). There is a long-term symbiotic relationship between business practices and society (Ackerman, 1975); as a result, the pronounced effect of

work–life programs might increase employees’ responsibility cognizance that enhances organisational sustainability and competitiveness toward stakeholders.

The mixed evidence on the work–life programs–performance relationship suggests the value of investigating the impact of work–life programs on non-financial outcomes. The broader HR literature suggests that work–life programs are the employer-sponsored practices that facilitate the increased efficiency of human resources that lead to differential revenue progression (Becker and Gerhart, 1996). Presumably, human resources are a valuable source for gaining sustainable competitive benefits for firms (Huselid, 1995), and work–life programs act as the strategic initiatives to facilitate firms’ human capital. In this regard, Ulrich and Dulebohn (2015) note that various human resource practices have shifted to an outside/inside approach from an inside/outside approach, which implies that work–life programs can add value since they understand business context and comply with HR systems and multiple stakeholders (e.g., customers, investors and community).

Work–life programs are among the most important human resource practices and are likely to enhance the firms’ economic performance (for example, perceived firm performance, net profit margin and turnover) and social and environmental performance (Jabbour and Santos, 2008). Though previous studies have shed light largely on organisational performance, at present research is required to understand how work–life programs are adding value not only to the firm’s financial outcome aspects but also to the firm’s multiple stakeholders (e.g., greater community, customers, investors and society) (Beer *et al.*, 2015). The only past study that has found evidence for a work–life programs–CSR relationship was from Ali and Konrad (2017). Thus, it is extremely important to investigate the impact of work–life programs on firms’ social performance from the lens of stakeholder theory. Thus, the following is hypothesised:

H3: Work–life programs in organisations will have a positive relationship with CSR.

Moderating effects of the human resource system

HR systems denote the workforce management strategies that shape the policies of managing people in organisations (Walton, 1985). HR systems signals to employees the psychological aspects of the work climate and a workplace’s overall internal situation (Rousseau, 1995). While HR practices refers to the combination of the practices for managing people in organisations (e.g.,

recruitment, training, selection) whereas HR system implies the process of how the HR practices are perceived by the employees (Ostroff and Bowen, 2016). In particular, HR system involves how various HR practices are being implemented in organisations. HR systems act as a medium of communication between employer and employees, through which they understand the organisation's strategic moves (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004). It is one of the most significant factors in the internal organisational environment that facilitate firms to achieve competitive advantage too (Becker *et al.*, 1998). In recent years, HR systems and organisational performance have been dominant research fields in the SHRM field (Bowen and Ostroff, 2004).

Organisations adopt particular HR systems based on their industry norms, strategy and contextual stimuli (Delery and Doty, 1996; Miles and Snow, 1984). Researchers classify the typology of HR systems in various ways. For instance, Arthur (1992) classifies the typology of HR systems into commitment- and control-enhancing practices. The commitment HR system is known by various concepts, such as the high-commitment work system (Kim and Wright, 2011), high-involvement system (Batt, 2002) and the high-performance work system (Huselid, 1995; Pfeffer, 1998). Some scholars argued that the commitment-enhancing HR system matches with the differentiation business strategy (Schuler, 1987; Schuler and Jackson, 1987); later, Arthur (1992) empirically justified that firms that focus on a differentiation business strategy generally adopt the high commitment HR system.

Recent years have seen a shift from understanding HR systems as separate categories to various points on a continuum. Ostroff and Bowen (2016) argued that HR system can be seen as a continuum, ranging from low-commitment system (low strength HR system) to high-commitment system (high strength HR system). The low commitment HR system focuses on the centralised decision process, narrowly defined jobs, less training and less interdependence (Arthur, 1994). It is based on improving employee productivity through formal rules and regulations and by reducing costs. In particular, it focuses on employees' quantifiable output. Guthrie (2001) refers to the low commitment HR system as the control HR system that considers employees as commodities and replaceable. The adoption of a particular HR system depends on the business model, industry pattern, firm characteristics and the nature of the job, which require particular employee behaviours, experiences and attitudes. In a broader sense, business goals and organisational context determine the selection of the HR system (Jackson *et al.*, 1989, Ostroff and Bowen, 2016). The

high commitment HR system focuses on the psychological aspects (e.g., behaviours, attitudes) of employees that connect employee and organisational objectives. This psychological attachment enables employees to perform jobs in the most effective way. Moreover, this system facilitates innovative, inspired and resourceful employee behaviours (Galbraith, 1995), since it offers employees multi-level job and personal benefits. As a consequence, attracting skilled employees, motivating them and keeping them long-term has been found to be effective in the commitment-enhancing system (Arthur, 1992).

A growing body of empirical research has documented a relationship between HR systems and organisational performance (Arthur, 1994; Delery & Doty, 1996; Guthrie, 2001; Huselid, 1995; Ichniowski & Shaw, 1999; MacDuffie, 1995). SHRM researchers argue that synergies can occur when HR practices reinforce the broader HR system (Huselid, 1995; MacDuffie, 1995). However, there is dearth of empirical research investigating the alignment between a HR system and human resource practices (e.g. work-life programs) in organisations. The moderating effect of HR systems on the work–life programs–HR system relationship can be predicted through the lens of contingency theory (Donaldson, 2001; Farndale and Sanders, 2017). The effective use of work–life programs is contingent on the HR system of organisations (Wang and Verma, 2012). Based on a systematic review of work–life programs and organisational performance (Akter et al., 2016), contextual environment explains many of the inconsistent outcomes of work–life programs. The embedded HR system is one of the contextual phenomena of firms that might strengthen or weaken the work–life programs–performance relationship. For instance, Been *et al.* (2015) conducted a study of top managers and found that employers are more system- and strategy-focused while implementing work–life programs. In particular, the HR system significantly affects a firm’s entire value chain and, thus, various types of HR systems have a different impact on the effective utilisation of work–life programs and their subsequent organisational outcomes (Barney and Wright, 1998; Wright *et al.*, 1994). As the HR system is composed to align with the contextual phenomenon of the business and its stakeholders it can be an important contextual factor for linking work–life programs and organisational outcomes.

No past studies examined the moderating role of the HR system on the relationship between work–life programs and organisational performance. Investigating firms’ HR systems as a

moderator might facilitate a deeper insight into why and how firms are widely varied in reaping the benefits of work–life programs. Thus, we hypothesise the following:

H4: HR systems moderate the relationship between work–life programs and perceived organisational performance such that the positive relationship will be stronger in organisations with a high-commitment HR system and weaker in organisations with a low-commitment HR system.

H5: HR systems moderate the relationship between work–life programs and financial performance such that the positive relationship will be stronger in organisations with a high-commitment HR system and weaker in organisations with a low-commitment HR system.

H6: HR systems moderate the relationship between work–life programs and CSR performance such that the positive relationship will be stronger in organisations with a high-commitment HR system and weaker in organisations with a low-commitment HR system.

Methods

A combination of time-lagged and cross-sectional research designs was used to test the predictions. Data were collected through an HR manager survey conducted in 2017. Data were also collected on financial performance in 2018 from financial databases.

Sample and data collection

The study's population comprises for-profit organisations in Australia. The initial sample firms comprised 1815 for-profit firms in Australia with 50+ employees. In October 2017 an online survey was sent to HR decision-makers at 2000 organisations. After two weeks a reminder email with the survey link was sent to HR managers who had not responded to the survey. HR managers from 192 organisations completed the survey. In July and August 2018, data on work–life programs were matched with data on financial performance for the year 2018 from the OSIRIS and ORBIS databases. The participating organisations in this study represent a wide range of firms across various sizes and industries. The size of organisations ranges from 60 employees to 40,000 employees (mean 1559.15). The organisations that participated belonged to all industry groups.

After adjusting for 23 undelivered emails, the response rate for the survey was 9.7 per cent – the low response rate can be ascribed to factors such as managers of some firms being officially restricted from participating in surveys (Baruch and Holtom, 2008) and HR and senior managers being over-surveyed in general (Cycyota and Harrison, 2006). The final sample of the study represents the wider population and thus a low response rate is acceptable; it allows for generalisability to the population.

Measures

Predictor

Work–life programs were measured using a 23-item scale from Ali and Konrad (2017), with a reliability of 0.77. See Appendix for items, response choices, coding and reported alpha. The 23 items cover a range of work–family programs offered in organisations. The response options helped assess how work–life programs may benefit the maximum number of employees. The responses to 23 items were added to derive the values for work-life programs. Higher numbers represented higher levels of availability of work-life programs. The Cronbach’s alpha of this study is 0.83.

Outcomes

Multiple performance measures were used, as a single measure might not reflect the effectiveness of various employee activities (van Veen-Dirks, 2010). This study used two subjective performance measures (perceived organisational performance and CSR) and one objective performance measure (profit margin) (Frederiksen *et al.*, 2017; Singh *et al.*, 2016).

Perceived firm performance refers to perceptions of organisational performance reported by a manager. This is one of the most widely used firm outcome measures (Perry-Smith and Blum, 2000). Managers were asked to assess various dimensions of organisational performance in relation to their competitors (Singh, 2004). See Appendix for items, response choices, coding and reported alpha. Mean of the responses to seven items represented the level of perceived firm performance. Higher values represented higher performance. The Cronbach’s alpha for this study is .89. CSR data were collected through the survey. A seven-item scale was used to measure CSR (Turker, 2009). See Appendix for items, response choices, coding and reported alpha. Mean of the

responses to seven items represented the level of CSR performance. Higher values represented higher performance. The Cronbach's alpha for this study is .88. *Profit margin* was used as a measure of objective financial performance. Since financial performance is the reflection of a firm's competitive advantage, it is important to examine the impact of work–life programs on an organisation's financial performance. Research illustrates that investments into HRM practices are positively linked with a firm's financial outcomes (Cascio, 1991). Data on profit margin for the year 2017–2018 were obtained from the Osiris and Orbis databases

Moderator

HR system was measured using a five-item scale from Arthur (1992). See Appendix for items, response choices and coding. Mean responses to the five items refer to the extent to which the organisation practices a commitment HR system, ranging from a low-commitment system to a high-commitment HR system. Higher scores on this scale indicate a higher level of commitment HR system (Ostroff and Bowen, 2016). The Cronbach's alpha for this study is .78.

Controls

The control variables used for this study are organisation size, organisation age and organisation type. Organisation size is linked to the adoption of work–life programs, and HR policies and practices (Konrad, 2007; Kotey and Sheridan, 2004). Large organisations are capable of adopting and executing work–life programs due to their economies of scale. Similar to previous research, organisation size was calculated as the total number of full-time employees (Alexander *et al.*, 1995; Jackson *et al.*, 1991). Organisation age may have a significant impact on the usage of work–life programs and firm performance. Age of the organisations was operationalised according to the year the firm was founded (Jackson *et al.*, 1991; Perry-Smith and Blum, 2000). The analysis also controlled organisation type. Holding and subsidiary companies have the advantage of greater financial resources than stand-alone firms (Richard *et al.*, 2003). A dummy variable was created named 'organisation type', with '1' representing 'Stand-alone' and '0' representing 'Holding or subsidiary'.

Results

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations and correlation coefficients for all variables. We used hierarchical multiple regression to test the hypotheses. The predictor and moderator were centred. H1 proposed that work–life programs would be positively associated with organisational performance, H2 proposed that work–life programs would be positively associated with firms’ financial performance, and H3 proposed that work–life programs would be positively associated with firms’ CSR. To test H1, H2 and H3, perceived organisational performance, profit margin and CSR were separately regressed on work–life programs (see Table 2). The relevant control variables were entered in step 1 (see Model 1 column in Table 2), followed by work–life programs in step 2 (see Model 2 columns in Table 2). The results indicate that work–life programs have a significant positive effect on perceived organisational performance ($\beta=.23, p<0.01$), financial performance ($\beta =.39, p<.001$) and CSR ($\beta =.50, p<.05$). Therefore, we found full support for H1, H2 and H3.

<Insert Table 1 about here>

<Insert Table 2 about here>

H4 proposed a moderating effect of HR systems such that the positive work–life programs–perceived organisational performance relationship will be stronger in organisations with a high-commitment HR system and weaker in organisations with a low-commitment HR system. H5 proposed a moderating effect of HR systems such that the positive work–life programs–financial performance relationship will be stronger in organisations with a high-commitment HR system and weaker in organisations with a low-commitment HR system. H6 proposed a moderating effect of HR systems such that the positive work–life programs–CSR relationship will be stronger in organisations with a high-commitment HR system and weaker in organisations with a low-commitment HR system. The interaction term (work–life programs x HR system) was created using centred variables. Table 2 presents the results of the moderating effects of the HR system. The results indicate that work–life programs x HR system had a significant effect on perceived organisational performance ($\beta =.16, p<.05$), but non-significant effect on profit margin ($\beta = -.08, n.s.$) and CSR ($\beta = -.05, n.s.$). Modprobe was used to generate data for plotting and to calculate slopes at one standard deviation below (low-commitment HR system) and above (high-commitment HR system) the mean of HR system (Hayes and Matthes, 2009). Figure 1 illustrates

the relationship between work–life programs and perceived organisational performance for organisations with a high-commitment vs. low-commitment HR system. The positive relationship is stronger in organisations with a high-commitment HR system ($b = .011, p < .05$) than in organisations with a low-commitment HR system ($b = -.003, n.s.$). The significant positive relationship between work–life programs and perceived organisational performance in organisations with a high-commitment HR system partially supports H4; H5 and H6 were not supported.

<Insert Figure 1 about here>

Discussion

The aim of this study was to examine whether work–life programs are positively associated with perceived organisational performance, financial performance and CSR, and whether these relationships are moderated by the HR system. This study presents evidence of: a positive association between work–life programs and perceived organisational performance, a positive linkage between work–life programs and financial performance, a positive linkage between work–life programs and CSR, and a moderating effect of the HR system on the work–life programs–perceived organisational performance relationship.

Work–life programs and performance

The results indicate that there is a positive relationship between work–life programs and both perceived organisational performance and financial performance. This study contributes to a growing body of work–life literature supporting the business case for work–life programs (e.g., Ngo *et al.*, 2009; Perry-Smith and Blum, 2000; Arthur and Cook, 2004; Avgar *et al.*, 2011). The positive linkage supports social exchange theory, which implies that these programs act as motivating and rewarding factors to employees (Blau, 1964). In turn, employees exchange efforts, engagement and dedication to improve firm performance. In addition, the positive effect of work–life programs on financial performance supports SHRM theory. SHRM theory postulates an organisation’s workforce is an asset and the HR policies adopted to manage that workforce should be strategically integrated and value-driven (Schuler, 1992). Hence, work–life programs are linked with the firm’s strategic goals (vertical integration) and these programs are integrated with other HR practices (horizontal integration). This two-way integration results in increased competence,

higher congruence and cost effectiveness, and eventually better financial outcome (Black and Boal, 1994; Teece *et al.*, 1997). We also found support for a positive linkage between work–life programs and CSR; the organisations that offer more work–life programs demonstrate superior CSR. This indicates that these firms become more responsible towards investors, the community, customers and the environment. These results strengthen the findings of a recent study, also conducted in Australia, which found a positive impact of work–life programs on CSR performance (Ali and Konrad, 2017). The results also indicate a positive relationship between work–life programs and financial performance.

Moderating effects of the human resource system

It is also evident from this study that the HR system moderates the relationship between work–life programs and perceived organisational performance. Organisations with more work–life programs and a high-commitment HR system demonstrate higher perceived organisational performance. The results of this study support contingency theory (Galbraith, 1995; Farnadale and Sanders, 2017) and our arguments that many work-life programs and a high-commitment HR system creates synergies, providing an added advantage to firms. Since organisations grow and mature within the social and institutional environment, employees’ attitudes and behaviours are guided by ingrained social and institutional factors (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983; Farnadale and Sanders, 2017). High commitment HR system contributes significantly to executing any HR practices (work–life programs) effectively and, subsequently, firm performance can be affected through the adoption of a high strength or commitment-enhancing HR system (Wang and Verma, 2012; Russo *et al.*, 2018).

Theoretical and research contributions

The results of this study have several theoretical and research contributions. First, the effects of work–life programs on perceived firm performance provide strong support for social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). They strengthen the social exchange theory argument that various work–life practices provide scope to employees to balance various life domains (Ngo *et al.*, 2009). In turn, employees feel obligated to respond with positive work behaviours, such as organisational citizenship behaviours and affective commitment (Grover and Crooker, 1995; Lambert, 2000). These positive employee attitudes translate into enthusiastic work motivation and better organisational productivity. Employees become more dedicated and engaged to achieve

organisational goals. This research demonstrates that social exchanges occur through work–life programs between employees and organisations, and both parties benefit from each other. As such, the findings of this research strengthen the argument of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964).

Second, the linkage between work–life programs and financial performance provides a strong case supporting SHRM theory (Huselid, 1995). This study has contributed to SHRM theory by providing empirical evidence of the value-adding of work–life programs, reflected in higher financial performance. Work–life programs are considered as one of the strategic actions that can enhance work–life balance, and subsequently this reflects in employees’ higher commitment to the organisation.

Third, the results also support stakeholder theory (Freeman *et al.*, 2010). The support found for the relationship between work–life programs and CSR strengthens the argument that stakeholder theory endorses employees, stockholders, community and organisations as beneficiaries from these programs. This finding provides a competitive advantage to the firm, reflecting an outside/inside approach. It implies that work–life programs add value to internal parties and multiple stakeholders (e.g., customers, investors and the community) (Ulrich and Dulebohn, 2015). The results indicate that firms that are offering more work–life programs are more responsive to various stakeholders, and that the impact of work–life programs are not limited to financial or market-based organisational performance – they also affect non-financial dimensions of firm performance (Jones and Wicks, 1999). However, the findings only provide indirect support for social exchange theory and stakeholder theory. Direct support for social exchange theory would measure employee-level processes and their effects on subsequent employee outcomes and their link to organisational outcomes (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). Similarly, a direct test of stakeholder theory requires that researchers measure normative, instrumental and descriptive CSR phenomena (Berman *et al.*, 1999).

Fourth, the results refine contingency theory through illustrating a pioneering moderating effect of HR systems on the relationship between work–life programs and organisational performance (Galbraith, 2007). The results suggest that a high-commitment HR system facilitates a stronger positive relationship between work–life programs and perceived organisational performance. This study has opened up the various avenues of further research. The findings are grounded on the subjective measures, future researchers can investigate the objective performance

measures to validate the HR systems-organisational performance relationship. Another avenue is to investigate whether HR systems play a differential role in various industry sectors. The data of this study has sourced from many industry sectors including manufacturing and service industries, still there are more to know whether any specific HR system (e.g., high commitment vs. low commitment) is more effective to any particular industry or if it acts universally fit for all the sectors. Moreover, future research might explore how industry growth and dynamism affects the choice of HR systems for organisations (Chao and Shih, 2016).

Finally, this research provides pioneering evidence by addressing a significant gap in the HR literature (Ulrich and Dulebohn, 2015). Work-life programs and their impact on multiple stakeholders have been widely ignored in the HR research field (Beer *et al.*, 2015). Integrating these programs in the workplace creates value for organisations as well as other stakeholders (Hutchinson, 2018). Examining the relationship between work-life programs and multiple stakeholders has provided a novel understanding for managers. The results of this study support the argument that managerial attention should focus more broadly on multiple stakeholder interests. These findings also advance the implication of stakeholder theory in various fields and contexts (Berman *et al.*, 1999). This study presents a foundation for future researchers to explore and examine which stakeholder group receives higher benefits from work-life programs and how these programs and practices affect sustainable organisational performance.

Practical contributions

This study has several practical implications. First, the findings related to the association between work-life programs and perceived organisational performance strengthen the business case. The positive effect of work-life programs on financial performance also reinforce the business case. There has been much research conducted to justify work-life programs in workplaces (Arthur and Cook, 2004; Bloom *et al.*, 2011). However, employers struggle to identify evidence-based work-life programs that can improve multiple organisational outcomes (Ollier-Malaterre and Foucreault, 2017; Sweet *et al.*, 2014).

Second, the stronger positive relationship between work-life programs and CSR studied in this research can help managers to understand the value of work-life programs for the greater society. It suggests to managers that work-life programs not only contribute to a firm's financial-based metrics but also fulfil the needs of multiple stakeholders in society. Since multiple

stakeholders' interests are widely ignored in work–life research (Beer *et al.*, 2015), the study's findings provide a social case for managers and practitioners. Also, firm performance is a multi-dimensional construct, and the findings of this research provide a novel performance measure (e.g., addressing social concern) that leads to sustainable HR practices in organisations (Parakandi and Behery, 2016). Some effects of work–life programs might take a long time to appear (e.g., productivity), while others might appear after a short duration (e.g., innovation). Eventually, this helps Australian managers and those in other countries to use multiple measures of performance over a period. The study also provides additional insights to managers taking a strategic approach toward work–life programs. Managers can use this evidence to seek a commitment from top-level management to adopt and execute various work–life programs in organisations.

Third, the findings of this study help managers to understand the alignment of work–life programs with other existing HR practices in organisations. Previous studies have found that work–life programs should link with the HR system, highlighting business objectives and contexts (Wang and Verma, 2012). Since the effectiveness of work–life programs depends on the particular context, these programs can add value to the business aligning with the HR (Delery and Gupta, 2016; Farnadale and Sanders, 2016). SHRM researchers suggest that synergies happen among various HR practices that provide added advantage to organisations (Delery, 1998; Kepes and Delery, 2007), which is supported by this study. For instance, if certain HR systems are put together with work–life programs, this might have a positive effect on organisational performance (Huselid, 1995; MacDuffie, 1995). The findings help managers to understand Australia's complex industrial relations environment, which might help them ensure an equitable balance among stakeholders (Sheehan *et al.*, 2006).

Fourth, this study is based in the Australian context. Australian organisations are concerned about managing the millennial workforce (Spinks and Moore, 2007; Sutcliffe and Dhakal, 2018). It is apparent that 64% of millennials prefer organisations that have social and environmental commitments and 83% of millennials are more committed when organisations offer flexible work options and execute CSR (the 2016 Cone Communications Millennial Employee Engagement study and the 2016 employee engagement study). The current scenario and findings help managers to understand the millennial workforce and to formulate appropriate strategies to boost this generation's performance (Teng, 2017).

Limitations

This study has four main limitations. First, data on two out of three performance measures were cross-sectional and thus a causal relationship cannot be inferred (Guest *et al.*, 2003). A longitudinal research design would provide stronger evidence for a work–life programs–performance relationship (Boselie *et al.*, 2005; Paauwe and Boselie, 2005; Saridakis *et al.*, 2017). Second, our study used perceptual measures as performance outcomes. However, there are statistical relationships between hard performance measures and perceptual measures (Bae and Lawler, 2000; Delaney and Huselid, 1996; Su and Wright, 2012). Third, this study is conducted at the organisational level and we were unable to consider employees’ usage of work–life programs; rather, we focused on the offerings (Grover and Crooker, 1995). Lastly, the study sample comprises for-profit organisations and, thus, the findings may not be directly generalisable to non-profit organisations.

References

- Ackerman, R.W. (1975), *The Social Challenge to Business*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA.
- Aguinis, H. (2011), *Organizational responsibility: Doing good and doing well*. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (3rd ed., pp. 855–879). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Akter K., Ali, M. and Chang, A. (2016), “Work–life programs and organisational outcomes: a systematic literature review”, in *Proceedings of the 30th Australian & New Zealand Academy of Management (ANZAM) Conference*, QUT Business School, Brisbane, QLD, p. 324.
- Alexander, J., Nuchols, B., Bloom, J. and Lee, S.-Y. (1995), "Organizational demography and turnover: an examination of multiform and nonlinear heterogeneity", *Human relations*, Vol. 48 No. 12, pp. 1455-1480.
- Ali, M., Metz, I. and Kulik, C.T. (2014), "The impact of work–family programs on the relationship between gender diversity and performance", *Human Resource Management*, <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.21631>
- Ali, M. and Konrad, A.M. (2017), “Antecedents and consequences of diversity and equality management systems: The importance of gender diversity in the TMT and lower to middle management”, *European Management Journal*, Vol. 35 No.4, pp. 440-453.
- Ali, M., Metz, I., & Kulik, C.T. (2015), “The impact of work–family programs on the relationship between gender diversity and performance”, *Human Resource Management*, Vol. 54 No.4, pp.553-576.
- Arthur, J.B. (1992), "The link between business strategy and industrial relations systems in American steel minimills", *ILR Review*, Vol. 45 No. 3, pp. 488-506.
- Arthur, J.B. (1994), "Effects of human resource systems on manufacturing performance and turnover", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 37 No. 3, pp. 670-687.
- Arthur, M.M. and Cook, A. (2004), "Taking stock of work-family initiatives: how announcements of 'family-friendly' human resource decisions affect shareholder value", *Industrial & Labor Relations Review*, Vol. 57 No. 4, pp. 599-613.

- Avgar, A.C., Givan, R.K. and Liu, M. (2011), "A balancing act: work–life balance and multiple stakeholder outcomes in hospitals", *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, Vol. 49 No. 4, pp. 717-741.
- Bae, J. and Lawler, J.J. (2000), "Organizational and HRM strategies in Korea: impact on firm performance in an emerging economy", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 43 No. 3, pp. 502-517.
- Bagger, J. and Li, A. (2014), "How does supervisory family support influence employees' attitudes and behaviors? A social exchange perspective", *Journal of Management*, Vol. 40 No. 4, pp. 1123-1150.
- Bardoel, E.A., De Cieri, H. and Mayson, S. (2008), "Bridging the research–practice gap: developing a measurement framework for work–life initiatives", *Journal of Management & Organization*, Vol. 14 No. 3, pp. 239-258.
- Barnett, M.L. (2007), "Stakeholder influence capacity and the variability of financial returns to corporate social responsibility", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 32 No. 3, pp. 794-816.
- Barney, J.B. and Wright, P.M. (1998), "On becoming a strategic partner: The role of human resources in gaining competitive advantage", *Human Resource Management (1986-1998)*, Vol. 37 No. 1, p. 31.
- Baruch, Y. and Holtom, B. C. (2008), "Survey response rate levels and trends in organizational research", *Human relations*, Vol. 61 No. 8, pp. 1139-1160.
- Batt, R. (2002), "Managing customer services: human resource practices, quit rates, and sales growth", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 45 No. 3, pp. 587-597.
- Becker, B. and Gerhart, B. (1996), "The impact of human resource management on organizational performance: progress and prospects", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 39 No. 4, pp. 779-801.
- Becker, B.E. and Huselid, M.A. (2006), "Strategic human resources management: where do we go from here?", *Journal of Management*, Vol. 32 No. 6, pp. 898-925.
- Becker, B.E., Huselid, M.A., Becker, B. and Huselid, M.A. (1998), "High performance work systems and firm performance: a synthesis of research and managerial implications", *Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management*, Vol. 16, pp. 53-101.

- Been, W.M., den Dulk, L. and van der Lippe, T. (2015), "Dutch top managers and work-life arrangements in times of economic crisis", *Community, Work & Family*, <https://doi.org/10.1080/13668803.2015.1013019>
- Beer, M., Boselie, P. and Brewster, C. (2015), "Back to the future: implications for the field of HRM of the multistakeholder perspective proposed 30 years ago", *Human Resource Management*, Vol. 54 No. 3, pp. 427-438.
- Berman, S.L., Wicks, A.C., Kotha, S. and Jones, T.M. (1999), "Does stakeholder orientation matter? The relationship between stakeholder management models and firm financial performance", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 42 No. 5, pp. 488-506.
- Black, J.A. and Boal, K.B. (1994), "Strategic resources: traits, configurations and paths to sustainable competitive advantage", *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 15 No. S2, pp. 131-148.
- Blau, P.M. (1964), *Exchange and Power in Social Life*, Transaction Publishers.
- Blazovich, J.L., Smith, K.T. and Smith, M. (2013), "Employee-friendly companies and work-life balance: is there an impact on financial performance and risk level?", *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications and Conflict*, Vol. 18 No. 2, pp. 1-14.
- Bloom, N., Kretschmer, T. and Van Reenen, J. (2011), "Are family-friendly workplace practices a valuable firm resource?" *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 32 No. 4, pp. 343-367.
- Boselie, P., Dietz, G. and Boon, C. (2005), "Commonalities and contradictions in HRM and performance research", *Human Resource Management Journal*, Vol. 15 No. 3, pp. 67-94.
- Bowen, D.E. and Ostroff, C. (2004), "Understanding HRM–firm performance linkages: the role of the 'strength' of the HRM system", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 29 No. 2, pp. 203-221.
- Burke, R.J. (2010), "Managers, balance, and fulfilling lives", *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, Vol. 25 No. 2, pp. 86-90.
- Cascio, W.F. (1991), *Costing Human Resources*, South-Western Educational Publishing, Cincinnati.
- Cegarra-Leiva, D., Sánchez-Vidal, M.E. and Gabriel Cegarra-Navarro, J. (2012), "Understanding the link between work life balance practices and organisational outcomes in SMEs: the mediating effect of a supportive culture", *Personnel Review*, Vol. 41 No. 3, pp. 359-379.

- Chao, M., & Shih, C.T. (2018), "Customer service-focused HRM systems and firm performance: evidence from the service industry in Taiwan", *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol. 29 No.19, pp.2804-2826.
- Clifton, T.J. and Shepard, E. (2004), "Work and family programs and productivity: estimates applying a production function model", *International Journal of Manpower*, Vol. 25 No. 8, pp. 714-728.
- Colakoglu, S., Lepak, D.P. and Hong, Y. (2006), "Measuring HRM effectiveness: considering multiple stakeholders in a global context", *Human Resource Management Review*, Vol. 16 No. 2, pp. 209-218.
- Costa, R. and Menichini, T. (2013), "A multidimensional approach for CSR assessment: the importance of the stakeholder perception", *Expert Systems with Applications*, Vol. 40 No. 1, pp. 150-161.
- Cropanzano, R. and Mitchell, M.S. (2005), "Social exchange theory: an interdisciplinary review", *Journal of Management*, Vol. 31 No. 6, pp. 874-900.
- Cycyota, C.S., & Harrison, D.A. (2006), "What (not) to expect when surveying executives: A meta-analysis of top manager response rates and techniques over time", *Organizational Research Methods*, Vol.9 No.2, pp. 133-160.
- Davis, K. (1973), "The case for and against business assumption of social responsibilities", *Academy of Management journal*, Vol. 16 No.2, pp. 312-322.
- Delaney, J.T. and Huselid, M.A. (1996), "The impact of human resource management practices on perceptions of organizational performance." *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 39 No. 4, pp. 949-969.
- Delery, J. and Gupta, N. (2016), "Human resource management practices and organizational effectiveness: internal fit matters", *Journal of Organizational Effectiveness: People and Performance*, Vol. 3 No. 2, pp. 139-163.
- Delery, J.E. (1998), "Issues of fit in strategic human resource management: implications for research", *Human Resource Management Review*, Vol. 8 No. 3, pp. 289-309.
- Delery, J.E. and Doty, D.H. (1996), "Modes of theorizing in strategic human resource management: tests of universalistic, contingency, and configurational performance predictions", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 39 No. 4, pp. 802-835.
- Devanna, M.A., Fombrun, C. and Tichy, N. (1981), "Human resources management: a strategic perspective", *Organizational Dynamics*, Vol. 9 No. 3, pp. 51-67.

- Dex, S., Smith, C. and Winter, S. (2001), "Effects of family-friendly policies on business performance", *Research Papers in Management Studies-University of Cambridge Judge Institute of Management Studies WP*.
- DiMaggio, P. and Powell, W.W. (1983), "The iron cage revisited: Collective rationality and institutional isomorphism in organizational fields", *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 48 No. 2, pp. 147-160.
- Donaldson, L. (2001), *The Contingency Theory of Organizations*, Sage.
- Farndale, E., and Sanders, K. (2017), "Conceptualizing HRM system strength through a cross-cultural lens", *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol. 28 No. 1, pp.132-148.
- Forsyth, S. and Polzer-Debruyne, A. (2007), "The organisational pay-offs for perceived work-life balance support" *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, Vol. 45 No. 1, pp. 113-123.
- Frederiksen, A., Lange, F. and Kriechel, B. (2017), "Subjective performance evaluations and employee careers", *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, Vol. 134, pp. 408-429.
- Freeman, R.E. (1983), "Strategic management: a stakeholder approach", *Advances in Strategic Management*, Vol. 1 No. 1, pp. 31-60.
- Freeman, R.E. (2010), *Strategic management: A stakeholder approach*. Cambridge University Press.
- Freeman, R.E., Harrison, J.S., Wicks, A.C., Parmar, B.L. and De Colle, S. (2010), *Stakeholder Theory: The State of the Art*, Cambridge University Press.
- Freeman, R.E., Wicks, A.C. and Parmar, B. (2004), "Stakeholder theory and 'the corporate objective revisited'", *Organization Science*, Vol. 15 No. 3, pp. 364-369.
- Galbraith, J.R. (1995), *Designing Organizations: An Executive Briefing on Strategy, Structure, and Process*, Jossey-Bass.
- Galbraith, J.R. (1973), *Designing Complex Organizations*, Addison-Wesley Pub. Co.
- Giardini, A. and Kabst, R. (2008), "Effects of work-family human resource practices: a longitudinal perspective", *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol. 19 No. 11, pp. 2079-2094.
- Grover, S.L. and Crooker, K.J. (1995), "Who appreciates family-responsive human resource policies: the impact of family-friendly policies on the organizational attachment of parents and non-parents", *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 48 No. 2, pp. 271-288.

- Guest, D.E., Michie, J., Conway, N. and Sheehan, M. (2003), "Human resource management and corporate performance in the UK", *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, Vol. 41 No. 2, pp. 291-314.
- Guthrie, J.P. (2001), "High-involvement work practices, turnover, and productivity: evidence from New Zealand", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 44 No. 1, pp. 180-190.
- Hayes, A.F. and Matthes, J. (2009), "Computational procedures for probing interactions in OLS and logistic regression: SPSS and SAS implementations", *Behavior Research Methods*, Vol. 41 No. 3, pp. 924-936.
- Huselid, M.A. (1995), "The impact of human resource management practices on turnover, productivity, and corporate financial performance", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 38 No. 3, pp. 635-672.
- Hutchinson, D. (2018), "Work-life balance in the workplace. In Diversity and Inclusion in the Global Workplace" (pp. 185-200). Palgrave Macmillan, Cham.
- Ichniowski, C. and Shaw, K. (1999), "The effects of human resource management systems on economic performance: an international comparison of US and Japanese plants", *Management Science*, Vol. 45 No. 5, pp. 704-721.
- Jabbour, C.J.C. and Santos, F.C.A. (2008), "The central role of human resource management in the search for sustainable organizations", *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol. 19 No. 12, pp. 2133-2154.
- Jackson, S.E., Brett, J.F., Sessa, V.I., Cooper, D.M., Julin, J.A. and Peyronnin, K. (1991), "Some differences make a difference: individual dissimilarity and group heterogeneity as correlates of recruitment, promotions, and turnover", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 76 No. 5, p. 675.
- Jackson, S.E., Schuler, R.S. and Rivero, J.C. (1989), "Organizational characteristics as predictors of personnel practices", *Personnel Psychology*, Vol. 42 No. 4, pp. 727-786.
- Jap, S.D. (2001), "'Pie sharing' in complex collaboration contexts", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 38 No. 1, pp. 86-99.
- Johns, G. (2006), "The essential impact of context on organizational behavior", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 31 No. 2, pp. 386-408.
- Jones, T.M., and Wicks, A.C. (1999), "Convergent stakeholder theory", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 24 No. 2, pp. 206-221.

- Kelly, E.L., Kossek, E.E., Hammer, L.B., Durham, M., Bray, J., Chermack, K., . . . Kaskubar, D. (2008), "7 getting there from here: research on the effects of work–family initiatives on work–family conflict and business outcomes", *The Academy of Management Annals*, Vol. 2 No. 1, pp. 305-349.
- Kepes, S. and Delery, J.E. (2007), "HRM systems and the problem of internal fit", in Boxall, P., Purcell, J. and Wright, P. (Eds), *The Oxford Handbook of Human Resource Management*, Oxford University Press, p. 385.
- Kim, S. and Wright, P.M. (2011), "Putting strategic human resource management in context: a contextualized model of high commitment work systems and its implications in China", *Management and Organization Review*, Vol. 7 No. 1, pp. 153-174.
- Konovsky, M.A. and Pugh, S.D. (1994), "Citizenship behavior and social exchange", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 37 No. 3, pp. 656-669.
- Konrad, A.M. (2007), "12 The effectiveness of human resource management practices for promoting women’s careers", in Bilimoria, D. and Piderit, S.K. (Eds), *Handbook on Women in Business and Management*, Edward Elgar, Cheltham, p. 254.
- Konrad, A.M. and Mangel, R. (2000), "The impact of work-life programs on firm productivity", *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 21 No. 12, pp. 1225-1237.
- Kossek, E.E., Baltes, B.B. and Matthews, R.A. (2011), "How work–family research can finally have an impact in organizations", *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 4 No. 3, pp. 352-369.
- Kossek, E.E. and Lambert, S.J. (2004), *Work and Life Integration: Organizational, Cultural, and Individual Perspectives*, Psychology Press.
- Kotey, B. and Sheridan, A. (2004), "Changing HRM practices with firm growth", *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, Vol. 11 No. 4, pp. 474-485.
- Lambert, S.J. (2000), "Added benefits: the link between work-life benefits and organizational citizenship behavior", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 43 No. 5, pp. 801-815.
- Lee, S.Y. and Hong, J.H. (2011), "Does family-friendly policy matter? Testing its impact on turnover and performance", *Public Administration Review*, Vol. 71 No. 6, pp. 870-879.
- Lee, B. H., & Kim, J. S. (2010), "Is family-friendly management good for firms? The diffusion and performance of family-friendly workplaces in South Korea", *Journal of Industrial Relations*, Vol. 52 No.4, pp. 459-475.

- Lewis, S., Gambles, R. and Rapoport, R. (2007), "The constraints of a 'work-life balance' approach: an international perspective", *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol. 18 No. 3, pp. 360-373.
- MacDuffie, J.P. (1995), "Human resource bundles and manufacturing performance: organizational logic and flexible production systems in the world auto industry", *ILR Review*, Vol. 48 No. 2, pp. 197-221.
- Naithani, P. (2010), "Overview of work-life balance discourse and its relevance in current economic scenario", *Asian Social Science*, Vol. 6 No. 6, p. 148.
- Ngo, H.y., Foley, S. and Loi, R. (2009), "Family friendly work practices, organizational climate, and firm performance: a study of multinational corporations in Hong Kong", *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 30 No. 5, pp. 665-680.
- Nord, W.R., Fox, S., Phoenix, A. and Viano, K. (2002), "Real-world reactions to work-life balance programs: lessons for effective implementation", *Organizational Dynamics*, Vol. 30 No. 3, pp. 223-238.
- Ollier-Malaterre, A. (2009), "Organizational work-life initiatives: context matters: France compared to the UK and the US", *Community, Work & Family*, Vol 12, No 2, pp. 159-178.
- Ollier-Malaterre, A. and Foucreault, A. (2017), "Cross-national work-life research: cultural and structural impacts for individuals and organizations", *Journal of Management*, Vol. 43 No. 1, pp. 111-136.
- Ostroff, C., and Bowen, D. E. (2016), "Reflections on the 2014 decade award: Is there strength in the construct of HR system strength?" *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 41 No. 2, pp. 196-214.
- Paauwe, J. and Boselie, P. (2005), "HRM and performance: what next?", *Human Resource Management Journal*, Vol. 15 No. 4, pp. 68-83.
- Parakandi, M. and Behery, M. (2016), "Sustainable human resources: examining the status of organizational work-life balance practices in the United Arab Emirates", *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, Vol. 55, pp. 1370-1379.
- Perry-Smith, J.E. and Blum, T.C. (2000), "Work-family human resource bundles and perceived organizational performance", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 43 No. 6, pp. 1107-1117.

- Pfeffer, J. (1998), *The Human Equation: Building Profits by Putting People First*, Harvard Business Press.
- Pocock, B. (2003), *The Work/Life Collision: What Work is Doing to Australians and What to Do About It*, Federation Press.
- Pocock, B. (2005), "Work-life 'balance' in Australia: limited progress, dim prospects", *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, Vol. 43 No. 2, pp. 198-209.
- Pocock, B. and Pocock, B. (2001), *Fifty Families: What Unreasonable Hours are Doing to Australians, their Families and their Communities: A Report Commissioned by the Australian Council of Trade Unions*, Australian Council of Trade Unions.
- Richard, O., McMillan, A., Chadwick, K. and Dwyer, S. (2003), "Employing an innovation strategy in racially diverse workforces: effects on firm performance", *Group & Organization Management*, Vol. 28 No. 1, pp. 107-126.
- Rousseau, D. (1995), *Psychological Contracts in Organizations: Understanding Written and Unwritten Agreements*, Sage Publications.
- Dello Russo, S., Mascia, D. and Morandi, F. (2018), "Individual perceptions of HR practices, HRM strength and appropriateness of care: a meso, multilevel approach", *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol. 29, No. 2, pp.286-310.
- Sands, J. and Harper, T. (2007), "Family-friendly benefits and organizational performance", *Business Renaissance Quarterly*, Vol. 2 No. 1, p. 107.
- Saridakis, G., Lai, Y. and Cooper, C.L. (2017), "Exploring the relationship between HRM and firm performance: a meta-analysis of longitudinal studies", *Human Resource Management Review*, Vol. 27 No. 1, pp. 87-96.
- Schuler, R.S. (1987), "Matching effective HR practices with competitive strategy", *Personnel*, Vol. 64 No. 9, pp. 18-20.
- Schuler, R.S. (1992), "Strategic human resources management: linking the people with the strategic needs of the business", *Organizational Dynamics*, Vol. 21 No. 1, pp. 18-32.
- Schuler, R.S. and Jackson, S.E. (1987), "Linking competitive strategies with human resource management practices", *The Academy of Management Executive (1987-1989)*, pp. 207-219.

- Settoon, R.P., Bennett, N. and Liden, R.C. (1996), "Social exchange in organizations: perceived organizational support, leader–member exchange, and employee reciprocity", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 81 No. 3, p. 219.
- Sheehan, C., Holland, P. and De Cieri, H. (2006), "Current developments in HRM in Australian organisations", *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, Vol. 44 No. 2, pp. 132-152.
- Shen, J., and Zhang, H. (2019), "Socially responsible human resource management and employee support for external CSR: roles of organizational CSR climate and perceived CSR directed toward employees", *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol.156 No 3, pp. 875-888.
- Singh, K. (2004), "Impact of HR practices on perceived firm performance in India", *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, Vol. 42 No. 3, pp. 301-317.
- Singh, S., Darwish, T.K. and Potočnik, K. (2016), "Measuring organizational performance: a case for subjective measures", *British Journal of Management*, Vol. 27 No. 1, pp. 214-224.
- Smith, J.B. and Barclay, D.W. (1997), "The effects of organizational differences and trust on the effectiveness of selling partner relationships", *The Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 1 No. 2. pp. 3-21.
- Spinks, N. and Moore, C. (2007), "The changing workforce, workplace and nature of work: implications for health human resource management", *Nursing Leadership*, Vol. 20 No. 3, pp. 26-41.
- Straub, C. (2012), "Antecedents and organizational consequences of family supportive supervisor behavior: a multilevel conceptual framework for research", *Human Resource Management Review*, Vol. 22 No. 1, pp. 15-26.
- Su, Z.-X. and Wright, P.M. (2012), "The effective human resource management system in transitional China: a hybrid of commitment and control practices", *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol. 23 No. 10, pp. 2065-2086.
- Sutcliffe, J.E. and Dhakal, S.P. (2018), "Youth unemployment amidst aged care workers shortages in Australia: why care about the millennials?" *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal*, Vol. 37 No. 2, pp. 182-198.
- Sweet, S., Besen, E., Pitt-Catsouphes, M. and McNamara, T.K. (2014), "Do options for job flexibility diminish in times of economic uncertainty?", *Work, Employment and Society*, Vol. 28 No. 6, pp. 882-903.

- Teece, D.J., Pisano, G. and Shuen, A. (1997), "Dynamic capabilities and strategic management", *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 18 No. 7, pp. 509-533.
- Teng, E.H.-L. (2017), "Millennial mental health: examining current approaches and exploring challenges to the measurement and promotion of mental health in young Australians", Thesis, University of Adelaide, available at: <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/130796960.pdf>
- Turker, D. (2009), "Measuring corporate social responsibility: a scale development study", *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 85 No. 4, pp. 411-427.
- Ulrich, D. and Dulebohn, J.H. (2015), "Are we there yet? What's next for HR?" *Human Resource Management Review*, Vol. 25 No. 2, pp. 188-204.
- van Veen-Dirks, P. (2010), "Different uses of performance measures: the evaluation versus reward of production managers", *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, Vol. 35 No. 2, pp. 141-164.
- Walton, R.E. (1985), "From control to commitment in the workplace", *Harvard Business Review*, Vol. 63 No. 2, pp. 76-84.
- Wang, J. and Verma, A. (2012), "Explaining organizational responsiveness to work-life balance issues: the role of business strategy and high-performance work systems", *Human Resource Management*, Vol. 51 No. 3, pp. 407-432.
- Wayne, S.J., Shore, L.M., and Liden, R.C. (1997), "Perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange: a social exchange perspective", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 40 No. 1, pp. 82-111.
- Wood, S.J. and de Menezes, L.M. (2010), "Family-friendly management, organizational performance and social legitimacy", *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol. 21 No. 10, pp. 1575-1597.
- Wright, P.M. (2008), *Human Resource Strategy: Adapting to the Age of Globalization*, SHRM Foundation, Alexandria, VA.
- Wright, P.M. and McMahan, G.C. (1992), "Theoretical perspectives for strategic human resource management", *Journal of Management*, Vol. 18 No. 2, pp. 295-320.
- Wright, P.M., McMahan, G.C. and McWilliams, A. (1994), "Human resources and sustained competitive advantage: a resource-based perspective", *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol. 5 No. 2, pp. 301-326.

- Yamamoto, I. and Matsuura, T. (2014), "Effect of work–life balance practices on firm productivity: evidence from Japanese firm-level panel data", *The BE Journal of Economic Analysis & Policy*, Vol. 4 No. 4, pp. 1677-1708.
- Yanadori, Y., & Kato, T. (2009), "Work and family practices in Japanese firms: their scope, nature and impact on employee turnover", *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol. 20 No. 2, pp. 439-456.

Table 1 Mean, standard deviations and correlations

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Controls									
1. Organisation size	1559.15	3603.56							
2. Organisation age	55.37	44.61	.25**						
3. Organisation type	.64	.48	.04	-.10					
Moderator									
4. Human resource system	3.94	.64	.17*	.01	.05				
Predictor									
5. Work–life programs	48.9	10.63	.39**	.22**	-.08	.37**			
Outcomes									
6. Perceived organisational performance	3.91	.57	.13	.02	-.05	.38**	.27**		
7. Profit margin	8.14	19.76	.19*	.015	-.18	.13	.42**	.14	
8. Corporate social responsibility	3.87	.72	.22**	.13	-.10	.35**	.51**	.29**	.22*

2-tailed, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 2 Hierarchical regression analyses

Variable	Perceived organisational performance			Profit margin			Corporate social responsibility		
	β (1)	β (2)	β (3)	β (1)	β (2)	β (3)	β (1)	β (2)	β (3)
Controls									
Organisation size	.14	.07	.00	.16	.02	.06	.19*	.01	.02
Organisation age	-.01	-.04	-.01	.09	.00	.00	.14	.07	.09
Organisation type	-.07	-.05	-.09	-.19*	-.15	-.14	-.11	-.08	-.09
Predictor									
Work-life programs		.23**	.07		.39***	.42***		.50*	.43***
Moderator									
Human resource system			.38***			-.03			.18*
Interaction term									
Work-life programs \times human resource system			.16*			-.08			-.05
R^2	.03	.07	.19	.08	.19	.20	.08	.28	.32
F	1.32	2.82*	5.78***	3.12*	6.62***	4.46***	4.66**	15.51***	11.93**
ΔR^2	.03	.04	.12	.08	.12	.01	.08	.20	.04
F for ΔR^2	1.32	7.18**	10.97**	3.12*	15.87***	0.31	4.66**	44.23***	3.72*

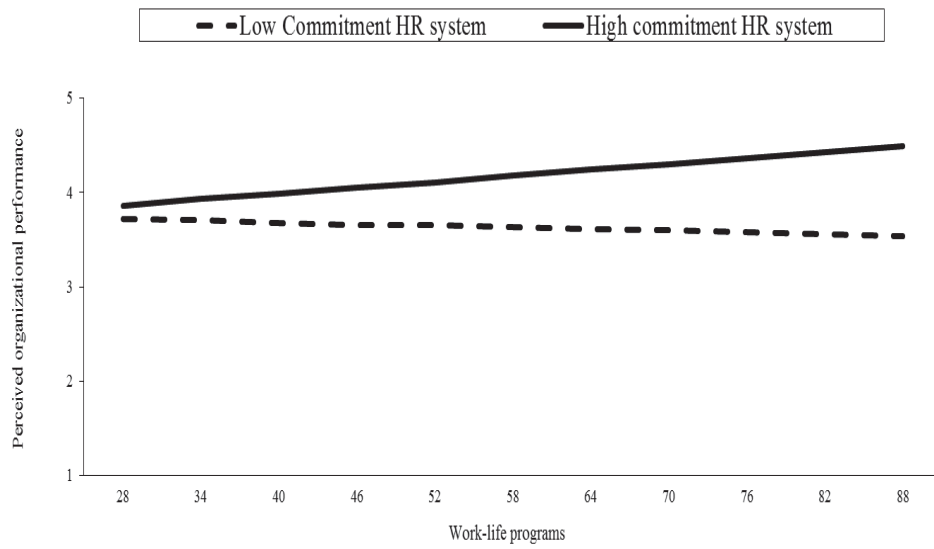
$n = 160$ (Perceived organisational performance), 114 (Profit margin), 162 (Corporate social responsibility)

Standardised coefficients are reported

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

Figure caption:

Figure 1. Interaction effects of work–life programs and human resource system



Appendix 1: Variable measures and sources

Variable	Items	Source, response choices & coding
Work-life programs	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. On-site day care 2. Near-site day care 3. Sick childcare 4. Emergency childcare 5. Sick days for childcare/dependent care (leave for child or dependent care) 6. On-site conveniences (e.g. cafeteria, fitness centre) 7. Parental leave over and above legal entitlement 8. Adoption leave 9. Gradual return to work 10. Spouse placement 11. Supervisory training in work-life sensitivity 12. Flexitime 13. Job-sharing 14. Part-year work 15. Part-time work 16. Part-time work for professionals 17. Voluntary reduced time (work fewer hours and might return to their full time status) 18. Teleworking (working off-site) 19. Compressed week (a standard work week is compressed to fewer than five days) 20. Flexible holidays 21. Unpaid extra holidays 22. Single employees support group 23. Working parents support group 	<p>Ali and Konrad (2017)</p> <p>Does not offer (1)</p> <p>Offered to few employees (2)</p> <p>Offered to most employees (3)</p> <p>Offered to all employees (4).</p>
Perceived firm performance	<p>In comparison to other organisations that are in the same kind of business, how would you compare your organisation's overall performance during the financial year ended in 2017?</p> <p>What about the quality of products or services?</p> <p>What about the development of the organisation's products or services?</p> <p>What about the ability to attract essential employees?</p> <p>What about the ability to retain essential employee?</p> <p>What about the satisfaction of customers and clients?</p>	<p>Perry-Smith and Blum (2000)</p> <p>Much worse (1)</p> <p>Somewhat worse (2)</p> <p>Neutral (3)</p> <p>Somewhat better (4)</p>

	<p>What about the relations between management and other employees?</p> <p>What about the relations among employees in general?</p>	Much better (5)
Profit Margin	We used profit margin as a measure of objective financial performance. Financial performance is the reflection of a firm's competitive advantage, it is important to examine the impact of work-life programs on an organisation's financial performance. Data on profit margin for the year 2017–2018 were obtained from the Osiris and Orbis databases.	Data on profit margin for the year 2017–2018 were obtained from the Osiris and Orbis databases.
CSR	<p>CSR data were collected through the survey. A seven-item scale was used to measure CSR. A five-point scale was used to report on each item as follows: strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), neutral (3), agree (4), and strongly agree (5). The items are:</p> <p>Our organisation contributes to campaigns and projects that promote the well-being of the society</p> <p>Our organization implements special programs to minimise its negative impact on the natural environment</p> <p>Our organisation participates in activities which aim to protect and improve the quality of the natural environment</p> <p>Our organisation targets sustainable growth which considers future generations</p> <p>Our organisation makes investment to create a better life for future generations</p> <p>Our organisation encourages its employees to participate in voluntary activities</p> <p>Our organisation supports non-governmental/non-profit organisations</p>	<p>Turker (2009)</p> <p>Strongly disagree (1)</p> <p>Disagree (2)</p> <p>Neutral (3)</p> <p>Agree (4)</p> <p>Strongly agree (5)</p>
HR system	<p>The high commitment or low commitment HR system was measured using the five-point scale: strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), neutral (3), agree (4), and strongly agree (5). The Cronbach's alpha for this study is .78. The items are:</p> <p>Our organisation believes in providing extensive training.</p> <p>Our organisation Believes in empowerment</p> <p>Our organisation believes in highly selective staffing</p> <p>Our organisation believes in performance based pay</p> <p>Our organisation believes in broad job design</p>	<p>Arthur (1992)</p> <p>Strongly disagree (1)</p> <p>Disagree (2)</p> <p>Neutral (3)</p> <p>Agree (4)</p> <p>Strongly agree (5)</p>
Organisation size	Organisation size was calculated as the total number of full-time employees.	Alexander et al., (1995)
Organisation age	Age of the organisations was calculated according to the year the firm was founded.	Perry-Smith and Blum (2000)
Organisation type	A dummy variable was created named 'organisation type', with '1' representing 'Stand-alone' and '0' representing 'Holding or subsidiary'.	Richard et al., (2003)

Chapter 6

Paper Accepted for Publication

Work–life programs and performance in Australian organisations: The role of organisation size and industry type

This chapter presents the third manuscript in the series of three. The manuscript is titled: *Work–life programs and performance in Australian organisations: the role of organisation size and industry type*. Section 6.1 presents the details of the journal. The paper was submitted in August, 2018 to the Australia-based Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources and went through a double-blind peer review process. Associate editor of the journal and two reviewers provided comments. The paper was submitted after addressing all the comments from the reviewers. The journal accepted the revised version of the paper for publication on May 03, 2019. This paper is published in 23rd July 2019. This manuscript was also presented at the 32nd Australian & New Zealand Academy of Management (ANZAM) conference held in New Zealand, Massey University on 4-7 December, 2018.

6.1 DETAILS OF SELECTED JOURNAL

Journal: Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources

Publisher: Wiley Online Library

Scimago Journal Ranking: Organizational Behaviour and Human Resource Management:
Quartile 2



Statement of Contribution of Co-Authors for Thesis by Published Paper

The following is the suggested format for the required declaration provided at the start of any thesis chapter which includes a co-authored publication.

The authors listed below have certified that:

1. they meet the criteria for authorship in that they have participated in the conception, execution, or interpretation, of at least that part of the publication in their field of expertise;
2. they take public responsibility for their part of the publication, except for the responsible author who accepts overall responsibility for the publication;
3. there are no other authors of the publication according to these criteria;
4. potential conflicts of interest have been disclosed to (a) granting bodies, (b) the editor or publisher of journals or other publications, and (c) the head of the responsible academic unit, and
5. they agree to the use of the publication in the student's thesis and its publication on the [QUT's ePrints site](#) consistent with any limitations set by publisher requirements.

In the case of this chapter:

Title: Work-life programs and performance in Australian organisations: The role of organisation size and industry type

Publication Journal: Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources

Publication Date: May 2019 (in press)

Contributor	Statement of contribution*
Kohinur Alder	Study design, data analysis, interpretation of findings, preparation of manuscript
Signature: Kohinur Akter	
Date: 19th June 2019	
Muhammad Ali	Design of questionnaire format, data analysis and contribution to manuscript
Artemis Chang	Design of questionnaire and contribution to manuscript

Principal Supervisor Confirmation		
I have sighted email or other correspondence from all Co-authors confirming their certifying authorship. (If the Co-authors are not able to sign the form please forward their email or other correspondence confirming the certifying authorship to the RSC).		
 Dr. Muhammad Ali	QUT Verified Signature	19/06/2019 Date

6.2 SUBMITTED MANUSCRIPT

WORK–LIFE PROGRAMS AND PERFORMANCE IN AUSTRALIAN ORGANISATIONS: THE ROLE OF ORGANISATION SIZE AND INDUSTRY TYPE

Word count: 7805

Abstract

Organisations are increasingly using work–life programs to strategically manage their workforce in the competitive labour market. Extant research has investigated various outcomes of work–life programs but has had a lack of focus on organisational financial performance and context. Drawing on strategic human resource management theory, this study proposes and tests a work–life programs–performance relationship. It also investigates the moderating effects of organisation size and industry on the work–life programs–performance relationship. We used a time-lagged design and data from multiple sources to link work–life programs with firm performance in 117 organisations in Australia. The findings support the hypothesis that work–life programs are positively associated with financial performance. This study also provides pioneering evidence for moderating effects of organisation size and industry type on the work–life programs–organisational performance relationship.

Keywords: Work–life programs, financial performance, strategic human resource management theory, organisations size, industry type

Key points

1. Across industries, there is a positive relationship between work–life programs and financial performance of organisations of various sizes.
2. Large organisations with many work–life programs demonstrate high net income.
3. Manufacturing organisations with many work–life programs experience high operating revenue and net income.

INTRODUCTION

Since work–life programs are integral part of firms’ strategic value creation, their impact on organisational performance is an important topic in the fields of human resource management (Konrad & Mangel, 2000; Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000), social psychology (Allen & Russell, 1999; Hegtvedt et al., 2002) , sociology (Blair-Loy & Wharton, 2002; Glass & Estes, 1997), economics (Johnson & Provan, 1995; Whitehouse & Zetlin, 1999), industrial and organisational psychology (Ernst Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Lambert, 2000; Marks et al., 1986) and industrial relations (Batt & Valcour, 2003; Eaton, 2003). Work–life programs act as a resource building capability, which can lead to improved firm performance (Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000). One form of resource building is nurturing human capital of employees of organisations effectively (Cascio, 1989). It also facilitates human resources to be more motivated, committed and engaged in their jobs and organisations (Wright, 2008). Ultimately, this nurtures human capital directly and indirectly. However, the extent of impact depends on various internal and external conditions since organisations are constantly going through rapid changes in business environment, namely, globalisation, market competition for products and services, deregulation of markets, changing customer and investor demands, cost considerations and recessions. Considering all these factors, employers recognise the strategic importance of work–life programs (Stone & Deadrick, 2015).

The impact of work–life programs research has covered both individual effectiveness such as job satisfaction, commitment, job engagement and turnover intentions (Glass & Finley, 2002; Grover & Crooker, 1995; Wayne et al., 2006) and organisational effectiveness such as productivity level, profit, shareholder return, turnover and retention (Blazovich et al., 2013; Clifton & Shepard, 2004; Konrad & Mangel, 2000; Ngo et al., 2009; Wood & de Menezes, 2010). At the organisational level, the findings of these studies show positive, mixed and inconsistent evidence for the impact of work–life programs on firm performance (Bloom et al., 2011; Sands & Harper, 2007; Yamamoto & Matsuura, 2014).

Importantly, Liu and Wang (2011) and Yamamoto and Matsuura (2014) conducted time lag and panel studies in Taiwan and Japan based on large and various sized organisations from manufacturing, service industries and across all industries and concluded a non-significant outcome. In a similar way, Bloom et al. (2009) conducted a cross-sectional study on 732 medium-size manufacturing organisations drawing samples from the USA, UK, France, and Germany. They found that employee productivity was non-significant for work–life practices.

It is worth mentioning that they found a positive result if the management practices were controlled. There were few review studies conducted in the work–life research (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; De Menezes & Kelliher, 2011; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999) and they concluded that the economic case for work–life programs is still in the dark side. Hence, a strong business case for these programs has not yet been established. The aim of this study is to empirically test the impact of work–life programs on organisational performance.

The inconclusive findings have encouraged researchers to test the contextual moderating variables in the work–life programs–performance relationship (Johns, 2006; Ollier-Malaterre, 2009). Some of the contextual moderating variables studied in the work–life programs–performance relationship are: age and proportion of women (Perry-Smith & Blum 2000), proportion of female employees, presence of labour unions, wage level and industry (Wood & de Menezes 2010; Yanadori & Kato 2009), good management practices (Bloom et al., 2011), and high-performance work systems (Lee & Kim 2010). It is quite significant to investigate the organisational characteristics such as organisation size and industry type for better understanding of the contextual influence. A good number of researches investigated company size and industry as determinants of adopting work–life programs (Goodstein, 1994; Ingram & Simons, 1995; Konrad & Mangel, 2000; Morgan & Milliken, 1992). Very little is known how organisational characteristics (e.g., organisation size, industry type) stimulate the relationship between work–life programs and organisational performance. Some previous studies (Kossek et al., 2009; Ollier-Malaterre, 2009; Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2017) and the recent work of Perrigino et al. (2018) also suggest moderation of contextual factors combined with work–life programs might play an inexorable role in gaining sustainable human resources (e.g., millennial workforce generation). Context works as a constant configuration of stimuli, driving organisations toward achieving goals (Jabbour & Santos, 2008; Johns, 2006; Parakandi & Behery, 2016). In this study, we test these assertions by including organisation size and industry context impacting the work–life programs–performance relationship.

This study advances the field of work–life programs in five ways. *First*, it tests strategic human resource management theory (Huselid, 1995; Huselid et al., 1997) and contributes to the work–life programs and SHRM field by proposing that employees are human capital that improves the efficiency of human resources through motivation, commitment and engagement. Organisations invest into human capital through implementing work–life programs. Specifically, the paper predicts that work–life programs positively reflect on the financial performance of firms. Thus, this study provides additional evidence of a business case of work–

life programs. A unique pool of human capital contributes to higher financial performance that facilitates organisations gaining a sustained competitive advantage and subsequently, higher economic performance through strategic value creation of firms.

Second, responding to the call for examining contextual variables, this study tests the organisation size as a moderator on the relationship between work–life programs and performance of organisations. Organisation size is one of the important factors that influence economies of scales including in terms of return on investment in human capital. Moreover, this study tests the industry type as another contextual moderator on the work–life programs–performance relationship. Little is known about the implementation of work–life programs in various industry settings. Drawing on contingency theory, a study of interaction between work–life programs and industry provides a pioneering contribution towards the work–life programs–performance relationship research. *Third*, this study is conducted in the Australian context where work–life programs are increasingly becoming significant to individuals and businesses (Pocock, 2005; Pocock & Charlesworth, 2017; Pocock et al., 2013). Very few work–life programs–organisational performance relationship studies have been conducted in the Australian context at the organisation level (e.g., Ali et al., 2015). The findings stimulate awareness of work–life issues among employers, unions, and government that might lead to more focus on work–life issues in Australia (Pocock, 2003; Pocock & Charlesworth, 2017).

Work–life programs and financial performance of firms

We use strategic human resource management theory (SHRM) to predict the relationship between work–life programs and financial performance of organisations (Devanna et al., 1981; Huselid, 1995; Wright & McMahan, 1992). Researchers in the HR field have used SHRM theory to illuminate the people resources and performance of organisations (Collins & Clark, 2003; King & Zeithaml, 2001). SHRM theory suggests that human resource policies and practices impact employees’ knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) and motivation, commitment and engagement (MCEs), which in turn improve customer and operational outcomes leading to superior financial performance (Wright, 2008). Work–life programs can increase employees’ motivation, commitment and engagement (MCE) that directly or indirectly influence the job performance of employees and essentially, performance of organisations (Wright, 2008). For instance, positive feelings toward work–life programs result in the highly motivated task behaviour of employees whereas negative feelings toward a lack of work–life programs might affect job performance negatively. By influencing how human resources

properly use their knowledge, skills, competencies, relationships and abilities, work–life programs are more likely to contribute to the strategic value of organisations (Brough & Kalliath, 2009; Poelmans et al., 2008).

It is important to note that there are considerable financial and other costs associated with work–life programs in organisations (Pasamar & Valle Cabrera, 2013; Van Buren III et al., 2011). Offsetting the strategic benefits of work–life programs against costs is a crucial task for top-level management since business success depends on to what extent human resource practices are linked with the business objectives and vision. Work–life programs can add strategic value to organisations in several ways. Firstly, it might influence motivation of employees to put discretionary efforts into their job and in turn, they stay long-term with the organisation and achieve business objectives (Stone & Deadrick, 2015). Secondly, it might enhance their utmost commitment to achieve business objectives through increasing motivation, commitment and engagement of employees that also facilitates nurturing the human capital of organisations (Wright, 2008). Thirdly, these programs might inspire employees to invest their emotional involvement, cognitive abilities, physical energy with full vigour and dedication toward achieving organisational goals (Combs et al., 2006; Jiang et al., 2012; Wright et al., 2005).

Indeed, implementing work–life programs is a strategic initiative in organisations to foster the high levels of discretionary efforts of employees that translate into higher productivity and performance. The strategic capability of work–life programs links employee efforts, engagement and dedication to the organisational outcomes through their outstanding work performance (Becker & Huselid, 2006). Thus, SHRM theory has been widely adopted in predicting the effectiveness of work–life programs on organisational performance (Bloom et al., 2011; Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000; Sands & Harper, 2007) and these work–life programs are likely to improve various dimensions of firm performance. For instance, Sands and Harper (2007) investigated four family-friendly benefits in 13 large organisations and found that telecommuting was positively associated with a firm’s financial performance. In sum, we expect a significant positive relationship between work–life programs and financial performance of organisations in the Australian context:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Work–life programs in organisations are positively associated with financial performance.

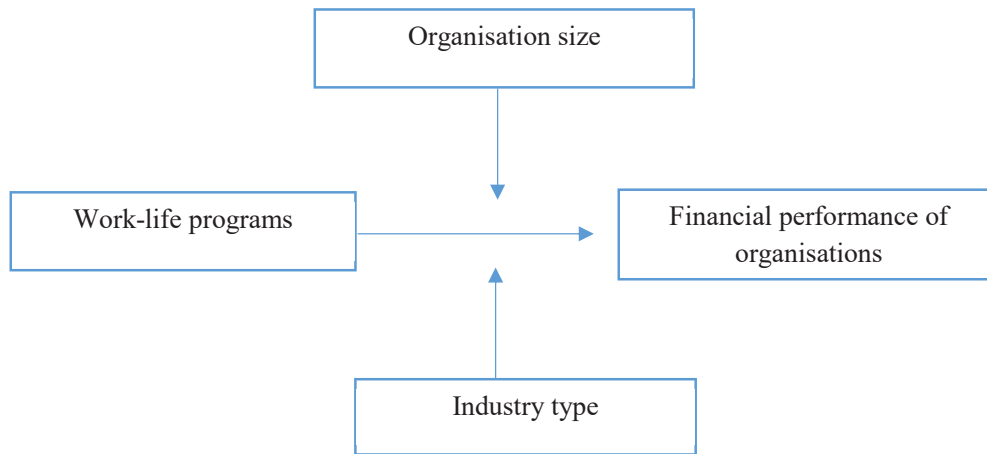


Figure 1. Proposed model of work-life programs and organisational outcome.

Moderating effects of the size of firms

The moderating effect of a firm's size on the work–life programs–firm performance relationship can be predicted through the lens of SHRM theory and contingency theory (Donaldson, 2001; Huselid, 1995). The size of the organisation is an important factor for the work–life programs–firm performance relationship. Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) (2001) defines a small organisation as ones which employ less than 20 people; medium organisations as ones which employ more than 20 and less than 200 employees; and large organisations as ones whose workforce exceeds 200 employees. For large organisations, the effective execution of family-friendly initiatives is a matter of economies of scale and organisational legitimacy, which affirms that organisations comply with social norms and values (Goodstein, 1994; Ingram & Simons, 1995; Osterman, 1995). They can more easily address the needs of employees through a large number of work–life programs (Friedman, 2001). This suggests that large organisations have sufficient resources to incur the associated costs to *effectively* implement work–life programs (Gray & Mabey, 2005; Maxwell & McDougall, 2004). Also, large organisations can manage external challenges in the environment and are able to maintain their investments in costly HR practices to attract and retain talents. On the contrary, small and medium organisations have resource constraints and cost considerations for not effectively implementing work–life programs. In many cases, small and medium organisations do not have a formal HR department to manage their workforce. In addition, Ponzellini (2006) argued that large firms are more efficient at executing work–life programs to retain employees and avoiding

the costs of recruitment, whereas small and medium enterprises cannot continue to invest in these programs due to high costs.

No prior studies have examined the role of organisation size on the relationship between work–life programs and organisational performance. Investigating organisation size as a moderator might provide a deeper insight into how firms differ in capitalising on the benefits of work–life programs. Thus, we hypothesise the following:

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Size of firms moderates the relationship between work–life programs and financial performance such that the positive relationship will be stronger in large organisations and weaker in small and medium organisations.

Moderating effects of industry type

The benefits of work–life programs may vary in organisations across industries, which affects their ability to gain a competitive advantage. For instance, service firms (e.g., financial firms, insurance companies, hospitals, call centres) mostly emphasise employee-customer interaction. Thus, employees' creativity, commitment and market insights are required to serve customers, and employers are eager to satisfy employees by providing work–life programs (Osterman, 1995; Poelmans et al., 2003). Therefore, organisations with advanced programs to support employees' work–life demands are more likely to have employees who produce many satisfied customers through their high quality of interaction. Additionally, workforce composition of the service sector is another contributing factor. Service firms that employ knowledge workers and women are more concerned about the effective implementation of work–life programs compared to manufacturing firms (Morgan & Milliken, 1992; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004; Poelmans et al., 2003; Ponzellini, 2006). Importantly, in this information and technology age, the global economy is emphasising the service sector, as it involves knowledge-intensive activities and offers enormous job creation (Quinn, 1999; Van Biema & Greenwald, 1996).

Manufacturing organisations focus more on tangible resources (such as technology), which is imitable (Hitt et al., 1998) and focus less on employee–customer interaction aspects. In addition, manufacturing firms concentrate mainly on advancing their production or process technologies, which can be imitated by competitors rather than emphasising HR initiatives like work–life programs (Morris & Johnston, 1987). They are generally not keen to implement work–life programs compared to the service firms (Konrad & Mangel, 2000), whereas they focus on advanced technology, which is readily available to other firms in a similar industry to

achieve a competitive advantage (Barney, 1991). In this regard, Datta et al. (2005) documented some limitations of the manufacturing industry for the implementation of any HR systems. Past studies also found non-significant effect of work–life programs in manufacturing industry (Bloom et al., 2011; Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012). They used industry workforce composition to explain their findings. For instance, in Spain, the metal manufacturing sectors employ eight males among each ten workers. It is important to note that work–life practices are less important to male workers (Cegarra-Leiva et al., 2012). Hence, the plausible explanation might be that work–life practices benefit those industries comprising more females in the workforce rather than males (Goodstein, 1994; Poelmans et al., 2003).

There is a lack of research in the manufacturing sector in both developed and emerging markets. Most past studies were conducted in either manufacturing or service sectors in various contexts that cannot be generalised across industries. For instance, Bloom et al. (2011) find that manufacturing companies of multi-country samples have non-significant effect for work–life programs, whereas Avgar et al. (2011) document the significant positive outcome for work–life programs in the UK service sector. Thus, it is very important to investigate in the single country context whether work–life programs affect organisational performance differently for manufacturing or service organisations.

Hypothesis 3 (H3): Industry type moderates the work–life programs–financial performance such that positive relationship will be stronger in the services industry and weaker in the manufacturing industry.

METHODS

We used a time-lagged research design with the survey and archival data sources to test the predictions of the research. Data were collected through an HR manager survey conducted in 2017 and the OSIRIS and ORBIS databases in 2018.

Sample and data collection

In October 2017, an online survey with a cover letter was sent to relevant HR people (HR managers/ HR directors/CEOs/managing directors) at 2000 public and private organisations in Australia with 50+ employees. Out of 2000, 192 organisations completed the survey. After adjusting for 23 undelivered emails, the response rate for the survey was 9.7%. The low response rate can be ascribed to factors such as managers of some firms being officially restricted from participating in surveys (Baruch & Holtom, 2008) and HR and senior managers

being over-surveyed in general (Cycyota & Harrison, 2006). The respondents reported on work–life programs, HR systems, organisation size, industry type, organisation type and organisation age, for the year 2017. In July/August 2018, data on work–life programs were matched with data on financial performance for the year 2018 from financial databases. The low response rate is acceptable since the participating organisations in this study represent a wide range of firms across various sizes and industries. The size of organisations ranges from 60 employees to 40,000 employees (mean 1856.91). The participating organisations represented all nine industry groups.

Measures

Predictor

Work–life programs were measured using a 23-item scale from Ali and Konrad (2017), with a reliability of 0.77. The 23 items cover a range of work–family programs offered in organisations. The response options comprise: does not offer (coded as 1), offered to few employees (coded as 2), offered to most employees (coded as 3) and offered to all employees (coded as 4). The response options helped assess how work–life programs may benefit the maximum number of employees. The Cronbach alpha of this study for the scales of work–life programs is .83.

Outcomes

Multiple performance measures are used, as a single measure might not reflect the effectiveness of various employee activities (van Veen-Dirks, 2010). This study uses objective performance measures, which correspond to the employees' functions and their subsequent effect on the firm performance (Frederiksen et al., 2017; Singh et al., 2016). This study uses two measures of financial performance: *net income* and *operating revenue*. Since financial performance is the reflection of the competitive advantage of firms, it is noteworthy to investigate the impact of work–life programs on the financial performance of organisations. The financial performance of firms generally depends on revenue enhancement and cost reduction. Research shows that investments into HRM practices are positively associated with the financial outcome of firms (Cascio, 1991). Data on net income and operating revenue for the year 2017-2018 were obtained from the OSIRIS and ORBIS databases.

Moderators

Organisation size is operationalised as the total number of employees in any particular year (Huselid, 1995). As in previous research, organisation size is calculated as the total number of full-time employees (Ali & Konrad 2017). One standard deviation below average was used for small/medium organisations, and one standard deviation above average was used for large organisations.

The sample organisations are divided into services and manufacturing following the nine Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) industry groups (Ali et al., 2011). Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing, Construction, Mining and manufacturing are classified into manufacturing category. Transportation, Communications, Electric, Gas and Sanitary Services, Retail Trade, Wholesale Trade, Finance, Insurance and Real Estate Services are categorised as service industry (Richard et al., 2007). A dummy variable named “Industry” is created with ‘0’ representing manufacturing and ‘1’ representing services.

Controls

The control variables used for this study are organisation age and organisation type. Organisation age may have a significant impact on the usage of work–life programs and firm performance. Age of the organisations is operationalised according to the year the firm was founded (Jackson et al., 1991; Perry-Smith & Blum 2000). The analysis also controls for organisation type since holding and subsidiary companies have the advantage of greater financial resources than stand-alone firms (Richard et al., 2003). A dummy variable is created named “organisation type”, with ‘0’ representing ‘Holding or subsidiary’ and ‘1’ representing ‘Stand-alone’.

RESULTS

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations and correlation coefficients for all variables. The sample characteristics of all these variables are similar to prior studies. For instance, a recent study by Ali and Konard (2017) in an Australian context documented mean and standard deviation of key variable ‘work–life programs’ as 48.39 and 8.64 respectively. We found almost similar results with mean of 49.67 and standard deviation of 10.22. We reported mean organisation size of 1856.91 which is also very similar to this recent study. In our sample, about 59% of the organisations are service whereas Ali and Konard (2017) reported 58%. All other

control variables including organisation age and organisation type are also consistent with prior studies.

The correlation matrix shows univariate relationship among the variables. Both the outcome variables are significantly and positively correlated with work–life programs. In particular, net income and operating revenue are significant at $p < .01$ and $p < .05$. Though only suggestive, these positive associations suggest that work–life programs increase financial performance of firms. With respect to the correlation between financial performance variables and other control variables, we find positive and significant correlation among financial performance variables, organisation age and organisation size. Overall, all the variables have their expected signs and, hence, provide support for the validity of our measures and further analysis.

We used hierarchical multiple regression to test the hypotheses.¹ The outcome variables are net income and operating revenue, which capture the financial performance of organisations. The predictor and organisation size (one of the moderators) were centred. H1 proposed that work–life programs would be positively associated with financial performance of organisations. To test H1, net income and operating revenue of firms were separately regressed on work–life programs (see Table 2). The relevant control variables were entered in step 1 (see Model 1 Columns in Table 2), followed by work–life programs in step 2 (see Model 2 Columns in Table 2). The results indicate that work–life programs have a significant positive effect on both net income ($\beta = .29, p < .01$) and operating revenue ($\beta = .20, p < .05$) of organisations. Therefore, the results fully support H1.

<Insert Table 1 about here>

<Insert Table 2 about here>

H2 proposed that large firms positively moderate the relationship between work–life programs and financial performance. H3 proposed that the relationship between work–life programs and financial performance would be stronger in service organisations than in manufacturing organisations. We created two interaction terms, “Work–life programs×Organisation size” and “Work–life programs×Industry”. These interaction variables

¹ With the possibility of influencing the results by high skewed distribution or outliers of Organisation size, we also checked the robustness of our results by including log transformation of Organisation size into our models. The results remain unchanged. The results are reported in Appendix 2.

along with all controls, predictor, and moderators are regressed on outcome variables. The results in Table 2 Model 3 Columns indicate that work–life programs×organisation size has a significant positive relationship with net income ($\beta = .73, p < .001$). The interaction term “Work–life programs×Industry” was negative for both the outcome variables: net income ($\beta = -.35, p < .001$) and operating revenue ($\beta = -.40, p < .001$).

We used Modprobe to generate data for plotting and to calculate slopes (Hayes & Matthes, 2009). Figure 2 illustrates the relationship between work–life programs and net income for organisations, with large organisations vs. small organisations. The positive relationship is stronger in large organisations ($b = 67468, p < .001$) than in small organisations ($b = 17975, n.s.$). The significant positive relationship between work–life programs and net income in large organisations partially supports H2. Figure 3 demonstrates a positive and significant work–life programs–net income relationship for manufacturing organisations ($b=31930, p < .01$), and negative but non-significant relationship for service organisations ($b= -14000, n.s.$). Figure 4 illustrates similar relationships for manufacturing organisations ($b= 358666, p < .01$) and service organisations ($b = -32743, n.s.$) for operating revenue. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

<Insert Figure 2 about here>

<Insert Figure 3 about here>

<Insert Figure 4 about here>

DISCUSSION

The aim of this study was to examine whether work–life programs are positively associated with financial performance of organisations and whether this relationship is moderated by organisation size and industry type. This study presents evidence of a positive association between work–life programs and organisations’ financial performance, and moderating effects of the organisation size and industry type on the work–life programs–financial performance relationship.

Work–life programs and financial performance

The results indicate that there is a positive relationship between work–life programs and both net income and operating revenue. This study contributes to a growing body of work–life literature while supporting the business case for work–life programs (e.g., Arthur & Cook,

2004; Avgar et al., 2011). The positive linkage supports strategic human resource management theory, which implies that these programs act as motivating factors to develop and nurture human capital of firms. These programs also facilitate employees' motivation, commitment or engagement reflected in their contribution to organisations. Human capital can be economically valuable and can provide multi-dimensional advantages to firms once it is manifested in their performance (Snell & Dean Jr, 1992). This indicates that firms can achieve strategic opportunities through work–life programs.

Moderating effects of the organisation size

It is evident from this study that the organisation size moderates the relationship between work–life programs and net income. Findings suggest that large organisations with work–life programs demonstrate high net income. Large organisations can easily execute sophisticated staffing (Terpstra & Rozell, 1993), adopt formal performance appraisal systems for employees (De Kok & Uhlaner, 2001; Jack et al., 2006), offer better career opportunities and extrinsic rewards (Baron et al., 1986; Kalleberg & Van Buren, 1996; Wallace & Kay, 2009), invest in extensive training and development (De Kok & Uhlaner, 2001; Saari et al., 1988) and thus, can build a large pool of human capital through developing an internal labour market (Baron et al., 1986; Wallace & Kay, 2009). Moreover, large organisations can focus on the strategic opportunities through linking HR strategy (work–life programs) with organisation's vision (Edwards & Ram, 2009). The results of this study support strategic human resource management theory (SHRM) (Huselid, 1995) since large organisations can focus on better HR practices (e.g., work–life programs), which eventually enhances firm performance and sustainability (Ferris et al., 2004; Wright et al., 2005).

Moderating effects of the industry type

The findings indicate that industry type moderates the relationship between work–life programs and both net income and operating income. The results do not support our arguments that service organisations capitalise more on the benefits of work–life programs. Rather, results indicate that the positive effects of work–life programs are highly marked in the manufacturing organisations, with non-significant effects in service organisations. The results of this study support organisational contingency theories (Galbraith, 2007; Jay, 1973). The findings also support the previous research of Snell and Dean Jr (1992) that focused on the manufacturing sector and found positive association. These findings indicate that although manufacturing firms are more likely to focus on advanced technology and other tangible resources, they are

also emphasising employee resources, creativity, and innovation (Snell & Dean Jr, 1992). In Australia, the manufacturing sector also values business research and development and particularly innovation to boost productivity as well as to respond to global opportunities and challenges (Dodgson et al., 2011).

Theoretical and research contributions

The results of this study have several theoretical and research contributions. First, the effects of work–life programs on both financial performance outcomes provide strong support for SHRM theory (Huselid, 1995). The findings strengthen the SHRM theory argument that various work–life practices enable firms to develop and nurture human capital since employees are an important aspect of value creation for firms to take strategic opportunities (Mayson & Barrett, 2006). In the long run, this unique human capital boosts the performance of organisations in a number of ways. The human capital is not imitable by rival firms in the competitive market (Buller & McEvoy, 2012). Moreover, long-term survival and success of firms depend on a firm’s wide pool of capable human capital. Work–life programs act as one of the motivating factors to employees, which make them highly engaged in work and dedicated to organisations. The retention rate of employees can also be higher for providing work–life programs (Deery, 2008). Organisations can achieve synergistic advantages through these programs since it helps employees to satisfy multiple stakeholders in their domain of greater life (Lengnick-Hall et al., 2009).

Second, the results support contingency theory through illustrating a pioneering moderating effect of organisation size on the relationship between work–life programs and organisational performance (Huselid, 1995). The results suggest that large organisations have sufficient resources to invest in work–life programs to retain valuable and unique human capital. Organisations face considerable costs and challenges in the environment to provide these benefits to their workforce (Bayo-Moriones & Merino-Díaz de Cerio, 2001). Since large organisations are bounded by legitimacy, are socially responsive, and industry norms and can comply with formal and sophisticated HR practices, they utilise work–life programs more effectively and efficiently (Mayson & Barrett, 2006) than small and medium organisations.

Third, the findings suggest the differential impact of work–life programs on the firm performance across industries, not explained by work–life theories. The results indicate the positive effects of work–life programs only in the manufacturing industry. This strengthens the evidence provided by Snell and Dean Jr (1992). They empirically examined the importance of

various HR practices in the advanced manufacturing organisations and found a positive relationship. Manufacturing industry focuses on the resources of creativity, innovation, research and development and hence they invest more in the economically valuable human capital through offering work–life programs (Snell & Dean Jr, 1992). Our results suggest that work–life programs might need to be executed differently in various industries to fully capitalise on the benefits of these programs.

Practical contributions

This study also offers several practical implications. The findings related to the association between work–life programs and financial performance strengthen the business case. There has been research conducted to justify work–life programs in workplaces (Arthur & Cook, 2004; Bloom et al., 2011). However, employers struggle to identify evidence-based work–life programs which can justify the investments (Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2017; Sweet et al., 2014). This study’s finding provides additional evidence for the economic case of a wide range of work–life programs. The strong positive relationship between work–life programs and both performance outcomes found in this research can help HR managers to seek commitment from the top management team.

The findings provide an economic case for managers and practitioners for sustainable HR practices (Molteni & Pedrini, 2010; Parakandi & Behery, 2016). Nowadays, organisations invest resources in work–life programs to adjust with dynamic organisational structures and to comply with government regulations (protection for families, gender equality etc.) (Ernst Kossek et al., 2010). In fact, these investments in human capital enable organisations to remain competitive in the market and to respond to the diverse demographics of the workforce. This finding will help managers to justify the economic rationales of their investment and thus, organisations might achieve an economic equilibrium. Also, this economic case of work–life programs might strengthen organisations to generate sustainable HR practices for internal as well as external stakeholders (Pasamar & Valle Cabrera, 2013). This helps Australian managers and those in other countries to focus work–life policy and strategies more broadly.

The findings of this study help managers to understand the contextual management of work–life programs. The findings provide new insights to managers that organisations of various sizes need to deal with HRM issues, specifically, work–life programs in different ways. HR practices in large firms are not the same as in small firms (Bayo-Moriones & Merino-Díaz de Cerio, 2001). Similarly, the finding of this paper facilitates managers and practitioners to

understand the differential effectiveness of work–life programs in various industry settings. Positive impact of work–life programs in the manufacturing sector in Australia is a pioneering finding for policy makers and practitioners since Australia has been focusing more on high-skill manufacturing and innovation-intensive sectors.

LIMITATIONS

This study has five main limitations. First, it does not provide direct support to the SHRM theory. Rather, it uses the SHRM theory to derive testable predictions of this study (Huselid, 1995). Second, our study is conducted at the organisational level and we focus on the number of work–life programs offered by organisations rather than the usage of programs by their employees. Employee uptake or perception of programs can be measured at the individual level which is beyond the scope of the study. Third, we are also unable to take into account how effectively work–life programs were implemented in organisations (Grover & Crooker, 1995). The proper execution of work–life programs may strengthen the strategic impact of these programs (Ryan & Kossek, 2008). Fourth, the sample of this study comprises only for-profit organisations and, therefore, the findings may not be directly generalizable to not-for-profit organisations.

Fifth, sample size is another limitation of this study. HR managers were respondents of this study and at the executive level, the response rate is very low (Baruch & Holtom, 2008). Although large sample size indicates larger representation of the population that ensures higher credibility of the findings (Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007), surveying top managers or managers at the executive level is a critical task for their higher response rate (Cycyota & Harrison, 2006). Some companies restrict top managers to provide company-level data to any external stakeholders. Fenton-O'Creevy (1996) provided a few valid reasons for the low response rate of managers (e.g., managers are very busy, they consider surveys are not relevant to them). To mitigate this limitation, this study also has taken non-response bias financial data from OSIRIS and ORBIS database.

REFERENCES

- Akter, K., Ali, M., & Chang, A. (2016). Work–life programs and organizational outcomes: a systematic literature review, in *Proceedings of the 30th Australian & New Zealand Academy of Management (ANZAM) Conference*, QUT Business School, Brisbane, QLD, p. 324.
- Ali, M., & Konrad, A. M. (2017). Antecedents and consequences of diversity and equality management systems: The importance of gender diversity in the TMT and lower to middle management, *European Management Journal*, 35(4), 440-453.
- Ali, M., Kulik, C. T., & Metz, I. (2011). The gender diversity–performance relationship in services and manufacturing organizations *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(7), 1464-1485.
- Ali, M., Metz, I., & Kulik, C. T. (2015). The impact of work–family programs on the relationship between gender diversity and performance, *Human Resource Management*, 54(4), 553-576.
- Allen, T. D., & Russell, J. E. (1999). Parental Leave of Absence: Some Not So Family-Friendly Implications. *Journal of applied social psychology*, 29(1), 166-191.
- Arthur, M. M., & Cook, A. (2004). Taking stock of work–family initiatives: How announcements of “family-friendly” human resource decisions affect shareholder value. *Industrial & Labor Relations Review*, 57(4), 599-613.
- Avgar, A. C., Givan, R. K., & Liu, M. (2011). A balancing act: Work–life balance and multiple stakeholder outcomes in hospitals. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 49(4), 717-741.
- Barney, J. (1991). Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage. *Journal of management*, 17(1), 99-120.
- Baron, J. N., Davis-Blake, A., & Bielby, W. T. (1986). The structure of opportunity: How promotion ladders vary within and among organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 248-273.
- Baruch, Y., & Holtom, B. C. (2008). Survey response rate levels and trends in organizational research. *Human relations*, 61(8), 1139-1160.
- Batt, R., & Valcour, P. M. (2003). Human resources practices as predictors of work- family outcomes and employee turnover. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society*, 42(2), 189-220.
- Bayo-Moriones, J. A., & Merino-Díaz de Cerio, J. (2001). Size and HRM in the Spanish manufacturing industry. *Employee relations*, 23(2), 188-207.
- Beauregard, T. A., & Henry, L. C. (2009). Making the link between work-life balance practices and organizational performance. *Human resource management review*, 19(1), 9-22.
- Becker, B. E., & Huselid, M. A. (2006). Strategic human resources management: where do we go from here? *Journal of management*, 32(6), 898-925.
- Blair-Loy, M., & Wharton, A. S. (2002). Employees' use of work-family policies and the workplace social context. *Social Forces*, 80(3), 813-845.

- Blazovich, J. L., Smith, K. T., & Smith, M. (2013). Employee-Friendly Companies and Work-Life Balance: Is There an Impact on Financial Performance and Risk Level? *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications and Conflict*, Forthcoming.
- Bloom, N., Kretschmer, T., & Van Reenan, J. (2009). Work-life balance, management practices and productivity. In *International differences in the business practices and productivity of firms* (pp. 15-54): University of Chicago Press.
- Bloom, N., Kretschmer, T., & Van Reenen, J. (2011). Are family- friendly workplace practices a valuable firm resource? *Strategic Management Journal*, 32(4), 343-367.
- Blum, T. C., Fields, D. L., & Goodman, J. S. (1994). Organization-level determinants of women in management. *Academy of Management journal*, 37(2), 241-268.
- Brough, P., & Kalliath, T. (2009). Work–family balance: Theoretical and empirical advancements. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30(5), 581-585.
- Buller, P. F., & McEvoy, G. M. (2012). Strategy, human resource management and performance: Sharpening line of sight. *Human resource management review*, 22(1), 43-56.
- Cascio, W. F. (1989). *Managing human resources*. McGraw-Hill New York, NY.
- Cascio, W. F. (1991). *Costing human resources*. South-Western Educational Publishing, Cincinnati.
- Cegarra-Leiva, D., Sánchez-Vidal, M. E., & Gabriel Cegarra-Navarro, J. (2012). Understanding the link between work life balance practices and organisational outcomes in SMEs: The mediating effect of a supportive culture. *Personnel Review*, 41(3), 359-379.
- Clifton, T. J., & Shepard, E. (2004). Work and family programs and productivity: Estimates applying a production function model. *International Journal of Manpower*, 25(8), 714-728.
- Collins, C. J., & Clark, K. D. (2003). Strategic human resource practices, top management team social networks, and firm performance: The role of human resource practices in creating organizational competitive advantage. *Academy of management Journal*, 46(6), 740-751.
- Combs, J., Liu, Y., Hall, A., & Ketchen, D. (2006). How much do high- performance work practices matter? A meta- analysis of their effects on organizational performance. *Personnel psychology*, 59(3), 501-528.
- Cycyota, C. S., & Harrison, D. A. (2006). What (not) to expect when surveying executives: A meta-analysis of top manager response rates and techniques over time. *Organizational Research Methods*, 9(2), 133-160.
- Datta, D. K., Guthrie, J. P., & Wright, P. M. (2005). Human resource management and labor productivity: does industry matter? *Academy of management Journal*, 48(1), 135-145.
- De Kok, J., & Uhlaner, L. M. (2001). Organization context and human resource management in the small firm. *Small business economics*, 17(4), 273-291.
- De Menezes, L. M., & Kelliher, C. (2011). Flexible working and performance: A systematic review of the evidence for a business case. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 13(4), 452-474.

- Deery, M. (2008). Talent management, work-life balance and retention strategies. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 20(7), 792-806.
- Devanna, M. A., Fombrun, C., & Tichy, N. (1981). Human resources management: A strategic perspective. *Organizational Dynamics*, 9(3), 51-67.
- Dodgson, M., Hughes, A., Foster, J., & Metcalfe, S. (2011). Systems thinking, market failure, and the development of innovation policy: The case of Australia. *Research Policy*, 40(9), 1145-1156.
- Donaldson, L. (2001). *The contingency theory of organizations*. Sage.
- Eaton, S. C. (2003). If you can use them: Flexibility policies, organizational commitment, and perceived performance. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society*, 42(2), 145-167.
- Edwards, P., & Ram, M. (2009). *HRM in small firms: Respecting and regulating informality*. The Sage handbook of human resource management, 524-540.
- Ernst Kossek, E., Lewis, S., & Hammer, L. B. (2010). Work—life initiatives and organizational change: Overcoming mixed messages to move from the margin to the mainstream. *Human Relations*, 63(1), 3-19.
- Ernst Kossek, E., & Ozeki, C. (1998). Work–family conflict, policies, and the job–life satisfaction relationship: A review and directions for organizational behavior–human resources research. *Journal of applied psychology*, 83(2), 139.
- Fenton-O'Creevy, M. (1996). The middle manager: friend or foe of employee involvement. *Journal of applied management studies*, 5(1), 47-52.
- Ferris, G. R., Hall, A. T., Royle, M. T., & Martocchio, J. J. (2004). Theoretical Development in the Field of Human Resources Management: Issues and Challenges for the Future. *Organizational Analysis* (15517470), 12(3).
- Frederiksen, A., Lange, F., & Kriechel, B. (2017). Subjective performance evaluations and employee careers. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 134, 408-429.
- Friedman, D. E. (2001). Employer supports for parents with young children. The future of children, 63-77.
- Galbraith, J. R. (2007). *Designing Complex Organizations* (Addison-Wesley series on organization development).
- Glass, J. L., & Estes, S. B. (1997). The family responsive workplace. *Annual review of sociology*, 23(1), 289-313.
- Glass, J. L., & Finley, A. (2002). Coverage and effectiveness of family-responsive workplace policies. *Human resource management review*, 12(3), 313-337.
- Goodstein, J. D. (1994). Institutional pressures and strategic responsiveness: Employer involvement in work-family issues. *Academy of Management journal*, 37(2), 350-382.
- Gray, C., & Mabey, C. (2005). Management development key differences between small and large businesses in Europe. *International small business journal*, 23(5), 467-485.

- Grover, S. L., & Crooker, K. J. (1995). Who appreciates family- responsive human resource policies: The impact of family- friendly policies on the organizational attachment of parents and non-parents. *Personnel psychology*, 48(2), 271-288.
- Hayes, A. F., & Matthes, J. (2009). Computational procedures for probing interactions in OLS and logistic regression: SPSS and SAS implementations. *Behavior research methods*, 41(3), 924-936.
- Hegtvedt, K. A., Clay-Warner, J., & Ferrigno, E. D. (2002). Reactions to injustice: Factors affecting workers' resentment toward family-friendly policies. *Social psychology quarterly*, 386-400.
- Hitt, M. A., Gimeno, J., & Hoskisson, R. E. (1998). Current and future research methods in strategic management. *Organizational Research Methods*, 1(1), 6-44.
- Huselid, M. A. (1995). The impact of human resource management practices on turnover, productivity, and corporate financial performance. *Academy of management journal*, 38(3), 635-672.
- Huselid, M. A., Jackson, S. E., & Schuler, R. S. (1997). Technical and strategic human resources management effectiveness as determinants of firm performance. *Academy of Management journal*, 40(1), 171-188.
- Ingram, P., & Simons, T. (1995). Institutional and resource dependence determinants of responsiveness to work-family issues. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(5), 1466-1482.
- Jabbour, C. J. C., & Santos, F. C. A. (2008). The central role of human resource management in the search for sustainable organizations. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19(12), 2133-2154.
- Jack, S., Hyman, J., & Osborne, F. (2006). Small entrepreneurial ventures culture, change and the impact on HRM: A critical review. *Human Resource Management Review*, 16(4), 456-466.
- Jay, G. (Singer-songwriter). (1973). *Designing complex organizations*. On: New York, Addison-Wesley.
- Jiang, K., Lepak, D. P., Hu, J., & Baer, J. C. (2012). How does human resource management influence organizational outcomes? A meta-analytic investigation of mediating mechanisms. *Academy of management Journal*, 55(6), 1264-1294.
- Johns, G. (2006). The essential impact of context on organizational behavior. *Academy of management review*, 31(2), 386-408.
- Johnson, N. B., & Provan, K. G. (1995). The relationship between work/family benefits and earnings: A test of competing predictions. *The Journal of socio-economics*, 24(4), 571-584.
- Kalleberg, A. L., & Van Buren, M. E. (1996). Is bigger better? Explaining the relationship between organization size and job rewards. *American sociological review*, 47-66.
- King, A. W., & Zeithaml, C. P. (2001). Competencies and firm performance: Examining the causal ambiguity paradox. *Strategic management journal*, 75-99.

- Konrad, A. M., & Mangel, R. (2000). The impact of work- life programs on firm productivity. *Strategic Management Journal*, 21(12), 1225-1237.
- Kossek, E. E., & Ozeki, C. (1999). Bridging the work-family policy and productivity gap: A literature review. *Community, Work & Family*, 2(1), 7-32.
- Lambert, S. J. (2000). Added benefits: The link between work-life benefits and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of management Journal*, 43(5), 801-815.
- Lengnick-Hall, M. L., Lengnick-Hall, C. A., Andrade, L. S., & Drake, B. (2009). Strategic human resource management: The evolution of the field. *Human resource management review*, 19(2), 64-85.
- Liu, N.-C., & Wang, C.-Y. (2011). Searching for a balance: work–family practices, work–team design, and organizational performance. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(10), 2071-2085.
- Marks, M. L., Mirvis, P. H., Hackett, E. J., & Grady, J. F. (1986). Employee participation in a quality circle program: Impact on quality of work life, productivity, and absenteeism. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(1), 61.
- Maxwell, G. A., & McDougall, M. (2004). Work–life balance: Exploring the connections between levels of influence in the UK public sector. *Public Management Review*, 6(3), 377-393.
- Mayson, S., & Barrett, R. (2006). The ‘science’ and ‘practice’ of HRM in small firms. *Human resource management review*, 16(4), 447-455.
- Molteni, M., & Pedrini, M. (2010). In search of socio-economic syntheses. *Journal of Management Development*, 29(7/8), 626-636.
- Morgan, H., & Milliken, F. J. (1992). Keys to action: Understanding differences in organizations' responsiveness to work- and- family issues. *Human Resource Management*, 31(3), 227-248.
- Morris, B., & Johnston, R. (1987). Dealing with inherent variability: The difference between manufacturing and service? *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, 7(4), 13-22.
- Ngo, H. y., Foley, S., & Loi, R. (2009). Family friendly work practices, organizational climate, and firm performance: A study of multinational corporations in Hong Kong. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30(5), 665-680.
- Ollier-Malaterre, A. (2009). Organizational work–life initiatives: context matters: France compared to the UK and the US. *Community, Work & Family*, 12(2), 159-178.
- Ollier-Malaterre, A., & Foucreault, A. (2017). Cross-national work-life research: Cultural and structural impacts for individuals and organizations. *Journal of Management*, 43(1), 111-136.
- Osterman, P. (1995). Work/family programs and the employment relationship. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 681-700.

- Parakandi, M., & Behery, M. (2016). Sustainable human resources: Examining the status of organizational work–life balance practices in the United Arab Emirates. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 55, 1370-1379.
- Pasamar, S., & Valle Cabrera, R. (2013). Work-life balance under challenging financial and economic conditions. *International Journal of Manpower*, 34(8), 961-974.
- Perrigino, M. B., Dunford, B. B., & Wilson, K. S. (2018). Work–Family Backlash: The “Dark Side” of Work–Life Balance (WLB) Policies. *Academy of Management Annals*, 12(2), 600-630.
- Perry-Smith, J. E., & Blum, T. C. (2000). Work-family human resource bundles and perceived organizational performance. *Academy of management Journal*, 43(6), 1107-1117.
- Pocock, B. (2003). *The work/life collision: What work is doing to Australians and what to do about it*: Federation Press.
- Pocock, B. (2005). Work-life ‘balance’ in Australia: Limited progress, dim prospects. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 43(2), 198-209.
- Pocock, B., & Charlesworth, S. (2017). Multilevel work–family interventions: Creating good-quality employment over the life course. *Work and Occupations*, 44(1), 23-46.
- Pocock, B., Charlesworth, S., & Chapman, J. (2013). Work-family and work-life pressures in Australia: advancing gender equality in “good times”? *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 33(9/10), 594-612.
- Poelmans, S., & Sahibzada, K. (2004). A multi-level model for studying the context and impact of work–family policies and culture in organizations. *Human resource management review*, 14(4), 409-431.
- Poelmans, S. A., Chinchilla, N., & Cardona, P. (2003). The adoption of family-friendly HRM policies: Competing for scarce resources in the labour market. *International Journal of Manpower*, 24(2), 128-147.
- Poelmans, S. A., Kalliath, T., & Brough, P. (2008). Achieving work–life balance: Current theoretical and practice issues. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 14(3), 227-238.
- Ponzellini, A. M. (2006). Work–life balance and industrial relations in Italy. *European Societies*, 8(2), 273-294.
- Quinn, J. B. (1999). Strategic outsourcing: leveraging knowledge capabilities. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 40(4), 9.
- Richard, O., McMillan, A., Chadwick, K., & Dwyer, S. (2003). Employing an innovation strategy in racially diverse workforces: Effects on firm performance. *Group & Organization Management*, 28(1), 107-126.
- Rogelberg, S. G., & Stanton, J. M. (Singer-songwriters). (2007). *Introduction: Understanding and dealing with organizational survey nonresponse*. On: Sage Publications Sage CA: Los Angeles, CA.

- Ryan, A. M., & Kossek, E. E. (2008). Work- life policy implementation: Breaking down or creating barriers to inclusiveness? *Human Resource Management*, 47(2), 295-310.
- Saari, L. M., Johnson, T. R., McLaughlin, S. D., & Zimmerle, D. M. (1988). A survey of management training and education practices in US companies. *Personnel Psychology*, 41(4), 731-743.
- Sands, J., & Harper, T. (2007). Family-friendly benefits and organizational performance. *Business renaissance quarterly*, 2(1), 107.
- Singh, S., Darwish, T. K., & Potočnik, K. (2016). Measuring organizational performance: A case for subjective measures. *British Journal of Management*, 27(1), 214-224.
- Snell, S. A., & Dean Jr, J. W. (1992). Integrated manufacturing and human resource management: A human capital perspective. *Academy of Management journal*, 35(3), 467-504.
- Stone, D. L., & Deadrick, D. L. (2015). Challenges and opportunities affecting the future of human resource management. *Human Resource Management Review*, 25(2), 139-145.
- Sweet, S., Besen, E., Pitt-Catsoupes, M., & McNamara, T. K. (2014). Do options for job flexibility diminish in times of economic uncertainty? *Work, employment and society*, 28(6), 882-903.
- Terpstra, D. E., & Rozell, E. J. (1993). The relationship of staffing practices to organizational level measures of performance. *Personnel psychology*, 46(1), 27-48.
- Van Biema, M., & Greenwald, B. (1996). Managing our way to higher service-sector productivity. *Harvard Business Review*, 75(4), 87-95.
- Van Buren III, H. J., Greenwood, M., & Sheehan, C. (2011). Strategic human resource management and the decline of employee focus. *Human Resource Management Review*, 21(3), 209-219.
- van Veen-Dirks, P. (2010). Different uses of performance measures: The evaluation versus reward of production managers. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 35(2), 141-164.
- Wallace, J. E., & Kay, F. M. (2009). Are small firms more beautiful or is bigger better? A study of compensating differentials and law firm internal labor markets. *The Sociological Quarterly*, 50(3), 474-496.
- Wayne, J. H., Randel, A. E., & Stevens, J. (2006). The role of identity and work-family support in work-family enrichment and its work-related consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 69(3), 445-461.
- Whitehouse, G., & Zetlin, D. (Singer-songwriters). (1999). *'Family friendly' policies: distribution and implementation in Australian workplaces*. On: SAGE Publications Sage UK: London, England.
- Wood, S. J., & de Menezes, L. M. (2010). Family-friendly management, organizational performance and social legitimacy. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(10), 1575-1597.
- Wright, P. M. (2008). *Human resource strategy: Adapting to the age of globalization*. Alexandria, VA: SHRM Foundation.

- Wright, P. M., Gardner, T. M., Moynihan, L. M., & Allen, M. R. (2005). The relationship between HR practices and firm performance: Examining causal order. *Personnel psychology*, 58(2), 409-446.
- Wright, P. M., & McMahan, G. C. (1992). Theoretical perspectives for strategic human resource management. *Journal of management*, 18(2), 295-320.
- Yamamoto, I., & Matsuura, T. (2014). Effect of Work–Life Balance Practices on Firm Productivity: Evidence from Japanese Firm-Level Panel Data. *The BE Journal of Economic Analysis & Policy*, 4(4), 1677-1708.

Table 1 Mean, standard deviations and correlations

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6
Controls								
1. Organisation age	52.76	43.80						
2. Organisation type	.68	.47	-.01					
Moderators								
3. Organisation size	1856.91	4258.16	.32**	.03				
4. Industry	.59	.49	.002	-.19*	.19*			
Predictor								
5. Work-life programs	49.67	10.22	.34**	-.09	.43**	.20*		
Outcomes								
6. Net Income	184726.22	1051629.88	.29**	.07	.57**	-.04	.34**	
7. Operating Revenue	1967569.21	8023229.37	.12	.11	.20*	-.12	.21*	.74**

2-tailed, *p<.05, **p<.01

Table 2 Hierarchical regression analyses

Variable	Net Income			Operating Revenue		
	β (Model 1)	β (Model 2)	β (Model 3)	β (Model 1)	β (Model 2)	β (Model 3)
Controls						
Organisation age	.29***	.20*	.03	.12	.05	-.01
Organisation type	.08	.10	.02	.11	.12	.07
Predictor						
Work-life programs		.29**	.40***		.20*	.48**
Moderators						
Organisation size			-.04			.08
Industry			-.13			-.18
Interaction terms						
Work-life programs×Organisation			.73***			.17
Work-life programs×Industry			-.35**			-.40**
R^2	.09	.16	.51	.03	.06	.15
F	5.76**	7.39***	16.33***	1.53	2.52	2.78*
ΔR^2	.09	.07	.35	.03	.04	.09
F for ΔR^2	5.76**	9.77**	19.42***	1.53	4.41*	2.85*

$n = 117$, Standardised coefficients are reported, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Figure 2. Interaction effects of work–life programs and organisation size on net income

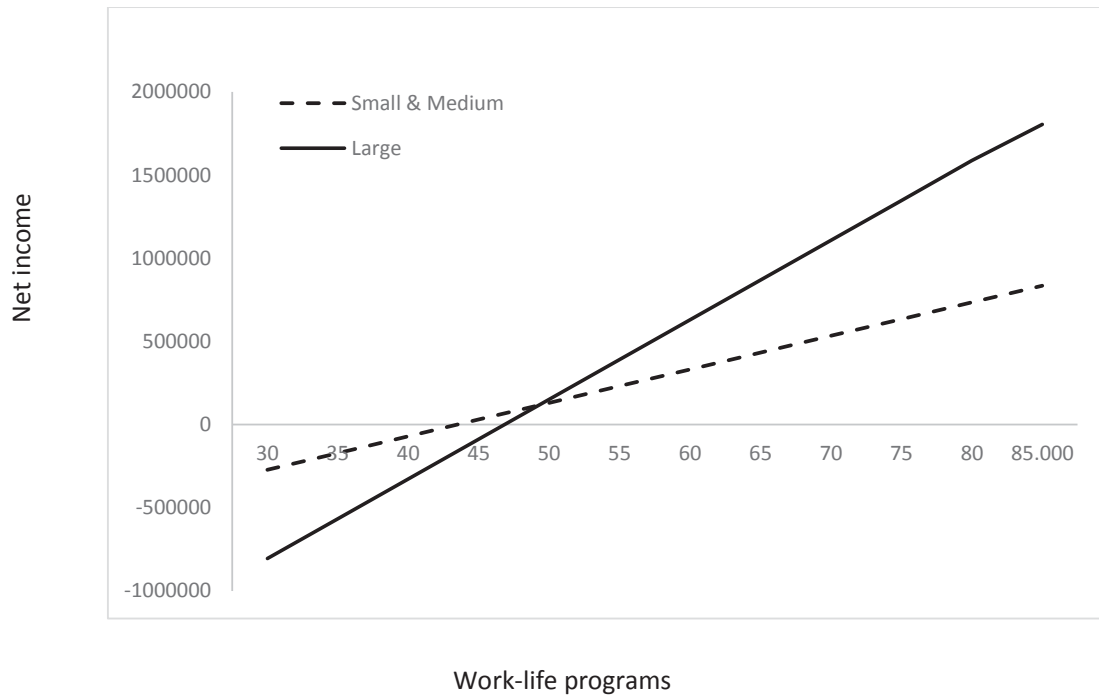


Figure 3. Interaction effects of work-life programs and industry type on net income

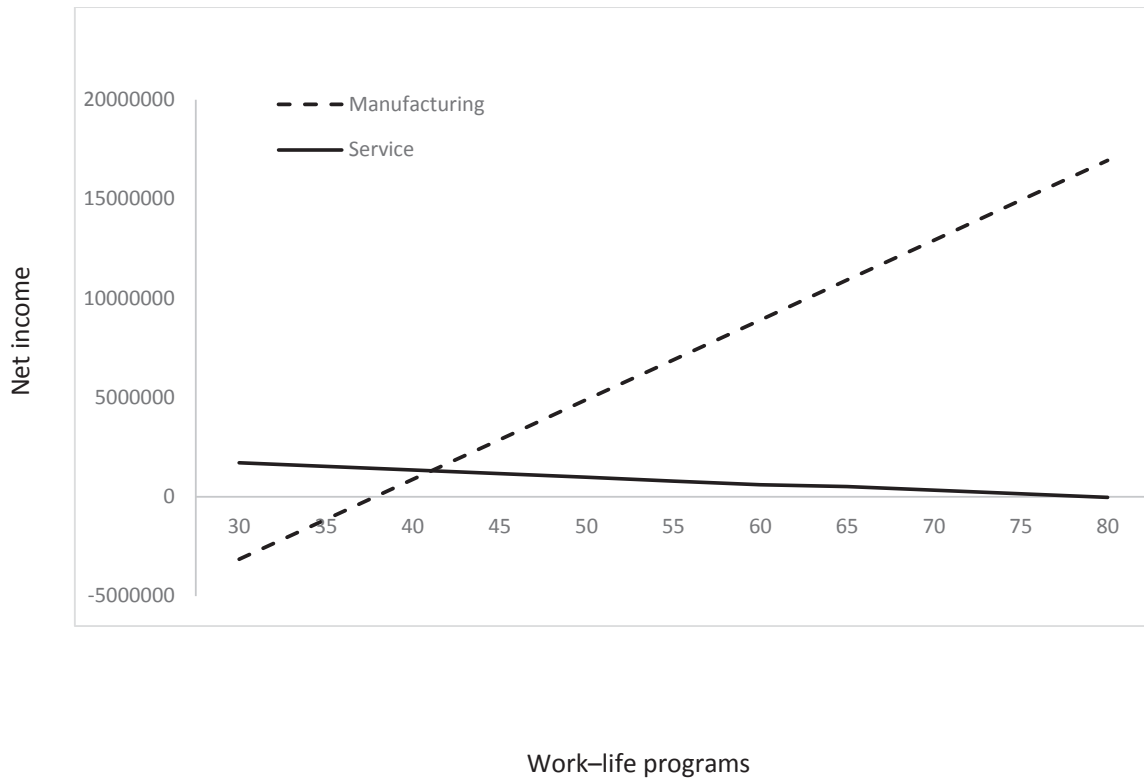
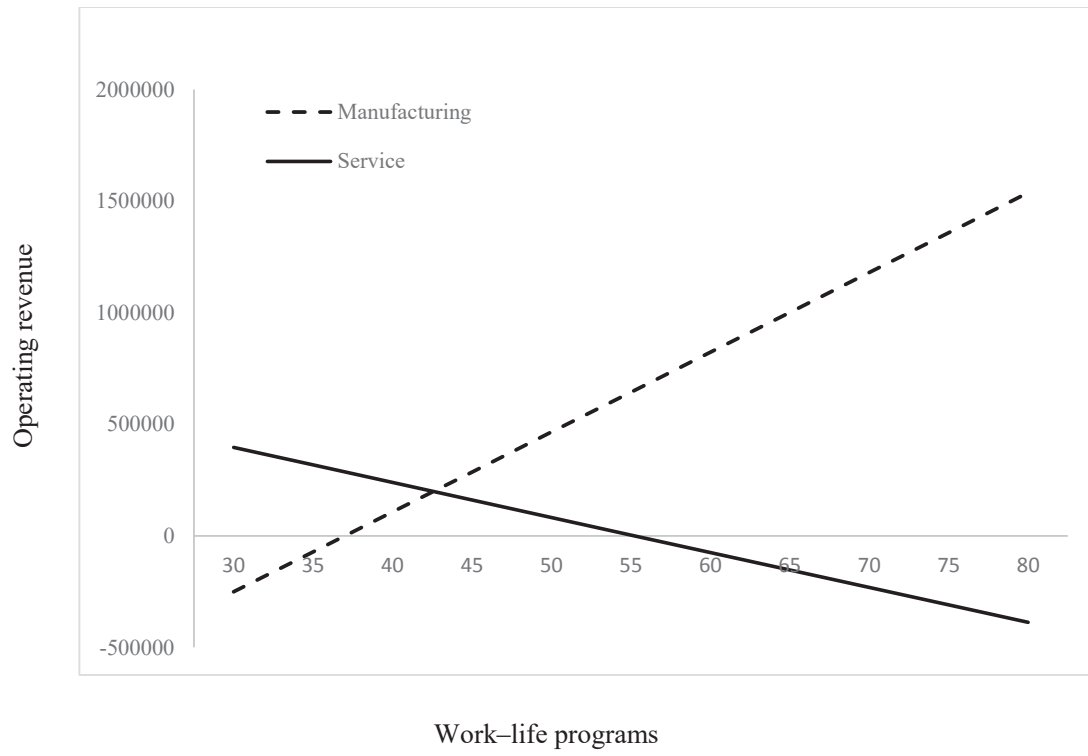


Figure 4. Interaction effects of work–life programs and industry type on operating revenue



Appendix 1

Work–life programs (First 17 items from Konrad & Mangel, 2000)

1. On-site day care
2. Near-site day care
3. Sick childcare
4. Emergency childcare
5. Sick days for childcare/dependent care (leave for child or dependent care)
6. On-site conveniences (e.g. cafeteria, fitness centre)
7. Parental leave over and above legal entitlement
8. Adoption leave
9. Gradual return to work
10. Spouse placement
11. Supervisory training in work–life sensitivity
12. Flexitime
13. Job-sharing
14. Part-year work
15. Part-time work
16. Part-time work for professionals
17. Voluntary reduced time (work fewer hours and then may return to their full-time status)
18. Teleworking (working off-site)
19. Compressed week (a standard work week is compressed to fewer than five days)
20. Flexible holidays
21. Unpaid extra holidays

22. Single employees support group

23. Working parents support group

Appendix 2

Table 3 Hierarchical regression analyses (With log transformation of Organisation size)

Variable	Net Income			Operating Revenue		
	β (Model 1)	β (Model 2)	β (Model 3)	β (Model 1)	β (Model 2)	β (Model 3)
Controls						
Organisation age	.29***	.20*	.08	.12	.05	.00
Organisation type	.08	.10	.03	.11	.12	.07
Predictor						
Work-life programs		.29**	.40**		.20*	.47**
Moderators						
Organisation size			.06			.08
Industry			-.12			-.18
Interaction terms						
Work-life programs×Organisation size			.49***			.16
Work-life programs×Industry			-.34*			-.39*
R^2	.09	.16	.33	.03	.06	.13
F	5.76**	7.39***	7.78***	1.53	2.52	2.38*
ΔR^2	.09	.07	.15	.03	.04	.04
F for ΔR^2	5.76**	9.77**	12.57***	1.53	4.41*	2.71

$n = 117$, Standardised coefficients are reported, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .00$

Chapter 7

Discussion and Conclusion

7.1 RESPONSE TO OVERARCHING RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This thesis empirically investigated whether work–life programs influence various organisational outcomes. The findings of this research show that various organisational outcomes (e.g., perceived organisational performance, CSR performance, and financial performance) are improved through the influence of these programs. A broad literature has been presented in Chapter 2 and then, a systematic literature review focusing on work–life programs–organisational outcomes has been conducted (included in Chapter 4). Work–life programs are considered a strategic and significant HR practice to improve organisational outcomes in many cases. In spite of considerable research into work–life programs and related concepts (i.e., work–life conflict, employee outcomes, and work–life balance), there is still a reasonable scope to examine beyond financial well-being of firms and what kind of mechanisms can moderate this programs–performance relationship for the proper use of work–life programs in organisations.

Through a cross-sectional and time-lagged research, this thesis has illustrated how HR systems, organisational size, and industry contexts influence the outcome of work–life programs. This research has engrossed the business and social case of work–life programs while emphasising internal and external contextual factors that impact the effectiveness of these programs. The findings, in particular, illuminate how various organisational outcomes are moderated by commitment and control HR systems and how organisation size and industry context strengthen or weaken the use of work–life programs. This thesis has three distinct objectives: first, to accumulate and review all organisation-level studies related to the impact of work–life programs (bundles and separate programs) on a range of organisational outcomes; second, to provide empirical evidence while addressing social case for work–life programs and how HR systems contribute to this relationship; and third, to investigate whether organisation size and industry context have a significant effect on the relationship between work–life programs and various organisational outcomes. Figure 7.1 shows the overall research framework for the two empirical studies of this thesis.

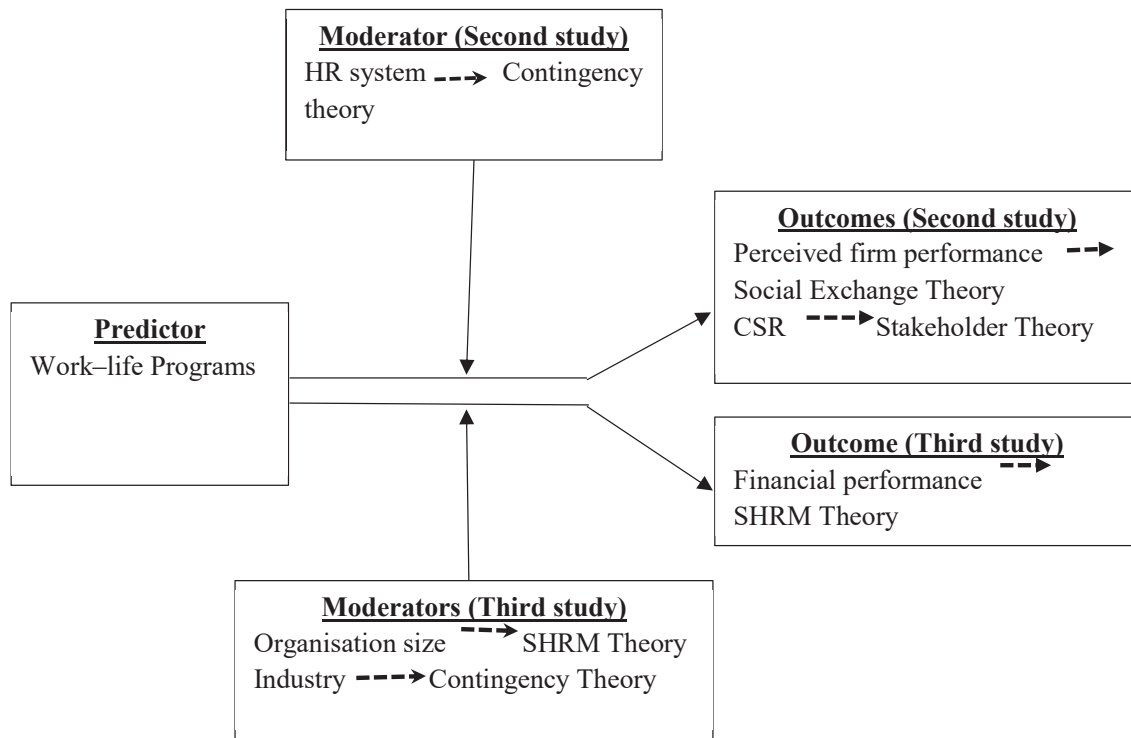


Figure: 7.1: Research framework

In this chapter, key research findings of the thesis are summarised to demonstrate how these three objectives are achieved. Section 7.1 introduces an overall framework for the research. Section 7.2 summarises all key findings of the thesis. After that, research contributions are discussed in section 7.3 and detailed theoretical contribution and practical implications are included in sections 7.4 and 7.5. Finally, the limitations and future research directions are discussed in section 7.6 and section 7.7 concludes the chapter.

7.2 SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS

This thesis provides a comprehensive understanding of the WLPs-performance relationship and various contextual mechanisms that either strengthen or weaken this relationship. Key findings from each manuscript are presented in chapters 4 to 6. Very few studies comprehensively examined the impact of work-life programs on various organisational outcomes. In addition, though few review studies were conducted (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; Chang et al., 2010; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999), the implications of WLPs-performance relationship are still ambiguous.

While shedding light on this ambiguity, the aim of this thesis is to accumulate all past studies at organisational level and evaluate the impact of work–life programs on various organisational outcomes. Thus, a systematic literature review has been conducted. The findings of this review are presented by separating bundles of work–life programs from individual work–life programs. Here, empirical literature at the organisational level provides strong evidence for the positive impact of work–life programs bundles on organisational outcomes.

However, in regards to separate work–life programs, the evidence for a business case is mixed. The possible explanations of inconclusive findings and further research directions were discussed in the review section of this thesis. Among all potential research directions, some of the relevant research scopes were addressed in empirical sections of the thesis. The findings of these empirical sections can be classified into two streams: main effects and moderating effects in the main relationship.

7.2.1 Main effects

Three main effects were investigated in the research. The first effect is about the impact of work–life programs on perceived firm performance. Using a human resource manager survey of 192 Australian organisations, the result confirms that work–life programs are positively linked with perceived firm performance. This finding is similar with other past studies and provides supporting evidence for the business case for work–life programs (Ngo et al., 2009; Perry-Smith & Blum, 2000).

The second main effect in this thesis is bottom line financial indicator of organisations. The findings present a positive association between work–life programs and financial performance of organisations. Prior studies found a positive as well as non-significant relationship between work–life programs and financial performance (Arthur & Cook, 2004; Bloom et al., 2011). Thus, this positive finding on financial performance confirms the business case of work–life programs.

The last main effect is investigating the impact of work–life programs on corporate social responsibility (CSR) performance of organisations. Deploying the same data set of perceived firm performance, the findings indicate that firms who offer more work–life programs are more likely to perform better CSR performance. These firms become more responsible towards investors, community, customers, and environment.

This result is similar to the findings of a recent study, conducted in Australia, where it is reported that work–life programs are positively linked with CSR performance (Ali & Konrad, 2017). Since, prior studies on work–life programs have investigated outcome measures, such as financial performance, turnover, perceived firm performance, and employee productivity; the impact of work–life programs on social performance measure is one of the pioneering evidences in work–life literature (Beer et al., 2015).

7.2.2 Moderating effects

This thesis investigates whether HR systems, organisation size, and industry type moderate the work–life programs–performance relationship. It is evident from the systematic review that contextual factors potentially can explain inconsistent results pertaining to work–life programs–performance relationship. One of the contextual factors is HR system of organisations. Work–life programs are ingrained within the context and part of the broader HR practices that are directly linked with employees, organisations (supervisors, managers, and policy makers), families, society and culture, and environments.

To address this contextual phenomenon, this thesis attempts to investigate the role of HR system on the relationship between work–life programs and perceived firm performance as well as work–life programs and CSR performance. This thesis presents supporting evidence for a commitment-oriented HR system which essentially strengthens the relationship between work–life programs and perceived firm performance. However, in this regard, there is no supporting evidence for CSR performance.

Furthermore, this thesis also investigates organisational context as moderating mechanisms. The finding suggests that organisation size moderates the relationship between work–life programs and financial performance of organisations. In particular, it is found that the impact of work–life programs on organisational outcomes is positive for large organisations whereas, the impact is non-significant for small and medium organisations. Large organisations have bigger resource capabilities, economies of scale, and legitimacy issues to execute work–life programs compared to small organisations. The thesis also includes industry type as an organisational context. Very little is known about industry context in work–life research. The findings indicate that there is a positive relationship between work–life programs and financial performance of manufacturing organisations.

Here, the findings did not support the hypothesis that service firms are more likely to offer more work–life programs. From an Australian perspective, this is unique evidence for the local HR context. It is found that manufacturing firms are more likely to offer more work–life programs which increase overall organisational performance. In sum, several research scopes were evolved through the systematic literature review of the thesis and this thesis has addressed many of them in the empirical studies.

7.3 THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTIONS

This thesis has made several important contributions to the work–life literature and HR theories. This section presents the summary of key contributions to the work–life scholarly research.

Through the lens of stakeholder theory, this research has investigated the relationship between work–life programs and CSR performance of organisations (Freeman et al., 2010). Stakeholder theory posits that organisations should be responsible toward all the stakeholders (internal and external). Generally, organisations interact with capital market participants (i.e., shareholders and major suppliers of capital), product market stakeholders (i.e., customers, suppliers, union, and community) and internal stakeholders (employees and managers) (Colakoglu et al., 2006). All kinds of HR practices are formulated to manage internal stakeholders. Primarily, employees and managers work for the interests of owners and shareholders. But at the same time, it is crucial to look into how organisations are supporting other stakeholders (Freeman, 1983; Freeman et al., 2010). Stakeholder theory assumes that managers should articulate what values they are generating from the resources and what values they should provide to their external stakeholders (i.e., community and environment). This emphasises the greater well-being of all the stakeholders rather than focusing on owners and shareholders (Freeman et al., 2004).

The findings of this research support stakeholder theory. It indicates that firms that are offering more work–life programs are more responsive to various stakeholders. In particular, work–life programs satisfy internal stakeholders–employees through balancing and integrating among various domains of their life and in turn, employees offer dedicated services and benefits to various external stakeholders (customers, investors, environment, and community) (Jamali et al., 2015). Presumably, work–life programs encourage employees to work for green HRM, to participate in various voluntary services for the society, to work for sustainable growth, and to take care of the natural environment (Mandip, 2012).

Work–life programs act as a strategic partner to perform CSR activities and play the role of change agent in various stages of providing services to customers, investors, and the greater community (Jamali et al., 2015; Ulrich & Dulebohn, 2015). These programs enhance employees' capabilities to achieve business objectives, increase flexibility for employees as they can adapt with various changed conditions, and inspire employees to meet customer expectations. On a similar note, these programs add value to employees' life through flexibility, enhancement, and integration which in turn, add dynamism to the entire lifecycle of business (Jamali et al., 2015). Here, the impact of work–life programs is not confined to financial or market-based bottom-line organisational performance, rather it also positively affects non-financial dimensions of firm performance while addressing the interests of multiple stakeholders (Beer et al., 2015; Jones & Wicks, 1999). Besides stakeholder theory, SHRM scholarship also explains the value of work–life programs in organisations in the better way.

SHRM theory (Devanna et al., 1981) is integral to work–life literature and it is well-known for explaining HR practices–performance relationship, person–environment fit, social capital, and HR systems (Lengnick-Hall et al., 2009). This theory revolves around how various HR strategies are adopted and executed for better performance by organisations. It focuses on two aspects of HR strategies: design of HR practices with the internal fit and how efficiently it connects with organisational performance. Wright and McMahan (1992) explained SHRM theory as a fact of 'human capital contributions'. According to Wright and McMahan (1992), human resource practices such as work–life programs increase strategic capabilities of employees as it enables them to perform various roles (work and non-work) simultaneously. This boosts the self-confidence of employees. Indirectly, this process builds up human capital that leads organisations to achieve competitive advantage.

Using SHRM theory as underpinning framework, this thesis suggests that work–life programs contribute to the financial performance of organisations. The positive effects of work–life programs on financial performance provides strong support for SHRM theory (Huselid, 1995). The existence of these programs stimulate and increase employees' motivation, commitment, and engagement that enable firms to take and execute strategic opportunities (Mayson & Barrett, 2006). From the lens of SHRM theory, this thesis also investigated the moderation effect of organisation size on the work–life programs and organisational performance relationship. Research findings suggest that large organisations with work–life programs demonstrate higher financial performance than small organisations.

This is because large organisations have greater market share, access to abundant capital, can create brand value easily, can spend more on research and development, and can reach global market (Lawler III, 1997). But small organisations have limited access to these strategic aspects. In many cases, small and medium organisations lack long-term strategic focus and thus, they cannot integrate work–life practices in their operational design.

This research also investigated the moderating effect of HR systems on the work–life programs–performance relationship based on contingency theory (Donaldson, 2001). The finding of this research shows that the effectiveness of work–life programs is contingent on the HR system of the organisations. Contingency theory assumes that work–life programs should be aligned with the other HR practices of organisations (Galbraith, 2007; Wang & Verma, 2012). According to the contingency theory, the relationship between work–life programs and organisational outcomes are dependent on the organisation’s strategy such as prevailing HR system (commitment versus control HR system) (Delery & Doty, 1996). Commitment HR system believes in empowering employees through higher engagement, intensive training, performance based pay, and broader job design. This particular HR system encourages employees’ outstanding performance (Arthur & Cook, 2003). Thus, the effective use of work–life programs is contingent on either commitment or control HR system. The organisation should introduce and implement those work–life programs that encourage employee motivation towards achieving goals and are consistent with existing HR system.

The arguments indicate that synergies arise among HR practices in organisations. For instance, if a certain HR system is put together with work–life programs, this might positively affect organisational performance (Huselid, 1995; MacDuffie, 1995). This provides an added advantage to firms. This embedded HR system is the reflection of the contextual phenomena of firms of any country. Since organisations grow and mature within the social and institutional environment, their systems, norms, and attitudes are affected by ingrained social and institutional factors (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). In particular, the HR system significantly affects a firm’s entire value chain and, thus, various types of HR systems have different impacts for the effective utilisation of work–life programs (Barney & Wright, 1998; Wright et al., 1994). Given all these perspectives, the thesis findings suggest that a high-commitment HR system facilitates a stronger positive relationship between work–life programs and perceived organisational performance. Moreover, the findings of this research indicate that industry type moderates the relationship between work–life programs and financial performance of organisations. To what extent work–life programs will be effective for firm performance is

contingent on industry context of the particular country. This is how the results support organisational contingency theories (Donaldson, 2001; Galbraith, 2007; Jay, 1973).

Industry context is a significant contingency that is embedded differently in various country settings. The job nature, business model, customer types, and customer needs of the service sector are different from the manufacturing sector. In general, it is assumed that service firms mostly emphasise employee–customer interaction and due to business model, employees’ creativity, commitment, and market insights are required to serve customers. Thus, employers are eager to satisfy employees by providing work–life programs (Osterman, 1995; Poelmans et al., 2003). In addition, service firms that employ knowledge workers and women are more concerned about the effective implementation of work–life programs compared to manufacturing firms (Morgan & Milliken, 1992; Poelmans & Sahibzada, 2004; Poelmans et al., 2003; Ponzellini, 2006). Accordingly, Batt (2000) and Skaggs and Youndt (2004) found positive empirical support for the service sector while examining the relationship between HR practices and organisational performance. Hence, any HR practices need to be contingent on the industry type for its effective adaptation and action.

Generally, the manufacturing sector is more focused on advanced technology and tangible resources to gain competitive advantage (Morris & Johnston, 1987). Interestingly, the thesis findings illustrate the positive effects of work–life programs in manufacturing industry. It is important to note that this research is conducted on the Australian context where the millennial generation are in the workforce. Millennial generation prefers more flexibility in the workplace. Australia also entered into the Industry 4.0 to boost advanced production and technological capabilities. Australian organisations are more prone to develop human capital-enhancing HR practices such as work–life programs (Deloitte Millennial survey, 2018). Therefore, the impact of work–life programs is contingent on the industry type. Here, industry context dictates organisations which HR practices need to gear up for the present business model and to cope up with the workforce characteristics of the labour market. This is how contingency theory provides new insights to understand and link internal HR system and external industry factor with work–life programs. The results suggest that work–life programs might need to be executed differently in various industries to fully understand and capitalise the benefits of these programs.

Besides, this research investigated the relationship between work–life programs and perceived organisational performance (Blau, 1964). The positive effects of work–life programs

on perceived firm performance can be explained through social exchange theory as a framework (Blau, 1964). The research findings strengthen the argument that various work–life practices provide opportunities for positive social exchange between employers and employees (Ngo et al., 2009). Social exchange theory is one of the most prominent conceptual frameworks to comprehend HR practices and its subsequent outcome in workplace behaviour. This theory includes several components of the exchange relationship, namely, it creates goodwill, strengthens the bond between employees and the organisation through positive social exchange, motivates employees to reciprocate through a higher commitment to organisational goals and values, and engages employees to work in a way that leads to higher performance of organisations (Bagger & Li, 2014; Settoon et al., 1996). Employees belong to multi-dimensional domains in their life and employers understand and feel employees’ various domain experiences. Work–life programs act as a powerful mechanism for employers to support employees’ roles and responsibilities in various domains.

In turn, employees feel indebted to respond with positive work behaviours, such as organisational citizenship behaviours, engagement, and affective commitment (Grover & Crooker, 1995; Lambert, 2000). These positive employee attitudes translate into enthusiastic work motivation and better organisational performance. Specifically, employees become more productive and engaged to achieve organisational goals. As such, the findings of this research strengthen the argument of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964).

7.4 CONTRIBUTIONS TO RESEARCH

This research mainly contributes to the work–life and HR scholarship in five ways. First, a systematic literature review of work–life programs was conducted to examine the impact on organisational outcomes, not the employee outcomes. The primary contribution of this research is to present a comprehensive picture of the impact of work–life programs at the organisational level. This is the first systematic review at the organisation level to better understand whether work–life programs are considered as business case of organisations. Prior empirical research on work–life programs mainly contributed to the individual-employee level (Beauregard & Henry, 2009; De Menezes & Kelliher, 2011; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999). However, some studies documented impact on both individual and organisational level. For instance, Beauregard and Henry (2009) conducted a *narrative* review of work–life studies, where they focused on both individual and organisational level outcomes. De Menezes and Kelliher (2011) conducted a systematic literature review of only *flexible working arrangements* (FWAs) and performance-

related outcomes. They also reviewed both individual-employee-level and organisational-level outcomes. On a similar note, Kossek and Ozeki (1999) also conducted a review of 27 studies on *work-life conflict* and its impact on individual and organisational effectiveness (i.e., absenteeism, organisational commitment, and job involvement).

The systematic review categorises the literature into bundles of work-life programs studies and separate work-life programs studies, due to different measurements of work-life programs across these two streams. This classification helps to avoid incorrect comparisons of findings across these two categories (Subramony, 2009). The synthesis of the findings in each stream highlights the comparative benefits of implementing bundles of work-life programs compared to separate programs (MacDuffie, 1995; Stavrou & Brewster, 2005). It also provides insights into which specific work-life programs are beneficial for organisational effectiveness (Stavrou & Kilaniotis, 2010). This review partly explains the inconsistent findings of past research at the organisational level in terms of contextual factors such as region, industry, and organisation size (Ali et al., 2011). This review also suggests expanding the outcome measures of work-life programs beyond financial metrics. Thus, the systematic literature review provides important pathways for empirical investigation and this thesis attempts to address a few of those.

Second, the social case of work-life programs is one of the important dimensions for empirical investigation. This research uncovers that work-life programs are positively associated with CSR performance of organisations. This finding brings about a new dimension to work-life literature as it considers social concern as an outcome of work-life programs (Beer et al., 2015). This is a novel and one of pioneering knowledge in the broader HR and work-life literature. Here, CSR performance indicates that an organisation's deliberate effort is to make a better society and a responsible environment (a cleaner planet) (Weber, 2008). Work-life programs link an organisation with its internal (employees) and external stakeholders (community) (Droms Hatch & Stephen, 2015). Work-life programs in organisations facilitate and satisfy employees who in turn find a variety of ways to positively contribute to the sustainable communities, customers, and suppliers (Cohen, 2017; Voegtlin & Greenwood, 2016). Recently, Grote and Guest (2017) conducted a study on the quality of working life and proposed social impetus and concern of work-life programs in the future research agenda. They find that work-life programs serve internal and external stakeholders. In particular, existence of work-life programs in organisations increases both the short and long term economic values

which essentially improves the reputation and image of a company in the internal and external labour market.

Furthermore, the research identifies another empirical finding indicating that there is a positive association between work–life programs and performance of organisations. This research contributes to a growing body of work–life literature by providing justification of adopting and promoting work–life programs in organisations (Ngo et al., 2009; Perry-Smith & Blum 2000). Generally, these HR practices facilitate growth and sustainability in the labour market and add value to family, community, and environment (Bronfenbrenner, 2005; Cleveland et al., 2015). Since work–life programs help employees to balance among personal, professional, and community life, they benefit organisations and society in many ways (Bronfenbrenner, 2005; Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007). This implies that these programs increase capability reproduction of employees and hence, it stimulates and promotes internal efficiency in organisations (Clarke, 2011; Ehnert, 2009). This evidence of the economic and social case of work–life programs supports the sustainable HR practices of organisations (Kramar, 2014). It also offers competitive advantage for firms while opening new insights for employers and policy makers.

Third, this research addresses some of the contextual factors within which work–life programs are embedded. The broad HR literature put emphasis on the industry context among various other contextual components (Arthur, 1994; MacDuffie, 1995; Youndt et al., 1996). Very few studies considered industry type in the work–life balance of employees (Kim, 2014; Lee et al., 2015), yet it is unknown how industry type influences the outcome of work–life programs on organisational performance. Since the benefits of work–life programs may vary across industries, this thesis used industry type as a moderator to understand the relationship between work–life programs and financial performance of organisations.

In this regard, the thesis reveals that industry type moderates the relationship. But the results do not support the argument that service organisations capitalise work–life programs to reap more benefits. Rather, results indicate that the positive effects of work–life programs are highly marked in the manufacturing organisations compared to the service organisations. This finding adds novel knowledge to the industry context and work–life literature. The plausible explanation might be the Australian context where the manufacturing sector is supposed to flourish abundantly in the near future. Specifically, Australia has entered into the fourth industrial revolution ‘Industry 4.0’. This indicates that manufacturing organisations have

adopted 'business model innovation' that focuses more on innovation and integrating technologies with the manufacturing production and processes (Dean & Spoehr, 2018; Schläpfer et al., 2015). It requires smart factory and extensive automation and 'servitisation' of manufacturing industries. Thus, Australia is emphasising human resource implications for accelerated innovation and digitalisation of business model. There is remarkable employment in the manufacturing sector across a variety of occupations including product maintenance, customer service, cyber security, and engineering. This new trend in the Australian manufacturing sector demands HR practices (e.g., work-life programs) to attract a highly skilled workforce. Industry 4.0 revolution in this regard aims at a better work-life balance of employees that enhances innovative capabilities, freedom, and autonomy over tasks. As a result, organisations in Australia offer flexible work options, telework, and other related options for their employees (Dean & Spoehr, 2018). The findings may be the reflections of the sectoral policy changes and how work-life programs are integrated within the changes.

Fourth, another contextual phenomenon addressed in this thesis is organisation size. Some prior research studied organisation size as a determinant of work-life programs (Askenazy & Forth, 2016; Ingram & Simons, 1995; Konrad & Mangel, 2000; MacDermid et al., 1999; Osterman, 1995). To the best of my knowledge, no study had examined organisation size as a contextual moderating factor for work-life programs-performance relationship. This thesis contributes to the organisational context whether large organisations experience stronger relationships and small and medium organisations experience weaker relationship. The findings suggest that large organisations report higher financial performance compared to small and medium organisations. This result is similar to past studies that show large firms are better at implementing various HR practices than small organisations (Deshpande & Golhar, 1994; Golhar & Deshpande, 1997).

Organisation size plays a major role in determining the offerings of more work-life programs and eventually influence firm performance and sustainability (Ferris et al., 2004; Wright et al., 2005). Large organisations have formal human resource practices and consider employees as a source of value creation. Specifically, large firms have more strategic focus to manage workforce challenges in the competitive markets and gaining advantage over the rivals. (Hargis & Bradley III, 2011; Krishnan & Scullion, 2017).

From the strategic point of view, large firms comply with the legitimacy factors and adopt the socially responsive HR practices that set industry norms (De Kok & Uhlaner, 2001). This essentially stimulates large firms to implement more work-life programs for translating

higher financial performance. However, small firms have a lack of formal HR practices and financial strength to offer a wide range of programs for employees. Generally, small firms become labour intensive and HR practices are managed by owners and managers (Kotey & Sheridan, 2001, 2004). Some small organisations arrange a walk meeting or meeting in a bar or some other informal practices beyond the formal work–life programs. Eventually small firms face challenges to manage internal human resources and the external changing environment (Wiesner & Innes, 2010). This limits small firms to implement work–life programs.

Fifth, the research findings suggest that HR system partially supports the relationship between work–life programs and organisational performance. Specifically, in organisations with high-commitment HR system perceived organisational performance increases for the increase in work–life programs. Here, commitment HR system enhances employee interests in various ways. For instance, it offers flexible job design for employees' involvement which motivates them to achieve organisational goals. Here, there are some criticisms of high commitment HR system as it links with the direct cost for promoting training, employment security, and higher wages (Boxall & Macky, 2009; Guest, 2011).

However, the research also finds that commitment-oriented HR system does not strengthen the relationship between work–life programs and CSR performance of organisations. This implies that HR system positively affects only the internal performance metrics of organisations. High-commitment HR system creates synergies among internal HR practices (i.e., work–life programs) and provides an added advantage to firms in terms of better organisational performance (Delery & Gupta, 2016). Here, individual HR practice is ineffective to add value, since HR systems of organisations are internal bundles and a series of coherent practices. These integrated internal practices mainly boost the bottom-line organisational performance rather than external non-financial goals. Specifically, high commitment HR system inspires positive employee behaviours aligned with internal strategic actions to achieve bottom line targets. HR system does not improve the external performance measures. Therefore, since the impact of HR system is subject to the existing internal and external environmental factors (Delery & Doty, 1996), this might be the plausible explanation for the high commitment HR system and its relationship with the organisational performance.

Finally, this notable finding adds a new dimension to the HR and work–life literature that the outcome of work–life programs is contingent on the current commitment-oriented or control-oriented HR systems. Several studies have been conducted to examine the impact of

HR systems on organisational performance (Arthur, 1994; Delery & Gupta, 2016; Hauff et al., 2014; Ichniowski & Shaw, 1999; Kim & Wright, 2011; Knox, 2014) and the findings are consistent with the existing literature. Collectively, all these findings suggest that contextual analysis is very important to make any policies effective both for organisations and employees. Grote and Guest (2017) put emphasis on the context in their recent research on quality of working life. It is evident that organisational context changes with the simultaneous changes in economic priorities and social, political, and technological changes in the country. Therefore, context does matter for formulating HR policies and practices as employers' expectations from employees, employees' expectation from employers and others also fluctuate with the wave of contextual forces. Overall, the findings of this thesis shed light on how organisational context influences the proper execution of work–life programs for ensuring a better life of employees.

7.5 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

7.5.1 Policies for Government

In Australia, the labour market comprises women, older workers, dual-income earners, and sole parents (ABS, 2010). The research findings provide an encouragement and opportunity for more participation in the workforce. Many organisations in Australia adopt work–life programs to boost employee productivity and financial performance (Ollier-Malaterre & Foucreault, 2017). The findings also suggest that commitment-enhancing human resource system strengthens the work–life programs and organisational performance relationship. National-level policy makers may ensure the internal alignment among all HR practices. This may create opportunities for employees to uptake and use various work–life programs (Delery & Gupta, 2016; Martinson & De Leon, 2018). Policy-makers also think about formulating suitable work–life strategies for small organisations in Australia. The findings also indicate that the greater working community in Australia might get better and healthy working life and as a result, this might boost employee productivity at the national level.

The findings of industry context also play a significant role for framing broader labour market policies. It was evident that service sector organisations are more inclined to adopt and use of work–life programs than manufacturing firms. However, due to the innovation-oriented manufacturing policies in Australia, organisations in the manufacturing sector are now emphasising work–life programs (Dean & Spoehr, 2018). Therefore, the employers in the manufacturing sector need to rethink their workforce policies to support their innovation-oriented strategies.

7.5.2 Practices for Organisations

The positive findings between work–life programs and perceived organisational performance strengthen the business case of these programs in organisations. Also, the positive relationship between work–life programs and financial performance provides additional evidence for the economic case. With this evidence of both business and economic case, it helps top level management to promote and execute effective work–life policies in organisations (Järlström et al., 2016). The economic case of work–life programs might support organisations to generate more sustainable HR practices for internal as well as external stakeholders (Pasamar & Valle Cabrera, 2013). The benefits of work–life programs for organisations outweigh the costs incurred for these programs. This evidence, in particular, helps Australian policy makers and policy makers in other countries to focus on work–life policies and strategies more broadly.

In addition, the relationship between work–life programs and CSR studied in this research sheds light on multiple stakeholder benefits as an outcome. This pioneering evidence facilitates organisations to formulate more green, sustainable HR, and work–life policies for the greater well-being of society (Dumont et al., 2017; Järlström, et al., 2016). In the Australian context, the workforce includes the millennial generation. To cope with workforce characteristics in the labour market, this evidence provides strong support for adopting work–life programs for the betterment of employees, communities, environment, and other stakeholders.

Sustainable HR policies have been neglected in the broader HR and work–life research (Ehnert et al., 2016). This research has attempted to address this research scope. Examining the impact of work–life programs on various stakeholders beyond organisations has generated new insights and broadened the understanding of organisational effectiveness and long-term sustainability of work–life programs (Ehnert et al., 2014). These insights might bring work–life policies to the forefront. To summarise, the empirical evidence has advanced the takeover of work–life policies towards achieving corporate sustainability (Ehnert & Harry, 2012; Kramar, 2014).

Since the effectiveness of HR practices depends on context, work–life programs can add value to the business by considering HR practices and their contexts (Delery & Gupta, 2016). This research has illustrated organisations with work–life programs and a high-commitment HR system demonstrate higher perceived organisational performance. This

depicts a clear phenomenon of contextual differences of outcomes across HR practices. This implies that there must be cohesion and integration among HR systems and work–life programs that ensures mutual gain for employees and organisations. Employers and policy makers need to address this cohesion of HR practices and strategies both vertically and horizontally (Guest, 2017).

Finally, the findings of this research also suggest that there is a positive impact of work–life programs in the manufacturing sector of Australia. This is pioneering evidence for organisations since Australia has been focusing more on high-skill manufacturing and innovation (Dean & Spoehr, 2018). Considering the diverse workforce in Australia, organisations need to formulate more life-friendly policies that stimulate positive behaviour in the workplace, ensure safety and flexibility, ensure social equality, and warrant environmental sustainability (Deloitte Millennial survey, 2018). Overall, this research contributes toward a positive direction of building healthy communities who can manage both family or personal life and professional life effectively.

7.5.3 Implications for HR Managers

Findings of this research provide strong evidence for HR managers to claim economic rationales of their investment in work-life programs. Generally, employers struggle to identify evidence-based benefits of work-life programs. The result illustrates that work–life programs contribute to the bottom-line indicators of performance which motivates HR managers for better execution of these programs (Buyens & De Vos, 2001). The stronger positive relationship between work–life programs and CSR performance of organisations helps managers to understand the value of work–life programs for the greater well-being of society. This new evidence could convince managers that work–life programs not only contribute to firm’s financial performance but also fulfil the needs of multiple stakeholders in society. Findings of this research demonstrate a social case of work–life programs for managers to adopt and execute various work–life programs in organisations (Jackson et al., 2014).

The research findings suggest that alignment of work–life programs with other HR practices is crucial for organisations. SHRM researchers argue that integration and alignment among HR practices create synergistic benefits (Delery, 1998; Kepes & Delery, 2007), which is supported by this study. For example, a combination of certain HR systems with work–life programs might have a positive impact on organisational performance (Huselid, 1995; MacDuffie, 1995). This finding assists managers to understand this context, which might help them to ensure an equitable balance among stakeholders (Sheehan et al., 2006).

The findings also help managers to understand that HR practices in large firms are not the same as in small firms (Bayo-Moriones & Merino-Díaz de Cerio, 2001). On a similar note, the research findings emphasise the contextual phenomenon of work–life programs. Specifically, the impact of work–life programs on firm performance varies across industries. In Australia, manufacturing industry focuses more on the resources of creativity, innovation, and research and development and hence, they invest more in the economically valuable human capital through offering work–life programs (Dean & Spoehr, 2018; Katic et al., 2017; Mennens et al., 2018; Snell & Dean Jr, 1992). These insights facilitate managers and practitioners to understand and offer different work–life programs for various industry settings (Katic et al., 2017).

Furthermore, this research is based in an Australian context. The positive impact of work–life programs will benefit employees of all generations. Not only millennial workforce in the present generation, but employees from all generations have a personal life and emphasise balance between professional life and personal life (Cieri et al, 2005). This finding will enrich HR managers’ knowledge to effectively manage the workforce of all generations.

Moreover, Australian organisations are concerned about managing the millennials workforce (Spinks & Moore, 2007; Sutcliffe & Dhakal, 2018). It is apparent that 64% of the millennials’ workforce prefers organisations that have social and environmental commitments and 83% of the millennials workforce are more committed when organisations offer flexible work options (Klimkiewicz & Oltra, 2017). The current scenario and findings of this thesis assist managers to understand and acknowledge the millennials workforce and hence, can formulate appropriate work–life strategies for boosting their performance (Teng, 2017).

7.6 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Chapters 4 to 6 present the limitations and future research directions of each of the studies. This section encapsulates the limitations and future research directions collectively.

Few limitations arise from the research design, especially the access to the sample. The targeted sample was HR managers and HR managers response rates are not high. The possible reasons could be managers of some firms are officially restricted from participating in surveys (Baruch & Holtom, 2008) or HR and senior managers are over-surveyed for various reasons (Cycyota & Harrison, 2006). The large sample size could have given a more comprehensive picture of the impact of work–life programs.

Another limitation is the data type used in one of the empirical studies of the thesis. This manuscript is based on cross-sectional data of Australian organisations and thus, a causal relationship cannot be inferred (Guest et al., 2003). This study has a self-report bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003) since it used perceptual measures as performance outcomes. However, there are statistical relationships between hard performance measures and perceptual measures (Bae & Lawler, 2000; Delaney & Huselid, 1996; Su & Wright, 2012).

Also, the respondents were HR managers and they are aware of the company's performance outcomes. A longitudinal research design would provide stronger evidence for a work-life programs-performance relationship (Boselie et al., 2005; Paauwe & Boselie, 2005; Saridakis et al., 2017). This thesis is conducted at the organisational level and it was quite difficult to assess employees' usage of work-life programs; rather, it focused on the offerings (Grover & Crooker, 1995). It was also difficult to take into account how effectively work-life programs were implemented in organisations (Grover & Crooker, 1995).

The proper execution of work-life programs could strengthen the strategic impact of these programs (Ryan & Kossek, 2008). In this thesis, the sample includes for-profit organisations and thus, the findings may not be directly generalisable to non-profit organisations. This research initially conducted a systematic literature review for explaining the business case for work-life programs at the organisational level. The review highlights positive, negative, and inconsistent findings of bundles and separate work-life programs and suggest a direction to examine which components of work-life bundles drive significant results (Glass & Finley, 2002). Therefore, more research is required to compare bundles with individual programs. Additional research is also required on the different measures (financial versus social) of work-life programs, since some work-life programs may have a distinct relationship with organisational performance. Moreover, research evidence shows that weekend work, shift work, and overtime are known as unsocial hours and are offered according to employer preferences, causing employee stress (Brewster et al., 1997; Scheibl & Dex, 1998). Further investigation is warranted to determine whether these programs serve as a form of work intensification or as a form of flexibility given to employees (Lewis & Humbert, 2010).

In terms of methods, in addition to quantitative, qualitative case study and an interview with managers could provide more in-depth understanding of the impact of work-life programs. Case studies offer validity and transferability of findings more explicitly (Marshall & Rossman, 2014; Yin, 2015). In addition, the research on work-life programs in the private sector needs

to include work intensification (i.e., long working hours, high job strain, and work intensity), which is prevalent in this sector (Kelliher & Anderson, 2010). Increased autonomy over working hours can lead to greater intensification and may not be for the greater well-being of society (Kvande, 2009). Thus, further research on private sectors may unearth the emergence of work–life programs and contribute new dimensions to work–life research. The work–life programs–organisational outcomes relationship may change with respect to the contextual environment (Korabik et al., 2017; Putnik et al., 2018). For instance, teleworking is found to have a significant positive impact on organisational outcomes in developed countries in every case studied. Hence, future research investigating the impact of particular work–life programs (i.e., teleworking, part-time, and childcare) in various national contexts (i.e., developing economies) would provide more reliable findings to support the business case for this type of program.

Work–life programs are culture-sensitive as these programs are perceived in various ways in different parts of the world (Putnik et al., 2018). Considering multidimensionality of environment, more research is required to ensure the best fit programs. This best fit might ensure the utmost effectiveness for both employers and employees (Foucreault et al., 2016). The usage and utility of work–life programs are contingent on wider economic, societal, and demographic changes (Putnik et al., 2018). Hence, further research is required to assess the demands of workforce generation. For instance, the millennials generation considers work–life balance as their top priority rather than higher economic benefits. The findings of this thesis indicate that HR systems strengthen the impact of work–life programs on perceived organisational performance but they do not improve CSR performance. HR system and work–life programs are both internal HR practices. Therefore, organisations should integrate environmental as well as technological factors as a mediating mechanism to assess the impact of work–life programs on external stakeholders (Verheul, 2007).

This thesis tested industry type as a moderator for the impact of work–life programs on organisational outcomes. The finding is interesting as it did not support the hypothesis that service firms will focus more on work–life programs than manufacturing firms to attain better outcomes. In the Australian context, the finding suggests that manufacturing firms do better in organisational performance for the increase in work–life programs. There are several possible reasons behind this finding. In the Australian context, to foster job growth and innovations, manufacturing organisations are more focused on adopting various HR practices including

work–life programs (Bloch & Bhattacharya, 2016). Hence, extensive research on large scale manufacturing firms may shed light on this finding and open up new insights into the industry context.

7.7 CONCLUSIONS

At the organisational level, by analysing the relationship between work–life programs and various organisational outcomes (economic case/business case and social case), this research calls for a wider perspective of work–life research. This research uses HR system, organisation size, and industry contexts as the moderating variables for this relationship. This type of setting essentially provides a new insight regarding the social concerns of work–life practices in organisations. Importantly, utilising all these contextual moderating variables in the work–life programs–performance relationship enriches broader work–life and HRM research. Various theoretical phenomena are illuminated to translate all research findings of this thesis. This induces policy makers and practitioners to focus more on sustainable HR practices considering mankind beyond only organisations.

References

- Ackerman, R. W. (1975). *The social challenge to business*. Harvard University Press. Cambridge.
- Alexander, J., Nuchols, B., Bloom, J., & Lee, S.-Y. (1995). Organizational demography and turnover: An examination of multiform and nonlinear heterogeneity. *Human Relations*, 48(12), 1455-1480.
- Ali, M., & Konrad, A. M. (2017). Antecedents and consequences of diversity and equality management systems: The importance of gender diversity in the TMT and lower to middle management. *European Management Journal*, 35(4), 440-453.
- Ali, M., Kulik, C. T., & Metz, I. (2011). The gender diversity–performance relationship in services and manufacturing organizations. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(07), 1464-1485.
- Ali, M., Metz, I., & Kulik, C. T. (2015). The impact of work–family programs on the relationship between gender diversity and performance. *Human Resource Management*, 54(4), 553-576.
- Allen, T. D. (2001). Family-supportive work environments: The role of organizational perceptions. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 58(3), 414-435.
- Armstrong, G. (2005). Differentiation through people: How can HR move beyond business partner? *Human Resource Management*, 44(2), 195-199.
- Armstrong, M. (2017). *Armstrong's handbook of human resource management practice* (14th ed.). New York: Kogan Page Limited.
- Arthur, J. B. (1992). The link between business strategy and industrial relations systems in American steel minimills. *ILR Review*, 45(3), 488-506.
- Arthur, J. B. (1994). Effects of human resource systems on manufacturing performance and turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(3), 670-687.
- Arthur, M. M., & Cook, A. (2003). The relationship between work-family human resource practices and firm profitability: A multi-theoretical perspective. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 22, 219-252.
- Arthur, M. M., & Cook, A. (2004). Taking stock of work-family initiatives: How announcements of “family-friendly” human resource decisions affect shareholder value. *Industrial & Labor Relations Review*, 57(4), 599-613.
- Askenazy, P., & Forth, J. (2016). Work Organisation and Human Resource Management: Does Context Matter? In *Comparative Workplace Employment Relations* (pp. 141-177): Springer.
- Australian Bureau of Statistics (2010) Measures of Australia’s Progress 2010. Retrieved December 23 from [http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/Lookup/by%20Subject/1370.0~2010~Main%20Features~Home%20page%20\(1\)](http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/Lookup/by%20Subject/1370.0~2010~Main%20Features~Home%20page%20(1))

- Avgar, A. C., Givan, R. K., & Liu, M. (2011). A balancing act: Work–life balance and multiple stakeholder outcomes in hospitals. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 49(4), 717-741.
- Bae, J., & Lawler, J. J. (2000). Organizational and HRM strategies in Korea: Impact on firm performance in an emerging economy. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(3), 502-517.
- Bae, K. B., & Goodman, D. (2014). The Influence of Family-Friendly Policies on Turnover and Performance in South Korea. *Public Personnel Management*, 43(4), 520-542.
- Bagger, J., & Li, A. (2014). How does supervisory family support influence employees' attitudes and behaviors? A social exchange perspective. *Journal of Management*, 40(4), 1123-1150.
- Baird, L., & Meshoulam, I. (1988). Managing two fits of strategic human resource management. *Academy of Management Review*, 13(1), 116-128.
- Barney, J. B., & Wright, P. M. (1998). On becoming a strategic partner: The role of human resources in gaining competitive advantage. *Human Resource Management (1986-1998)*, 37(1), 31.
- Baruch, Y., & Holtom, B. C. (2008). Survey response rate levels and trends in organizational research. *Human Relations*, 61(8), 1139-1160.
- Batt, R. (2000). Strategic segmentation in front-line services: matching customers, employees and human resource systems. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 11(3), 540-561.
- Batt, R. (2002). Managing customer services: Human resource practices, quit rates, and sales growth. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(3), 587-597.
- Batt, R., & Valcour, P. M. (2003). Human resources practices as predictors of work-family outcomes and employee turnover. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society*, 42(2), 189-220.
- Baughman, R., DiNardi, D., & Holtz-Eakin, D. (2003). Productivity and wage effects of “family-friendly” fringe benefits. *International Journal of Manpower*, 24(3), 247-259.
- Bayo-Moriones, J. A., & Merino-Díaz de Cerio, J. (2001). Size and HRM in the Spanish manufacturing industry. *Employee Relations*, 23(2), 188-207.
- Beauregard, T. A., & Henry, L. C. (2009). Making the link between work-life balance practices and organizational performance. *Human Resource Management Review*, 19(1), 9-22.
- Becker, B., & Gerhart, B. (1996). The impact of human resource management on organizational performance: Progress and prospects. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(4), 779-801.
- Becker, B. E., & Huselid, M. A. (2006). Strategic human resources management: where do we go from here? *Journal of Management*, 32(6), 898-925.
- Been, W. M., den Dulk, L., & van der Lippe, T. (2015). Dutch top managers and work-life arrangements in times of economic crisis. *Community, Work & Family*, 1-20.

- Beer, M., Boselie, P., & Brewster, C. (2015). Back to the future: Implications for the field of HRM of the multistakeholder perspective proposed 30 years ago. *Human Resource Management, 54*(3), 427-438.
- Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and Power in Social Life*: Transaction Publishers. New Brunswick.
- Blazovich, J. L., Smith, K. T., & Smith, M. (2013). Employee-Friendly Companies and Work-Life Balance: Is There an Impact on Financial Performance and Risk Level? *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications and Conflict, Forthcoming*.
- Bloch, H., & Bhattacharya, M. (2016). Promotion of innovation and job growth in small-and medium-sized enterprises in Australia: Evidence and policy issues. *Australian Economic Review, 49*(2), 192-199.
- Bloom, N., Kretschmer, T., & Van Reenan, J. (2009). Work-life balance, management practices and productivity. In *International Differences in the Business Practices and Productivity of Firms* (pp. 15-54): University of Chicago Press. Cambridge, Massachusetts.
- Bloom, N., Kretschmer, T., & Van Reenen, J. (2011). Are family-friendly workplace practices a valuable firm resource? *Strategic Management Journal, 32*(4), 343-367.
- Bloom, N., & Van Reenen, J. (2006). Management Practices, Work—Life Balance, and Productivity: A Review of Some Recent Evidence. *Oxford Review of Economic Policy, 22*(4), 457-482.
- Bond, S., & Wise, S. (2003). Family leave policies and devolution to the line. *Personnel Review, 32*(1), 58-72.
- Boselie, P., Dietz, G., & Boon, C. (2005). Commonalities and contradictions in HRM and performance research. *Human Resource Management Journal, 15*(3), 67-94.
- Boxall, P., & Macky, K. (2009). Research and theory on high-performance work systems: progressing the high-involvement stream. *Human Resource Management Journal, 19*(1), 3-23.
- Brammer, S., & Millington, A. (2008). Does it pay to be different? An analysis of the relationship between corporate social and financial performance. *Strategic Management Journal, 29*(12), 1325-1343.
- Brewster, C., Mayne, L., & Tregaskis, O. (1997). Flexible working in Europe: A review of the evidence. *MIR: Management International Review, 85*-103.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (2005). *Making human beings human: Bioecological perspectives on human development*: Sage Publications. California, London, New Delhi.
- Burns, T., & Stalker, G. M. (1961). The management of Innovation. London. Tavistock Publishing. Cited in Hurley, RF and Hult, GTM (1998). Innovation, Market Orientation, and Organisational Learning: An Integration and Empirical Examination. *Journal of Marketing, 62*, 42-54.
- Buyens, D., & De Vos, A. (2001). Perceptions of the value of the HR function. *Human Resource Management Journal, 11*(3), 70-89.

- Buzza, J. S. (2017). Are You Living to Work or Working to Live? What Millennials Want in the Workplace. *Journal of Human Resources*, 5(2), 15-20.
- Carlson, D. S., Hunter, E. M., Ferguson, M., & Whitten, D. (2014). Work–family enrichment and satisfaction: Mediating processes and relative impact of originating and receiving domains. *Journal of Management*, 40(3), 845-865.
- Carlson, D. S., Kacmar, K. M., Wayne, J. H., & Grzywacz, J. G. (2006). Measuring the positive side of the work–family interface: Development and validation of a work–family enrichment scale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 68(1), 131-164.
- Carroll, A. B. (2016). Carroll’s pyramid of CSR: taking another look. *International Journal of Corporate Social Responsibility*, 1(1), 3.
- Cascio, W. F. (1991). *Costing human resources*: South-Western Educational Publishing, Cincinnati.
- Cascio, W. F. (2005). From business partner to driving business success: The next step in the evolution of HR management. *Human Resource Management*, 44(2), 159-163.
- Casper, W. J., & Harris, C. M. (2008). Work-life benefits and organizational attachment: Self-interest utility and signaling theory models. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 72(1), 95-109.
- Castellacci, F. (2008). Innovation and the competitiveness of industries: Comparing the mainstream and the evolutionary approaches. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 75(7), 984-1006.
- Cegarra-Leiva, D., Sánchez-Vidal, M. E., & Cegarra-Navarro, J. G. (2012). Work life balance and the retention of managers in Spanish SMEs. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(1), 91-108.
- Cegarra-Leiva, D., Sánchez-Vidal, M. E., & Gabriel Cegarra-Navarro, J. (2012). Understanding the link between work life balance practices and organisational outcomes in SMEs: The mediating effect of a supportive culture. *Personnel Review*, 41(3), 359-379.
- Chan, X. W., Kalliath, T., Brough, P., Siu, O.-L., O’Driscoll, M. P., & Timms, C. (2016). Work–family enrichment and satisfaction: The mediating role of self-efficacy and work–life balance. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 27(15), 1755-1776.
- Chang, A., McDonald, P., & Burton, P. (2010). Methodological choices in work-life balance research 1987 to 2006: A critical review. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(13), 2381-2413.
- Clarke, M. (2011). *Sustainable HRM: A new approach to people management*. In: Tilde University Press. Australia.
- Cleveland, J. N., Byrne, Z. S., & Cavanagh, T. (2015). The future of HR is RH: Respect for humanity at work. *Human Resource Management Review*, 25(2), 146-161.
- Clifton, T. J., & Shepard, E. (2004). Work and family programs and productivity: Estimates applying a production function model. *International Journal of Manpower*, 25(8), 714-728.

- Cohen, E. (2017). *CSR for HR: A necessary partnership for advancing responsible business practices*: Routledge. New York, USA.
- Colakoglu, S., Lepak, D. P., & Hong, Y. (2006). Measuring HRM effectiveness: Considering multiple stakeholders in a global context. *Human Resource Management Review*, 16(2), 209-218.
- Collins, C. J., & Clark, K. D. (2003). Strategic human resource practices, top management team social networks, and firm performance: The role of human resource practices in creating organizational competitive advantage. *Academy of Management Journal*, 46(6), 740-751.
- Collins, M. (2005). The (not so simple) case for teleworking: a study at Lloyd's of London. *New Technology, Work and Employment*, 20(2), 115-132.
- Cooke, F. L., & He, Q. (2010). Corporate social responsibility and HRM in China: a study of textile and apparel enterprises. *Asia Pacific Business Review*, 16(3), 355-376.
- Cooper, C. L., & Antoniou, A.-S. G. (2013). *The Psychology of the Recession on the Workplace*: Edward Elgar Publishing. Cheltenham, UK. Northampton, MA, USA.
- Costa, R., & Menichini, T. (2013). A multidimensional approach for CSR assessment: The importance of the stakeholder perception. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 40(1), 150-161.
- Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31(6), 874-900.
- Cycyota, C. S., & Harrison, D. A. (2006). What (not) to expect when surveying executives: A meta-analysis of top manager response rates and techniques over time. *Organizational Research Methods*, 9(2), 133-160.
- Datta, D. K., Guthrie, J. P., & Wright, P. M. (2005). Human resource management and labor productivity: does industry matter? *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(1), 135-145.
- De Cieri, H., Holmes, B., Abbott, J., & Pettit, T. (2005). Achievements and challenges for work/life balance strategies in Australian organizations. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16(1), 90-103.
- De Kok, J., & Uhlaner, L. M. (2001). Organization context and human resource management in the small firm. *Small Business Economics*, 17(4), 273-291.
- De Menezes, L. M., & Kelliher, C. (2011). Flexible working and performance: A systematic review of the evidence for a business case. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 13(4), 452-474.
- Dean, M., & Spoehr, J. (2018). The fourth industrial revolution and the future of manufacturing work in Australia: challenges and opportunities. *Labour & Industry: A Journal of the Social and Economic Relations of Work*, 1-16.
- Delaney, J. T., & Huselid, M. A. (1996). The impact of human resource management practices on perceptions of organizational performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(4), 949-969.
- Delery, J., & Gupta, N. (2016). Human resource management practices and organizational effectiveness: internal fit matters. *Journal of Organizational Effectiveness: People and Performance*, 3(2), 139-163.

- Delery, J. E. (1998). Issues of fit in strategic human resource management: Implications for research. *Human Resource Management Review*, 8(3), 289-309.
- Delery, J. E., & Doty, D. H. (1996). Modes of theorizing in strategic human resource management: Tests of universalistic, contingency, and configurational performance predictions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(4), 802-835.
- Deloitte Millennial Survey (2018). Retrieved January 11, 2019 from https://content.deloitte.com.au/20180821-hrc-inbound-millennial-survey-registration?_ga=2.156378043.1443620289.1548212174-536608908.1534124197
- Denyer, D., & Tranfield, D. (2009). Producing a systematic review. *The Sage Handbook of Organizational Research Methods*, 671-689.
- Department of Employment, Australia (2016) Annual Report, Retrieved December 01, 2018 from https://docs.jobs.gov.au/system/files/doc/other/em17-0099_department_of_employment_annual_report_2016-17_combined_30_acc_10_2_-_copy.pdf
- Department of Social Services, Australia. (2016) Families and Children, Retrieved December 01, 2018 from <https://www.dss.gov.au/families-and-children/programs-services>
- Deshpande, S. P., & Golhar, D. Y. (1994). HRM practices in large and small manufacturing firms: A comparative study. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 32(2), 49.
- Devanna, M. A., Fombrun, C., & Tichy, N. (1981). Human resources management: A strategic perspective. *Organizational Dynamics*, 9(3), 51-67.
- Dex, S., & Scheibl, F. (2001). Flexible and family-friendly working arrangements in UK-based SMEs: business cases. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 39(3), 411-431.
- Dex, S., Smith, C., & Winter, S. (2001). Effects of family-friendly policies on business performance. Research papers in amangement studies-University of Cambridge, Juge Institute of Management Studies WP.
- DiMaggio, P., & Powell, W. W. (1983). The iron cage revisited: Collective rationality and institutional isomorphism in organizational fields. *American Sociological rReview*, 48(2), 147-160.
- DiMaggio, P. J., & Powell, W. W. (2000). The iron cage revisited-Institutional isomorphism and collective rationality in organizational fields (Reprinted from the American Sociological Association vol 48, pg 147-160, 1983). Jai Press Inc. CT. USA.
- Donaldson, L. (2001). *The contingency Theory of Organizations*: Sage. California, USA.
- Droms Hatch, C., & Stephen, S.-A. (2015). Gender effects on perceptions of individual and corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Applied Business and Economics*, 17(3), 63.
- Dumont, J., Shen, J., & Deng, X. (2017). Effects of green HRM practices on employee workplace green behavior: The role of psychological green climate and employee green values. *Human Resource Management*, 56(4), 613-627.
- Edward, M. S., Clifton, T. J., & Kruse, D. (1996). Flexible work hours and productivity: Some evidence from the pharmaceutical industry. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society*, 35(1), 123-139.

- Ehnert, I. (2009). Sustainable human resource management. *A Conceptual and Exploratory Analysis from a Paradox Perspective, Heidelberg*.
- Ehnert, I., & Harry, W. (2012). Recent developments and future prospects on sustainable human resource management: Introduction to the special issue. *Management Revue*, 221-238.
- Ehnert, I., Harry, W., & Zink, K. J. (2014). Sustainability and HRM. In *Sustainability and Human Resource Management* (pp. 3-32): Springer.
- Ehnert, I., Parsa, S., Roper, I., Wagner, M., & Muller-Camen, M. (2016). Reporting on sustainability and HRM: A comparative study of sustainability reporting practices by the world's largest companies. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 27(1), 88-108.
- Emerson, R. M. (1976). Social exchange theory. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 2(1), 335-362.
- Fair Work Commission (2014) Australian Workplace Relations Study – AWRS Data Centre. Accessed to December 23 <https://www.fwc.gov.au/resources/research/australian-workplace-relations-study/awrs-data-centre>
- Felstead, A., Jewson, N., Phizacklea, A., & Walters, S. (2002). The option to work at home: another privilege for the favoured few? *New Technology, Work and Employment*, 17(3), 204-223.
- Ferris, G. R., Hall, A. T., Royle, M. T., & Martocchio, J. J. (2004). Theoretical Development in the Field of Human Resources Management: Issues and Challenges for the Future. *Organizational Analysis (15517470)*, 12(3).
- Fleetwood, S., & Hesketh, A. (2006). HRM-performance research: under-theorized and lacking explanatory power. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17(12), 1977-1993.
- Fossey, E., Harvey, C., McDermott, F., & Davidson, L. (2002). Understanding and evaluating qualitative research. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry*, 36(6), 717-732.
- Foucreault, A., Ollier-Malaterre, A., & Ménard, J. (2016). Organizational culture and work-life integration: A barrier to employees' respite? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 1-21.
- Frederiksen, A., Lange, F., & Kriechel, B. (2017). Subjective performance evaluations and employee careers. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 134, 408-429.
- Freeman, R. E. (1983). Strategic management: A stakeholder approach. *Advances in Strategic Management*, 1(1), 31-60.
- Freeman, R. E., Harrison, J. S., Wicks, A. C., Parmar, B. L., & De Colle, S. (2010). *Stakeholder Theory: The State of the Art*: Cambridge University Press. Cambridge, UK.
- Freeman, R. E., Wicks, A. C., & Parmar, B. (2004). Stakeholder theory and “the corporate objective revisited”. *Organization Science*, 15(3), 364-369.
- Galbraith, J. R. (1995). *Designing Organizations: An Executive Briefing on Strategy, Structure, and Process*: Jossey-Bass. San Francisco, CA, USA.

- Galbraith, J. R. (2007). *Designing Complex Organizations* (Addison-Wesley series on organization development).
- Gambles, R., Lewis, S., & Rapoport, R. (2006). *The Myth of Work-life Balance: The Challenge of Our Time for Men, Women and Societies*: John Wiley & Sons. London, UK.
- Giardini, A., & Kabst, R. (2008). Effects of work-family human resource practices: a longitudinal perspective. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19(11), 2079-2094.
- Glass, J. L., & Estes, S. B. (1997). The family responsive workplace. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 23(1), 289-313.
- Glass, J. L., & Finley, A. (2002). Coverage and effectiveness of family-responsive workplace policies. *Human Resource Management Review*, 12(3), 313-337.
- Glass, J., & Fujimoto, T. (1995). Employer characteristics and the provision of family responsive policies. *Work and Occupations*, 22(4), 380-411.
- Godthelp, M., & Glunk, U. (2003). Turnover at the Top: Demographic Diversity as a Determinant of Executive Turnover in The Netherlands. *European Management Journal*, 21(5), 614-625.
- Goldberg, W. A., Greenberger, E., Koch-Jones, J., O'Neil, R., & Hamill, S. (1989). Attractiveness of child care and related employer-supported benefits and policies to married and single parents. *Child and Youth Care Quarterly*, 18(1), 23-37.
- Golhar, D. Y., & Deshpande, S. P. (1997). HRM practices of large and small Canadian manufacturing firms. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 35(3), 30.
- Gond, J.-P., Igalens, J., Swaen, V., & El Akremi, A. (2011). The human resources contribution to responsible leadership: An exploration of the CSR–HR interface. In *Responsible Leadership* (pp. 115-132): Springer.
- Gonyea, J. G., & Googins, B. K. (1992). Linking the worlds of work and family: Beyond the productivity trap. *Human Resource Management*, 31(3), 209-226.
- Goodstein, J. D. (1994). Institutional pressures and strategic responsiveness: Employer involvement in work-family issues. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(2), 350-382.
- Gray, C., & Mabey, C. (2005). Management development key differences between small and large businesses in Europe. *International Small Business Journal*, 23(5), 467-485.
- Grote, G., & Guest, D. (2017). The case for reinvigorating quality of working life research. *Human Relations*, 70(2), 149-167.
- Grover, S. L., & Crooker, K. J. (1995). Who appreciates family-responsive human resource policies: The impact of family-friendly policies on the organizational attachment of parents and non-parents. *Personnel Psychology*, 48(2), 271-288.
- Grzywacz, J. G., & Carlson, D. S. (2007). Conceptualizing work–family balance: Implications for practice and research. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 9(4), 455-471.
- Guba, E. G. (1990). *The paradigm dialog*: Sage publications. San Francisco, CA, USA.

- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, 2(163-194), 105.
- Guest, D. E. (2011). Human resource management and performance: still searching for some answers. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 21(1), 3-13.
- Guest, D. E. (2017). Human resource management and employee well-being: Towards a new analytic framework. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 27(1), 22-38.
- Guest, D. E., Michie, J., Conway, N., & Sheehan, M. (2003). Human resource management and corporate performance in the UK. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 41(2), 291-314.
- Gully, S. M., Phillips, J. M., Castellano, W. G., Han, K., & Kim, A. (2013). A mediated moderation model of recruiting socially and environmentally responsible job applicants. *Personnel Psychology*, 66(4), 935-973.
- Guthrie, J. P. (2001). High-involvement work practices, turnover, and productivity: Evidence from New Zealand. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(1), 180-190.
- Hargis, M. B., & Bradley III, D. B. (2011). Strategic human resource management in small and growing firms: Aligning valuable resources. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal*, 10(2), 105.
- Hauff, S., Alewell, D., & Hansen, N. K. (2014). HRM systems between control and commitment: Occurrence, characteristics and effects on HRM outcomes and firm performance. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 24(4), 424-441.
- Higgins, C., Duxbury, L., & Johnson, K. L. (2000). Part-time work for women: does it really help balance work and family? *Human Resource Management*, 39(1), 17-32.
- Hill, R. P., Ainscough, T., Shank, T., & Manullang, D. (2007). Corporate social responsibility and socially responsible investing: A global perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 70(2), 165-174.
- Homans, G. C. (1958). Social behavior as exchange. *American Journal of Sociology*, 63(6), 597-606.
- Huselid, M. A. (1995). The impact of human resource management practices on turnover, productivity, and corporate financial performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(3), 635-672.
- Ichniowski, C., & Shaw, K. (1999). The effects of human resource management systems on economic performance: An international comparison of US and Japanese plants. *Management Science*, 45(5), 704-721.
- Illegems, V., & Verbeke, A. (2003). *Moving Towards the Virtual Workplace: Managerial and Societal Perspectives on Telework*. Edward Elgar Publishing Limited. UK.
- Illegems, V., & Verbeke, A. (2004). Telework: What does it mean for management? *Long Range Planning*, 37(4), 319-334.
- Ingram, P., & Simons, T. (1995). Institutional and resource dependence determinants of responsiveness to work-family issues. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(5), 1466-1482.

- Itami, H., & Roehl, T. W. (1991). *Mobilizing invisible assets*: Harvard University Press. Cambridge. London.
- Jabbour, C. J. C., & Santos, F. C. A. (2008). The central role of human resource management in the search for sustainable organizations. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19(12), 2133-2154.
- Jackson, S. E., Brett, J. F., Sessa, V. I., Cooper, D. M., Julin, J. A., & Peyronnin, K. (1991). Some differences make a difference: Individual dissimilarity and group heterogeneity as correlates of recruitment, promotions, and turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(5), 675.
- Jackson, S. E., Schuler, R. S., & Jiang, K. (2014). An aspirational framework for strategic human resource management. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 8(1), 1-56.
- Jamali, D. R., El Dirani, A. M., & Harwood, I. A. (2015). Exploring human resource management roles in corporate social responsibility: the CSR-HRM co-creation model. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, 24(2), 125-143.
- James, A. (2014). Work-life 'balance', recession and the gendered limits to learning and innovation (or, why it pays employers to care). *Gender, Work & Organization*, 21(3), 273-294.
- Jap, S. D. (2001). "Pie sharing" in complex collaboration contexts. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 38(1), 86-99.
- Järilström, M., Saru, E., & Vanhala, S. (2016). Sustainable human resource management with salience of stakeholders: A top management perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1-22.
- Javalgi, R. G., & Martin, C. L. (2007). Internationalization of services: identifying the building-blocks for future research. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 21(6), 391-397.
- Jay, G. (1973). *Designing complex organizations*. On: New York, Addison-Wesley.
- Jones, T. M., & Wicks, A. C. (1999). Convergent stakeholder theory. *Academy of Management Review*, 24(2), 206-221.
- Juan, W., & Zhang, Z. (2017). Exploring Applicant and Employee Reactions to Misaligned External and Internal CSR. In *Academy of Management Proceedings* (Vol. 2017, pp. 14708): Academy of Management Briarcliff Manor, NY 10510.
- Kalleberg, A. L. (2001). Organizing flexibility: the flexible firm in a new century. *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 39(4), 479-504.
- Katic, M., Agarwal, R., & Al-Kilidar, H. (2017). The Interplay Between Flexibility and Innovation within High-Variety, Low-Volume Manufacturing. In *Production and Operations Management Society (POMS) 2017 International Conference*.
- Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1978). Organizations and the system concept. *Classics of Organization Theory*, 161-172.
- Keeney, J., Boyd, E. M., Sinha, R., Westring, A. F., & Ryan, A. M. (2013). From "work-family" to "work-life": Broadening our conceptualization and measurement. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 82(3), 221-237.

- Keith, K., & McWilliams, A. (1999). The returns to mobility and job search by gender. *Industrial & Labor Relations Review*, 52(3), 460-477.
- Kelliher, C., & Anderson, D. (2010). Doing more with less? Flexible working practices and the intensification of work. *Human Relations*, 63(1), 83-106.
- Kellough, J. E., & Osuna, W. (1995). Cross-agency comparisons of quit rates in the federal service: Another look at the evidence. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 15(4), 58-68.
- Kelly, E. L., Kossek, E. E., Hammer, L. B., Durham, M., Bray, J., Chermack, K., . . . Kaskubar, D. (2008). 7 Getting There from Here: Research on the Effects of Work–Family Initiatives on Work–Family Conflict and Business Outcomes. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 2(1), 305-349.
- Kepes, S., & Delery, J. E. (2007). HRM systems and the problem of internal fit. *Oxford Handbook of Human Resource Management, The*, 385.
- Kim, H. K. (2014). Work-life balance and employees' performance: The mediating role of affective commitment. *Global Business and Management Research*, 6(1), 37.
- Kim, S. (2008). Women and family-friendly policies in the Korean government. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 74(3), 463-476.
- Kim, S., & Wright, P. M. (2011). Putting strategic human resource management in context: A contextualized model of high commitment work systems and its implications in China. *Management and Organization Review*, 7(1), 153-174.
- King, A. W., & Zeithaml, C. P. (2001). Competencies and firm performance: Examining the causal ambiguity paradox. *Strategic Management Journal*, 75-99.
- Klimkiewicz, K., & Oltra, V. (2017). Does CSR enhance employer attractiveness? The role of millennial job seekers' attitudes. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, 24(5), 449-463.
- Knox, A. (2014). Human resource management (HRM) in temporary work agencies: Evidence from the hospitality industry. *The Economic and Labour Relations Review*, 25(1), 81-98.
- Koch, M. J., & McGrath, R. G. (1996). Improving labor productivity: Human resource management policies do matter. *Strategic Management Journal*, 17(5), 335-354.
- Konovsky, M. A., & Pugh, S. D. (1994). Citizenship behavior and social exchange. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(3), 656-669.
- Konrad, A. M. (2007). 12 The effectiveness of human resource management practices for promoting women's careers. *Handbook on Women in Business and Management*, 254.
- Konrad, A. M., & Mangel, R. (2000). The impact of work-life programs on firm productivity. *Strategic Management Journal*, 21(12), 1225-1237.
- Korabik, K., Aycan, Z., & Ayman, R. (2017). *The Work-family Interface in Global Context*: Taylor & Francis. New York. London.
- Kossek, E. E., Baltes, B. B., & Matthews, R. A. (2011). How work–family research can finally have an impact in organizations. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 4(3), 352-369.

- Kossek, E. E., & Lambert, S. J. (2004). *Work and life integration: Organizational, Cultural, and Individual Perspectives*: Psychology Press. New Jersey. London.
- Kossek, E. E., Lautsch, B. A., & Eaton, S. C. (2006). Telecommuting, control, and boundary management: Correlates of policy use and practice, job control, and work–family effectiveness. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 68(2), 347-367.
- Kossek, E. E., Lewis, S., & Hammer, L. B. (2009). Work–life initiatives and organizational change: Overcoming mixed messages to move from the margin to the mainstream. *Human Relations*, 63(1), 3-19.
- Kossek, E. E., & Nichol, V. (1992). The effects of on-site child care on employee attitudes and performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 45(3), 485-509.
- Kossek, E. E., & Ozeki, C. (1999). Bridging the work-family policy and productivity gap: A literature review. *Community, Work & Family*, 2(1), 7-32.
- Kotey, B., & Sheridan, A. (2001). Gender and the practice of HRM in small business. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 39(3), 23-40.
- Kotey, B., & Sheridan, A. (2004). Changing HRM practices with firm growth. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 11(4), 474-485.
- Kramar, R. (2014). Beyond strategic human resource management: is sustainable human resource management the next approach? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25(8), 1069-1089.
- Krishnan, T., & Scullion, H. (2017). Talent management and dynamic view of talent in small and medium enterprises. *Human Resource Management Review*, 27(3), 431-441.
- Künn-Nelen, A., De Grip, A., & Fouarge, D. (2013). Is part-time employment beneficial for firm productivity? *Industrial & Labor Relations Review*, 66(5), 1172-1191.
- Kurland, N., & Bailey, D. (1999). When workers are here, there, and everywhere: A discussion of the advantages and challenges of telework. *Organizational Dynamics*, 28(2), 53-58.
- Kvande, E. (2009). Work–life balance for fathers in globalized knowledge work. Some insights from the Norwegian context. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 16(1), 58-72.
- Lambert, S. J. (2000). Added benefits: The link between work-life benefits and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of management Journal*, 43(5), 801-815.
- Lawler, E. E. (2005). From human resource management to organizational effectiveness. *Human Resource Management*, 44(2), 165-169.
- Lawler III, E. E. (1997). Rethinking organization size. *Organizational Dynamics*, 26(2), 24-35.
- Lee, A. S. (2017). Philosophy and method: making interpretive research interpretive. In *The Routledge Companion to Management Information Systems* (pp. 50-66): Routledge. London.
- Lee, B.-H., & Kim, J.-S. (2010). Is family-friendly management good for firms? The diffusion and performance of family-friendly workplaces in South Korea. *Journal of Industrial Relations*, 52(4), 459-475.

- Lee, B., & Kim, J. (2009). A study on organizational outcomes of family-friendly management in Korea. *Korean Journal of Industrial Relations*, 19(2), 153-175.
- Lee, J.-S., Back, K.-J., & Chan, E. S. (2015). Quality of work life and job satisfaction among frontline hotel employees: A self-determination and need satisfaction theory approach. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27(5), 768-789.
- Lee, S. Y., & Hong, J. H. (2011). Does Family-Friendly Policy Matter? Testing Its Impact on Turnover and Performance. *Public Administration Review*, 71(6), 870-879.
- Lengnick-Hall, C. A., & Lengnick-Hall, M. L. (1988). Strategic human resources management: A review of the literature and a proposed typology. *Academy of Management Review*, 13(3), 454-470.
- Lengnick-Hall, M. L., Lengnick-Hall, C. A., Andrade, L. S., & Drake, B. (2009). Strategic human resource management: The evolution of the field. *Human Resource Management Review*, 19(2), 64-85.
- Lewis, S., & Humbert, L. (2010). Discourse or reality? “Work-life balance”, flexible working policies and the gendered organization. *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal*, 29(3), 239-254.
- Lindgreen, A., Swaen, V., & Johnston, W. J. (2009). Corporate social responsibility: An empirical investigation of US organizations. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 85(2), 303-323.
- Lingard, H., Turner, M., & Charlesworth, S. (2015). Growing pains: work-life impacts in small-to-medium sized construction firms. *Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management*, 22(3), 312-326.
- Liu, N.-C., & Wang, C.-Y. (2011). Searching for a balance: work–family practices, work–team design, and organizational performance. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(10), 2071-2085.
- Lusch, R. F., Vargo, S. L., & Wessels, G. (2008). Toward a conceptual foundation for service science: Contributions from service-dominant logic. *IBM Systems Journal*, 47(1), 5-14.
- MacDermid, S. M., Litchfield, L. C., & Pitt-Catsouphes, M. (1999). Organizational size and work-family issues. *The ANNALS of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 562(1), 111-126.
- MacDuffie, J. P. (1995). Human resource bundles and manufacturing performance: Organizational logic and flexible production systems in the world auto industry. *ILR Review*, 48(2), 197-221.
- Mandip, G. (2012). Green HRM: People management commitment to environmental sustainability. *Research Journal of Recent Sciences*, ISSN, 2277, 2502.
- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2014). *Designing Qualitative Research*: Sage publications. Singapore.
- Martínez-Sánchez, A., Pérez-Pérez, M., de-Luis-Carnicer, P., & Vela-Jiménez, M. J. (2007). Telework, human resource flexibility and firm performance. *New Technology, Work and Employment*, 22(3), 208-223.

- Martinez-Sánchez, A., Pérez-Pérez, M., Vela-Jiménez, M., & de-Luis-Carnicer, P. (2008). Telework adoption, change management and firm performance. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 21(1), 7-31.
- Martínez -Sánchez, A., Pérez -Pérez, M., de Luis -Carnicer, P., & José Vela -Jiménez, M. (2007). Teleworking and workplace flexibility: a study of impact on firm performance. *Personnel Review*, 36(1), 42-64.
- Martinson, B., & De Leon, J. (2018). Testing horizontal and vertical alignment of HR practices designed to achieve strategic organizational goals. *Journal of Organizational Effectiveness: People and Performance*, 5(2), 158-181.
- Matveev, A. V. (2002). The advantages of employing quantitative and qualitative methods in intercultural research: Practical implications from the study of the perceptions of intercultural communication competence by American and Russian managers. *Theory of Communication and Applied Communication*, 1(1), 59-67.
- Maxwell, G., Rankine, L., Bell, S., & MacVicar, A. (2007). The incidence and impact of flexible working arrangements in smaller businesses. *Employee Relations*, 29(2), 138-161.
- Maxwell, G. A., & McDougall, M. (2004). Work–life balance: Exploring the connections between levels of influence in the UK public sector. *Public Management Review*, 6(3), 377-393.
- Mayson, S., & Barrett, R. (2006). The ‘science’ and ‘practice’ of HRM in small firms. *Human Resource Management Review*, 16(4), 447-455.
- McCrinkle, M. (2008). Australia in 2020: A Snapshot of the Future. On: McCrinkle Research.
- McDonald, P., Pini, B., & Bradley, L. (2007). Freedom or fallout in local government? How work–life culture impacts employees using flexible work practices. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 18(4), 602-622.
- Mennens, K., Van Gils, A., Odekerken-Schröder, G., & Letterie, W. (2018). Exploring antecedents of service innovation performance in manufacturing SMEs. *International Small Business Journal*, 0266242617749687.
- Mesch, D. J., Perry, J. L., & Wise, L. R. (1995). Bureaucratic and strategic human resource management: An empirical comparison in the federal government. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 5(4), 385-402.
- Meyer, C. S., Mukerjee, S., & Sestero, A. (2001). Work-family benefits: which ones maximize profits? *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 28-44.
- Miles, R. E. (2007). Innovation and leadership values. *California Management Review*, 50(1), 192-201.
- Morgan, H., & Milliken, F. J. (1992). Keys to action: Understanding differences in organizations' responsiveness to work-and-family issues. *Human Resource Management*, 31(3), 227-248.
- Morris, B., & Johnston, R. (1987). Dealing with inherent variability: The difference between manufacturing and service? *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, 7(4), 13-22.

- Murillo-Luna, J. L., Garcés-Ayerbe, C., & Rivera-Torres, P. (2008). Why do patterns of environmental response differ? A stakeholders' pressure approach. *Strategic Management Journal*, 29(11), 1225-1240.
- Naithani, P. (2010). Overview of work-life balance discourse and its relevance in current economic scenario. *Asian Social Science*, 6(6), p.148.
- Ngo, H. y., Foley, S., & Loi, R. (2009). Family friendly work practices, organizational climate, and firm performance: A study of multinational corporations in Hong Kong. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30(5), 665-680.
- Nicholson, M. (1996). The continued significance of positivism? *International theory: Positivism and Beyond*, 128-145.
- Ollier-Malaterre, A., & Foucreault, A. (2017). Cross-national work-life research: Cultural and structural impacts for individuals and organizations. *Journal of Management*, 43(1), 111-136.
- Osterman, P. (1995). Work/family programs and the employment relationship. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 681-700.
- Paauwe, J., & Boselie, P. (2005). HRM and performance: what next? *Human Resource Management Journal*, 15(4), 68-83.
- Parkes, L. P., & Langford, P. H. (2008). Work-life balance or work-life alignment? A test of the importance of work-life balance for employee engagement and intention to stay in organisations. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 14(03), 267-284.
- Pasamar, S., & Valle Cabrera, R. (2013). Work-life balance under challenging financial and economic conditions. *International Journal of Manpower*, 34(8), 961-974.
- Pérez, M. P., Sánchez, A., & de Luis Carnicer, M. (2002). Benefits and barriers of telework: perception differences of human resources managers according to company's operations strategy. *Technovation*, 22(12), 775-783.
- Perrigino, M. B., Dunford, B. B., & Wilson, K. S. (2018). Work-Family Backlash: The “Dark Side” of Work-Life Balance (WLB) Policies. *Academy of Management Annals*, 12(2), 600-630.
- Perry-Smith, J. E., & Blum, T. C. (2000). Work-family human resource bundles and perceived organizational performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(6), 1107-1117.
- Pfeffer, J. (1998). *The Human Equation: Building Profits by Putting People First*: Harvard Business Press. Boston, Massachusetts.
- Pocock, B., Charlesworth, S., & Chapman, J. (2013). Work-family and work-life pressures in Australia: advancing gender equality in “good times”? *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 33(9/10), 594-612.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879.
- Poelmans, S. A., & Sahibzada, K. (2004). A multi-level model for studying the context and impact of work-family policies and culture in organizations. *Human Resource Management Review*, 14(4), 409-431.

- Poelmans, S. A., Chinchilla, N., & Cardona, P. (2003). The adoption of family-friendly HRM policies: Competing for scarce resources in the labour market. *International Journal of Manpower*, 24(2), 128-147.
- Ponzellini, A. M. (2006). Work–life balance and industrial relations in Italy. *European Societies*, 8(2), 273-294.
- Prajogo, D. I. (2006). The relationship between innovation and business performance—a comparative study between manufacturing and service firms. *Knowledge and Process Management*, 13(3), 218-225.
- PricewaterhouseCoopers International (PwC) (2011), Millennials at work: Reshaping the workplace, PricewaterhouseCoopers International Limited. Available at: http://www.pwc.com/en_M1/m1/services/consulting/documents/millennials-at-work.pdf. Accessed February, 2018.
- Punch, K. F., & Oancea, A. (2014). *Introduction to Research Methods in Education*: Sage Publications. Los Angeles, London, Singapore, New Delhi, Washington DC.
- Putnik, K., Houkes, I., Jansen, N., Nijhuis, F., & Kant, I. (2018). Work-home interface in a cross-cultural context: A framework for future research and practice. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 1-18.
- Richard, O. C., Murthi, B. S., & Ismail, K. (2007). The impact of racial diversity on intermediate and long-term performance: The moderating role of environmental context. *Strategic Management Journal*, 28(12), 1213-1233.
- Roehling, P. V., Roehling, M. V., & Moen, P. (2001). The relationship between work-life policies and practices and employee loyalty: A life course perspective. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, 22(2), 141-170.
- Rose, J., Hewitt, B., & Baxter, J. (2013). Women and part-time employment: Easing or squeezing time pressure? *Journal of Sociology*, 49(1), 41-59.
- Rosenzweig, P. M., & Nohria, N. (1994). Influences on human resource management practices in multinational corporations. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 25(2), 229-251
- Rousseau, D. (1995). *Psychological Contracts in Organizations: Understanding Written and Unwritten Agreements*: Sage Publications. UK. USA.
- Ryan, A. M., & Kossek, E. E. (2008). Work-life policy implementation: Breaking down or creating barriers to inclusiveness? *Human Resource Management*, 47(2), 295-310.
- Sands, J., & Harper, T. (2007). Family-friendly benefits and organizational performance. *Business Renaissance Quarterly*, 2(1), 107.
- Saridakis, G., Lai, Y., & Cooper, C. L. (2017). Exploring the relationship between HRM and firm performance: A meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *Human Resource Management Review*, 27(1), 87-96.
- Scandura, T. A., & Lankau, M. (1997). Relationships of gender, family responsibility and flexible work hours to organizational commitment and job satisfaction. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 18(4), 377-391.
- Scheibl, F., & Dex, S. (1998). Should we have more family-friendly policies?. *European Management Journal*, 16(5), 586-599.

- Schläpfer, R. C., Koch, M., & Merkhofer, P. (2015). Industry 4.0 challenges and solutions for the digital transformation and use of exponential technologies. *Deloitte, Zurich*.
- Schmidt, D. E., & Duenas, G. (2002). Incentives to encourage worker-friendly organizations. *Public Personnel Management, 31*(3), 293-308.
- Schuler, R. S. (1987). Matching Effective HR Practices with Competitive Strategy. *Personnel, 64*(9), 18-20.
- Schuler, R. S., & Jackson, S. E. (1987). Linking competitive strategies with human resource management practices. *The Academy of Management Executive (1987-1989)*, 207-219.
- Selden, S. C., & Moynihan, D. P. (2000). A model of voluntary turnover in state government. *Review of Public Personnel Administration, 20*(2), 63-74.
- Sengupta, K., Heiser, D. R., & Cook, L. S. (2006). Manufacturing and service supply chain performance: a comparative analysis. *Journal of Supply Chain Management, 42*(4), 4-15.
- Settoon, R. P., Bennett, N., & Liden, R. C. (1996). Social exchange in organizations: Perceived organizational support, leader-member exchange, and employee reciprocity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*(3), 219.
- Sheehan, C., Holland, P., & De Cieri, H. (2006). Current developments in HRM in Australian organisations. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 44*(2), 132-152.
- Sicherman, N. (1996). Gender differences in departures from a large firm. *Industrial & Labor Relations Review, 49*(3), 484-505.
- Singh, K. (2004). Impact of HR practices on perceived firm performance in India. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources, 42*(3), 301-317.
- Singh, S., Darwish, T. K., & Potočnik, K. (2016). Measuring organizational performance: A case for subjective measures. *British Journal of Management, 27*(1), 214-224.
- Skaggs, B. C., & Youndt, M. (2004). Strategic positioning, human capital, and performance in service organizations: A customer interaction approach. *Strategic Management Journal, 25*(1), 85-99.
- Skinner, N., & Pocock, B. (2011). Flexibility and work-life interference in Australia. *Journal of Industrial Relations, 53*(1), 65-82.
- Smith, J. B., & Barclay, D. W. (1997). The effects of organizational differences and trust on the effectiveness of selling partner relationships. *The Journal of Marketing, 3*-21.
- Snell, S. A., & Dean Jr, J. W. (1992). Integrated manufacturing and human resource management: A human capital perspective. *Academy of Management Journal, 35*(3), 467-504.
- Sobh, R., & Perry, C. (2006). Research design and data analysis in realism research. *European Journal of Marketing, 40*(11/12), 1194-1209.
- Spinks, N., & Moore, C. (2007). The changing workforce, workplace and nature of work: implications for health human resource management. *Nursing leadership, 20*(3), 26-41.

- Stavrou, E. T. & Kilaniotis, C. (2010). Flexible work and turnover: An empirical investigation across cultures. *British Journal of Management*, 21(2), 541-554.
- Stavrou, E. T. (2005). Flexible work bundles and organizational competitiveness: a cross-national study of the European work context. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26(8), 923-947.
- Stavrou, E. T., & Brewster, C. (2005). The configurational approach to linking strategic human resource management bundles with business performance: myth or reality? *Management Revue*, 186-201.
- Su, Z.-X., & Wright, P. M. (2012). The effective human resource management system in transitional China: a hybrid of commitment and control practices. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(10), 2065-2086.
- Subramony, M. (2009). A meta-analytic investigation of the relationship between HRM bundles and firm performance. *Human Resource Management*, 48(5), 745-768.
- Sutcliffe, J. E., & Dhakal, S. P. (2018). Youth unemployment amidst aged care workers shortages in Australia: Why care about the millennials? *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal*, 37(2), 182-198
- Tayeb, M. (1987). Contingency theory and culture: a study of matched English and the Indian manufacturing firms. *Organization Studies*, 8(3), 241-261.
- Teng, E. H.-L. (2017). Millennial mental health: examining current approaches and exploring challenges to the measurement and promotion of mental health in young Australians. (Doctoral dissertation).
- Thibaut, J. W. (2017). *The Social Psychology of Groups*: Routledge. New York, USA.
- Todd, P., & Binns, J. (2013). Work–life balance: is it now a problem for management? *Gender, Work & Organization*, 20(3), 219-231.
- Turker, D. (2009). Measuring corporate social responsibility: A scale development study. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 85(4), 411-427.
- Ulrich, D., & Dulebohn, J. H. (2015). Are we there yet? What's next for HR? *Human Resource Management Review*, 25(2), 188-204.
- van Veen-Dirks, P. (2010). Different uses of performance measures: The evaluation versus reward of production managers. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 35(2), 141-164.
- Verheul, I. (2007). Commitment or control? Human resource management practices in female and male-led businesses. (October 30, 2007). *ERIM Report Series Reference No. ERS-2007-071-ORG*.
- Voegtlin, C., & Greenwood, M. (2016). Corporate social responsibility and human resource management: A systematic review and conceptual analysis. *Human Resource Management Review*, 26(3), 181-197.
- Voydanoff, P. (2005). Toward a conceptualization of perceived work-family fit and balance: A demands and resources approach. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 67(4), 822-836.

- Walton, R. E. (1985). From control to commitment in the workplace. *Harvard Business Review*, 63(2), 76-84.
- Wang, J., & Verma, A. (2012). Explaining organizational responsiveness to work-life balance issues: The role of business strategy and high-performance work systems. *Human Resource Management*, 51(3), 407-432.
- Watad, M. M., & DiSanzo, F. J. (2000). Case study: the synergism of telecommuting and office automation. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 41(2), 85.
- Wayne, S. J., Shore, L. M., & Liden, R. C. (1997). Perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange: A social exchange perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 40(1), 82-111.
- Weber, M. (2008). The business case for corporate social responsibility: A company-level measurement approach for CSR. *European Management Journal*, 26(4), 247-261.
- Wiesner, R., & Innes, P. (2010). Bleak house or bright prospect?: HRM in Australian SMEs over 1998–2008. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 48(2), 151-184.
- Wilcox, T. (2006). Human resource development as an element of corporate social responsibility. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 44(2), 184-196.
- Wilson, V., & McCormack, B. (2006). Critical realism as emancipatory action: the case for realistic evaluation in practice development. *Nursing Philosophy*, 7(1), 45-57.
- Wood, S. (1999). Family-friendly management: testing the various perspectives. *National Institute Economic Review*, 168(1), 99-116.
- Wood, S. J., & de Menezes, L. M. (2010). Family-friendly management, organizational performance and social legitimacy. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(10), 1575-1597.
- Wood, S. J., de Menezes, L. M., & Lasasoa, A. (2003). Family-Friendly Management in Great Britain: Testing Various Perspectives. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society*, 42(2), 221-250.
- Workplace Gender Equality Agency, (2016), *WGEA Data Explorer*. Accessed 23 December, <http://data.wgea.gov.au/comparison>
- Wright, P. M. (2008). Human resource strategy: Adapting to the age of globalization. Alexandria, VA: *SHRM Foundation*.
- Wright, P. M., Gardner, T. M., Moynihan, L. M., & Allen, M. R. (2005). The relationship between HR practices and firm performance: Examining causal order. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(2), 409-446.
- Wright, P. M., & McMahan, G. C. (1992). Theoretical perspectives for strategic human resource management. *Journal of Management*, 18(2), 295-320.
- Wright, P. M., McMahan, G. C., & McWilliams, A. (1994). Human resources and sustained competitive advantage: a resource-based perspective. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 5(2), 301-326.

- Yamamoto, I., & Matsuura, T. (2014). Effect of Work–Life Balance Practices on Firm Productivity: Evidence from Japanese Firm-Level Panel Data. *The BE Journal of Economic Analysis & Policy*, 4(4), 1677-1708.
- Yanadori, Y., & Kato, T. (2009). Work and family practices in Japanese firms: their scope, nature and impact on employee turnover. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20(2), 439-456.
- Yang, Y., & Jiang, G.-L. (2017). Work-Life Programs, Demographic Composition, and Organizational Outcomes. In *Academy of Management Proceedings* (Vol. 2017, pp. 11068): Academy of Management Briarcliff Manor, NY 10510.
- Yin, R. K. (2015). *Qualitative research from start to finish*: Guilford Publications. New York, USA.
- Youndt, M. A., Snell, S. A., Dean Jr, J. W., & Lepak, D. P. (1996). Human resource management, manufacturing strategy, and firm performance. *Academy of management Journal*, 39(4), 836-866.
- Yuile, C., Chang, A., Gudmundsson, A., & Sawang, S. (2012). The role of life friendly policies on employees' work-life balance. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 18(01), 53-63.

Appendices

Appendix A1

Work-life Programs': A Source of Competitive Advantage

Work-life Programs' Survey

Kohinur Akter

PhD Candidate

**QUT Business School
Queensland University of Technology
Brisbane**



Australia's first business school
with triple international accreditation



Accredited by
Association
of MBAs

Overview

This study investigates work/life programs in Australian organisations. It aims to find out whether work-life programs provide a competitive advantage to the organisations. The findings of this study will help managers to mainstream their work/life programs in organisational systems to ensure multi-level benefits. Please help us to achieve these aims by completing this survey.

Instructions and Information

Please answer all the questions. The survey is divided into sections based on types of questions and response choices. The relevant instructions are provided in the beginning of each section.

The term **‘organisation’** in this survey refers to your whole business entity for which your organisation reports financial performance in its annual reports.

Section 1: Work/Life Programs

The following statements are about work/life programs offered in your organisation. Please circle one of the four choices for each question.

	Does not offer	Offered to few employees	Offered to most employees	Offered to all employees
1. On-site day care	1	2	3	4
2. Near-site day care	1	2	3	4
3. Sick childcare	1	2	3	4
4. Emergency childcare	1	2	3	4
5. Sick days for childcare/dependent care (leave for child or dependent care)	1	2	3	4
6. On-site conveniences (e.g., cafeteria, fitness centre)	1	2	3	4
7. Teleworking (working off site)	1	2	3	4
8. Parental leave over and above legal entitlement	1	2	3	4
9. Adoption leave	1	2	3	4
10. Gradual return to work	1	2	3	4
11. Spouse placement	1	2	3	4
12. Supervisory training in work-life sensitivity	1	2	3	4
13. Flexitime	1	2	3	4
14. Job-sharing	1	2	3	4
15. Part-year work	1	2	3	4
16. Part-time work	1	2	3	4
17. Part-time work for professionals	1	2	3	4
18. Voluntary reduced time (work fewer hours according to a prearranged schedule and then may return to their full time status)	1	2	3	4

1. Compressed week (a standard workweek is compressed to fewer than five days)	1	2	3	4
2. Flexible holidays	1	2	3	4
3. Unpaid extra holidays	1	2	3	4
4. Single employees support group	1	2	3	4
5. Working parents support group	1	2	3	4
6. Aged employees support group	1	2	3	4

Section 2: Organisational Performance

Please circle **one** of the five choices for each question.

In comparison to other organisations that are in the same kind of business, how would you compare your organisation's overall performance **during the last 12 months**? What about...

	Much Worse	Somewhat Worse	Neutral	Somewhat Better	Much Better
1. Quality of products or services?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Development of new products or services?	1	2	3	4	5
3. Ability to attract essential employees?	1	2	3	4	5
4. Ability to retain essential employees?	1	2	3	4	5
5. Satisfaction of customers and clients?	1	2	3	4	5
6. Relations between management and other employees?	1	2	3	4	5
7. Relations among employees in general?	1	2	3	4	5
8. Marketing of the organisation's products/services?	1	2	3	4	5
9. Growth in sales?	1	2	3	4	5
10. Profitability?	1	2	3	4	5
11. Market share?	1	2	3	4	5

Section 3: Industry

Please tick **one** of the following industry groups that **best** describes your organisation.

✓	1. Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing		2. Mining	✓
	3. Construction		4. Manufacturing	
	5. Transportation, Communications, Electric, Gas and Sanitary Services		6. Wholesale Trade	
	7. Retail Trade		8. Finance, Insurance and Real Estate	

1. Services		2. Non-classifiable Establishments or Other	
-------------	--	---	--

Section 4: About Your Organisation

1. Total number of full-time equivalent (FTE) employees	
2. Year the organisation founded or began operations	

Please tick the **one** organisation type that **best** describes your organisation.

✓

1. Holding (Parent): The organisation owns enough voting stock in one or more other organisations to control their boards of directors and, therefore, controls their policies and management	
2. Subsidiary: The organisation's voting stock is more than 50% controlled by another holding organisation	
3. Stand-Alone: The organisation is neither a holding nor a subsidiary	

Section 5: Business Strategy

Please tick the **one** business strategy that **best** describes your organisation.

✓

1. Cost Leadership: Deliver a good product or service at the lowest possible price	
2. Innovation: Select one or more need(s) that are valued by buyer and differentiate product by innovation	
3. Quality enhancement: Differentiate product through quality enhancement	
4. Market Focus: Select narrow target segments with particular needs	

Section 6: Turnover

Please provide the following data (or estimated numbers or percentages) **for the last 12 months**.

1. Total number of employees who voluntarily left the organisation	
2. Total number of employees who involuntarily had to leave the organisation	

Section 7: Work-life Culture

Please circle **one** of the five options. Our organisation...

	Completely disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Completely Agree (5)
1. supports the implementation of work-life programs					
2. higher and middle managers show little understanding with employees' private life					
3. employees who use flexitime have the same career advancement opportunities as other workers					

1. the reduced-time program is not viewed favourably by the organization (reverse coded)					
2. employees who use the work-life programs are considered to be equally committed to their careers as those who do not use them					
3. the human resource direction informs workers about the work-life programs that are available					
4. employees working the official schedule (40 hours) have the same promotion opportunities as those who extend it					
5. employees who telework have the same promotion possibilities as those who do not telework					
6. to take a long leave to attend to private matters is well accepted by the organization					
7. to take a leave to attend to private matters is viewed favourably by co-workers					

Section 8: HR Systems

Please tick the **one** organisation type that **best** describes your organisation. ✓

1. Commitment HR systems: The organisation believes in broadly defined tasks and ensures employee participation and provides extensive training as well as high wages and benefits	
2. Control HR systems: The organisation believes in narrowly defined jobs and low participation of employees. It also believes in intense control system whereas they provide low wages, benefits and training to employees	

Please circle **one** of the five options. Our organisation....

	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
1. believes in providing extensive training					
2. believes in empowerment					
3. believes in highly selective staffing					
4. believes in performance-based pay					
5. believes in broad job design					

Section 9: Corporate Social Responsibility

Please circle **one** of the five options. Our organisation...

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. contributes to campaigns and projects that promote the well-being of the society	1	2	3	4	5
2. implements special programs to minimize its negative impact on the natural environment	1	2	3	4	5

1. participates in activities which aim to protect and improve the quality of the natural environment	1	2	3	4	5
2. targets sustainable growth which considers future generations	1	2	3	4	5
3. makes investment to create a better life for future generations	1	2	3	4	5
4. encourages its employees to participate in voluntary activities	1	2	3	4	5
5. supports non-governmental/non-profit organisations	1	2	3	4	5

Want to Benchmark your work-life programs?

We are happy to provide you with a summary of the results. This summary of results (based on responses from various industries) will help you benchmark your work/life programs, against your industry and national norms.

If you are interested in receiving a copy of the summary of results, please provide your email address:

Respondent Profile

Please provide the following information so that we can describe the people who participated in our survey.

Gender: Male Female Other

Age: _____ years

Job title: _____

How many years have you worked in your present position? _____

How many years have you worked for this organisation? _____

Thank you very much for taking the time to complete this survey.

If you have any questions please contact:
 Kohinur Akter
 QUT Business School, Queensland University of Technology
 2 George Street GPO Box 2434 BRISBANE QLD 4001 Australia
 kohinur.akter@hdr.qut.edu.au 0450330614

Appendix A2

Demographics of the sample					
Demographics	Mean	25th Percentile	Median	75th Percentile	Total observations
Respondent's Tenure	7.13 Years	2.75 Years	5 Years	9 Years	185
Respondent's Age	46.83 Years	41 Years	47 Years	54 Years	171
Company Age	55 Years	22 Years	41 Years	72 Years	191
Respondent's Gender: Female	64%	-	-	-	188
Respondent's Gender: Male	36%	-	-	-	188
Industry: Manufacturing	36%	-	-	-	191
Industry: Service	64%	-	-	-	191