

Chapter 13

Women's Wellbeing at Work: Their Experience of Work-Family Enrichment and Subjective Career Success



Eileen Koekemoer and Chantal Olckers

Abstract An increasing number of women are entering the workforce. Many of them are mothers and are therefore expected to combine motherhood with occupation. However, because of the complexity of these two roles, it is difficult to maintain a successful career and a satisfying personal life, and this difficulty can influence women's commitment and intention to stay with organisations. Nonetheless, when women perceive this experience as enriching, it can enhance their career wellbeing and positively influence their perceptions of their subjective career success. This chapter describes work-family enrichment (WFE) and subjective career success (SCS), as well as an empirical study that the authors conducted. Given the importance of WFE and SCS for the overall wellbeing of employed women, this chapter's objective is to explore the possible indirect effect of SCS on the relationship between WFE and two retaining factors (i.e. commitment and turnover intention). The empirical study was based on the quantitative survey data obtained from 240 employed females, and mediation analyses were conducted using Mplus software.

Keywords Commitment · Structural equation modelling · Subjective career success · Turnover intention · Work-family enrichment

13.1 Introduction

While the number of women employed in organisations has grown rapidly, career wellbeing literature on men remains prominent, with male-defined constructions of work and career success continuing to dominate organisational research and practice (O'Neil, Hopkins, & Bilimoria, 2008). Despite evidence that women's involvement in the workforce can improve organisational performance, productivity, global competence and domestic economy (Broderick, 2012; Konrad &

E. Koekemoer (✉) · C. Olckers
University of Pretoria, Pretoria, South Africa
e-mail: Eileen.koekemoer@up.ac.za

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Kramer, 2006), research findings on women's career wellbeing and the factors that influence their career success remain somewhat unclear. Studying the career wellbeing of women is of significant importance as the increasing complexities of combining and maintaining a successful career and a satisfying personal life could influence women's commitment and intention to stay in organisations (Armstrong, Riemenschneider, Allen, & Reid, 2007). However, women are more likely to be willing to continue working in organisations that actively promote their careers and support work-family balance (Ely, Stone, & Ammerman, 2014).

Research indicates that individuals' work experiences and future career expectations influence the quality of their work life to a large extent (Armstrong et al., 2007). Employed women are known to experience various challenges in their work environment, such as employer bias (Case & Richley, 2013), stereotyping (Guo & Liang, 2012), lack of family-friendly policies, and discriminatory organisational policies and practices (Thurasamy, Lo, Yang Amri, & Noor, 2011). Furthermore, Armstrong et al. (2007) identified some key factors influencing women's advancement opportunities (i.e. career wellbeing) and voluntary turnover, for example, *managing family responsibilities*, *work stress*, *work schedule flexibility* and *job qualities*. Their study revealed that women perceived the interaction between work and family as directly and indirectly impacting on both their advancement opportunities and voluntary turnover.

Although there is concern among researchers that women's involvement in multiple roles is detrimental to their physical and mental wellbeing, with the increased research interest in positive psychology, there are a number of studies reporting how employed women, in general, experience higher wellbeing (Rao, Apte, & Subbakrishna, 2003). Akram, Malik, Nadeem, and Atta (2014) argue that it is in the interest of organisations to manage the work-family relationships of employees, as these can enrich employees' family life and work performance.

Unlike previous studies that focused on women's career wellbeing from the perspective of the scarcity hypothesis (which includes aspects such as work-family conflict, burnout, and low performance at work) (Cortese, Colombo, & Ghislieri, 2010), this chapter aims to make a contribution by providing evidence in support of the enhancement hypothesis. This hypothesis proposes that multiple role investments bring status and privileges, increase self-esteem, and compensate for role strain (Marks, 1977). Viewed from this perspective, we suggest that if women experience their work-family interaction as enriching, it can enhance their career wellbeing and specifically their perceptions of subjective career success (SCS). Recently, Singh, Zhang, Wan, and Fouad (2018) pointed out that efforts towards retaining women need to take into account not only their attachment towards their field of work, but that working for a supportive organisation that enables them to simultaneously fulfil their work and family responsibilities is becoming crucial. This might even be enhanced by the fourth industrial revolution. According to Klaus Schwab, Chairman of the World Economic Forum, the fourth industrial revolution is "characterized by a much more ubiquitous and mobile internet, by smaller and more powerful sensors that have become cheaper, and by artificial intelligence and machine learning" (Prisecaru, 2016, p. 58).

Thus, given the importance of work-family enrichment (WFE) and SCS for the overall wellbeing of employed women, this chapter sets out to explore the possible indirect effect of SCS on the relationship between WFE and two retaining factors (i.e. commitment and turnover intention).

13.2 Chapter Objective

Given the importance of work-family enrichment (WFE) and subjective career success (SCS) for the overall wellbeing of employed women, this chapter's objective is to explore the possible indirect effect of SCS on the relationship between WFE and two retaining factors (i.e. commitment and turnover intention).

13.3 Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses

13.3.1 *Work-Family Enrichment and Subjective Career Success*

Traditionally, the interaction between work and family has been conceptualised as conflicting because simultaneous participation in several roles have been found to cause high stress levels (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). However, recent work-family literature views the engagement in multiple roles as a positive process, known as WFE. Certainly, one of the most cited definitions of WFE is that of Greenhaus and Powell (2006), which explains this phenomenon as the process whereby the resources gained in one role (e.g. work) positively influence the performance in another role (e.g. family) or vice versa. In this sense, WFE recognises the positive interdependence between work and family roles where resources are not fixed but may be reinvested in multiple domains (Greenhaus & Allen, 2011). While there are various definitions or concepts in the literature that explain this positive interaction between work and family (e.g. work-family positive spillover [Edwards & Rothbard, 2000]; work-family facilitation [Grzywacz & Butler, 2005]), this chapter adopts the concept of WFE.

The concept of career success has been well defined in the literature over the past few decades. Conventional explanations relate to how an employee is progressing in the hierarchy of an organisation, therefore individuals receiving higher wages are generally regarded as being successful in their careers (Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995). However, recent conceptualisations move towards distinguishing between objective and subjective career success. *Objective career success* is judged by external people based on a visible criterion such as job level, income, status, salary and occupation, whereas *subjective career success* implies individuals' subjective judgement/evaluation, which may include intrinsic elements such as job

satisfaction, work-life balance, self-enhancement, and work orientation (Heslin, 2005; Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005). In general, contemporary career scholars agree that career success is the “positive psychological or work-related outcomes or achievements one has accumulated as a result of one’s work experiences” (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001, p. 2).

Recently, career scholars have recognised the need to expand their focus to accommodate the growing interest in the increasingly important connection between work-family interface and career success (Beigi, Wang, & Arthur, 2017). Work-family researchers also acknowledge this connection by stating that work-family interaction grants employees the opportunity to express themselves, which enables them to develop successful careers (Greenhaus & Kossek, 2014). The argument is that the resources employees receive at work (e.g. flexible work arrangements, autonomy) enable them to perform tasks more effectively, accurately and productively (Hanson, Hammer, & Colton, 2006), which leads to their experiencing their work-family interface as enriching (McNall, Masuda, & Nicklin, 2010). Consequently, because of WFE or work-family balance they are able not only to do their jobs more effectively but also to flourish in and be more satisfied with their careers (Amin, Arshad, & Ghani, 2017; Hirschi, Herrmann, Nagy, & Spurk, 2016). Moreover, resources could promote employees’ motivation and energy, which could further foster a sense of satisfaction about their job and career, ultimately promoting SCS. This is also true for women as some studies have already indicated how the experience of work-family balance or WFE can lead to positive career experiences/advancement or job satisfaction (Jabeen, Friesen, & Ghouli, 2017; Saleem & Asir Ajmal, 2018). Based on the above review, the authors formulated the following hypothesis for the current study:

H₁: Work-family enrichment is positively and directly associated with subjective career success.

13.3.2 Work-Family Enrichment, Commitment and Turnover Intention

When considering the outcomes of WFE, a positive relationship with organisational commitment is well documented (McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010; Odle-Dusseau, Britt, & Greene-Shortridge, 2012). This positive relationship suggests that employees who perceive their work as enhancing their personal lives (thus by implication they experience WFE), form a quality relationship with their organisation by developing a sense of belonging to and connection with their organisation and becoming affectively committed to their organisation (Akram et al., 2014). Marais, De Klerk, Nel, and De Beer (2014) reported positive relationships among women, for WFE and commitment. For example, in a recent study

of Bae and Yang (2017), women reported experiencing higher levels of commitment, because of having access to family-friendly policies that could promote WFE.

When considering how managing one's work and family life, influences employees' intentions to stay within organisations, empirical studies relating to work-family conflict is prominent (Amstad, Meier, Fasel, Elfering, & Semmer, 2011; Porter & Ayman, 2010; Singh et al., 2018). However, studies relating WFE and turnover intention are much fewer and have produced conflicting results. Some researchers found that WFE has a preventative role (Balmforth & Gardner, 2006), whereas others found that WFE is negatively related to turnover intention and actual turnover (McNall, Nicklin et al., 2010; Wayne, Randel, & Stevens, 2006). McNall, Nicklin et al. (2010) found that the availability of flexible work arrangements seems to help employees experience greater WFE, which, in turn, is associated with lower turnover intentions. However, in the meta-analyses of McNall, Nicklin et al. (2010), they found no support for the enrichment-turnover intention relationship. According to the authors this can be attributed to the limited number of studies in this regard, but it can also be explained by the notion that enrichment facilitates feelings and attitudes but not necessarily behaviour. Regarding such studies among women, Armstrong et al. (2007) found that women in the IT sector perceive the interaction between work and family as directly and indirectly impacting on their turnover intentions. Based on the findings mentioned, the authors of the current study formulated the following two hypotheses concerning WFE.

H_{2a}: Work-family enrichment is positively and directly associated with commitment.

H_{2b}: Work-family enrichment is negatively and directly associated with turnover intention.

13.3.3 Subjective Career Success, Commitment and Turnover Intention

Career success has been linked with work outcomes such as greater psychological wellbeing, heightened self-esteem, increased performance and organisational success (Simo, Enache, Leyes, & Alarcon, 2010). More specifically, it has been linked with affective commitment where employees who experience SCS feel more emotionally attached to their organisations. Simo et al. (2010) explained that individuals with high SCS tend to establish affective relationships with their co-workers and are therefore more involved in and show greater identification with their organisation, ultimately increasing their feelings of affective commitment towards the organisation. A recent study among Indian female workers found a positive relationship between organisational commitment and career satisfaction (Agrawal & Srivastava, 2018). Similarly, Dinc and Kocyigit (2017) found affective

commitment of female teachers to positively relate to job satisfaction. Although the literature frequently uses job satisfaction, career satisfaction and career success interchangeably, they are conceptually different and not equivalent (Heslin, 2005). Yet, the argument is that job satisfaction forms a large part of SCS (Judge et al., 1995) and that these two notions are often conceptualised similarly as SCS may lead to feelings of job satisfaction. Further, Weng and McElroy (2012) found that career growth accounts for significant variations in affective occupational commitment. This suggests that the happenings in an organisation affect the degree to which individuals identify with their chosen line of work and how they feel about their occupation. This line of argument resonates with the more contemporary conceptualisations of SCS.

Since employees have become less bound to specific organisations, their subjective career evaluations have become an important predictor of their turnover intentions (Guan et al., 2014; Weng & McElroy, 2012). Ding and Lin (2006) found that job satisfaction and career satisfaction have a significant effect on employees' turnover intentions. According to Sullivan and Arthur (2006), women are more inclined to perceive their careers as successful if they experience job satisfaction. This is in line with Chinyamurindi (2012) who suggested that women portray career development as a complex and not a hierarchical process, as traditional career theories would have it. It is therefore important to identify ways to enhance SCS to help enhance job attitudes, which are related to job performance and voluntary turnover (Dyke & Duxbury, 2010; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001). Based on the literature on SCS, the authors formulated the following two hypotheses:

H_{3a}: Subjective career success is positively and directly associated with commitment.

H_{3b}: Subjective career success is negatively and directly associated with turnover intention.

13.3.4 Theoretical Framework and Indirect Effect of Subjective Career Success

In view of the finding that employees are able to integrate their work and family roles, and may experience WFE as a result, Amin (2012) postulated that enhanced positive emotions at work can generate positive feelings about career success. In explaining and understanding the interplay between the concepts relevant to this study, the authors refer to the social exchange theory (SET). One of its main premises is that employees reciprocate by developing and displaying positive attitudes and behaviours if they perceive that their organisations provide them with benefits (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). If we link this SET premise with the finding in the literature that a supportive work-family culture may lead to increased

WFE (in other words, if we combine the SET and WEF theories) we, can posit that employees' work and family lives are enriched (thus resulting in WFE) when organisations provide employees with benefits, for example, adequate resources. Thus, as stated above, employees will reciprocate in kind if they perceive that their organisations value and treat them equitably. This is in line with Simo et al.'s (2010) postulation that individuals perceive organisations as vehicles for their professional careers, and that their experience of career success may have desirable outcomes for organisations in the form of employees' affective commitment and lower level of turnover intent. Moreover, resources that organisations provide could promote employees' motivation and energy, further fostering a sense of satisfaction towards their job and career, which ultimately promotes SCS.

Aryee, Srinivas, and Tan (2005) explained that employees who experience WFE experience a sense of control over their family and work lives, contributing to increased self-esteem and therefore job satisfaction. According to the SET, employees who perceive their organisations as providing desirable benefits may feel encouraged to reciprocate by becoming more engaged and committed or feeling satisfied with their organisations and career. McNall, Masuda, and Nicklin (2017) confirmed that employees who see evidence of care from their organisations (e.g. it has flexible work arrangements) are more likely to reciprocate in the form of more positive attitudes and behaviours such as higher job satisfaction and lower turnover intention. According to Singh et al. (2018), employees working in a supportive environment that not only values their contributions but also recognises and supports their efforts in managing their various life roles, may be able to strengthen their psychological attachment to their job.

Taken together, acts of reciprocity (involving affective commitment and lower turnover intention) enhance the social relationship between the employer and employee and create a pleasing working environment. In all, these may stem from feelings of SCS. Therefore, the authors formulated the following hypotheses:

H_{4a}: Subjective career success indirectly effects the relationship between work-family enrichment and commitment.

H_{4b}: Subjective career success indirectly effects the relationship between work-family enrichment and turnover intention.

13.3.5 Purpose of the Empirical Study

Against the backdrop of the preceding discussions and given the importance of WFE and SCS for the overall wellbeing of employed women, this chapter sets out to describe the possible indirect effect of SCS on the relationship between WFE and two retaining factors (i.e. commitment and turnover intention).

13.4 Methodology

13.4.1 Research Design

Using a quantitative cross-sectional research design, the authors collected data to investigate the differences and relationships between the variables within the target population.

13.4.2 Participants

The study employed a convenience sampling strategy to draw 240 female respondents to participate in this research. Table 13.1 summarises the demographic information of the respondents.

The sample of females were predominantly between the ages of 30 and 39 years (39.58%) and 21 and 29 years (25.42%), the majority were white (82.08%), Afrikaans-speaking (60.83%), married (63.75%), and mothers (63.75%). Most of the women worked in the mining industry (27.92%), had post-graduate qualifications (44.17%) and more than 10 years' working experience (59.58%). Most of them had been working in a male-dominant industry for more than 10 years (49.58%), had been employed in their current organisation for between five and 10 years (28.75%), and had been working in their current positions (mainly in middle management) (40.83%) for between five and 10 years (26.67%).

13.4.3 Research Procedure

The authors collected data from an anonymous web-based survey administered to participants. An introductory e-mail to participants explained the purpose of the study and assured them of anonymity and confidentiality. Completing the questionnaires were voluntary and the respondents had the advantage of completing the questionnaire in a time convenient to them. Participants were made aware of their right to refuse participation as well as their right to withdraw from the study at any time. Participants were provided with the contact information of the researcher in the case they have any queries regarding the study. Ethical approval was obtained from the Research Ethics Committee of the University of Pretoria.

13.4.4 Measures

We measured *WFE* with the MACE instrument (De Klerk, Nel, Hill, & Koekemoer, 2013). The instrument is bi-directional but we used only the 18 items measuring

Table 13.1 Demographic and biographic information of participants

Variable	Category	Frequency (<i>f</i>)	Percentage (%)
Age in years	21–29	62	25.83
	30–39	95	39.58
	40–49	48	20.00
	50+	27	14.58
Ethnicity	African	31	12.92
	Coloured	3	1.25
	Indian	9	3.75
	White	197	82.08
Home language	English	70	29.17
	Afrikaans	146	60.83
	African language	24	10.00
Marital status	Single	25	10.42
	In a relationship	52	21.67
	Married	153	63.75
	Divorced	8	3.33
	Widowed	2	0.83
Number of children	0	87	36.25
	1	59	24.58
	2	75	31.25
	3	15	6.25
	4+	4	1.67
Highest qualification	Grade 12	34	14.17
	Diploma	40	–
	Degree	59	24.58
	Post-graduate degree	106	44.17
Industry	Engineering	34	14.16
	Construction	17	7.08
	IT	14	5.83
	Mining	67	27.92
	Agriculture	13	5.42
	Science	17	7.08
	Manufacturing	15	6.25
	Finance	15	6.25
Other industries (i.e. legal, security services, political)	48	20.16	
Number of years with company	Less than 1	19	7.92
	1–2	39	16.25
	3–4	47	19.58
	5–6	33	13.75

(continued)

Table 13.1 (continued)

Variable	Category	Frequency (<i>f</i>)	Percentage (%)
	7–8	18	7.50
	9–10	15	6.25
	More than 10	69	28.75
Number of years working in male-dominant industry	Less than 1	5	2.08
	1–2	18	7.50
	3–4	31	12.92
	5–6	21	8.75
	7–8	20	8.33
	9–10	26	10.83
	More than 10	119	49.58
	Job level	Entry level	17
Intermediate		54	22.50
Middle management		98	40.83
Upper management		48	20.00
Executive		23	9.58
Number of years in position	Less than 1	27	11.25
	1–2	51	21.25
	3–4	57	23.75
	5–10	64	26.67
	10+	41	17.08
Number of years work experience	<1–2	15	6.25
	3–4	29	12.08
	5–10	52	21.67
	10+	143	59.58
	Missing data	1	0.42
	<1–2	15	6.25

work-to-family enrichment in four dimensions: *work-family perspectives* (relating to skills gained), *work-family affect* (relating to feelings gained), *work-family time management* and *work-family social capital* (relating to the support participants receive from colleagues). An example item is: “My family life is improved by my work showing me different viewpoints” (perspective dimension). A Likert-type rating scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) was used. Marais et al. (2014) reported a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of 0.91 for the work-to-family enrichment section of the MACE.

We measured *SCS* using the instrument which stemmed from the Cross-Cultural Collaboration on Contemporary Careers (5CC) project (Briscoe et al., 2014; Mayrhofer et al., 2016). Although it comprises seven dimensions, we used only five dimensions specifically related to subjective career success. These five dimensions

are measured by 17 items and include perceptions about *learning and development* ("Doing work that gives one the opportunity to learn"), *work-life balance* ("Achieving balance between work and non-work activities"), *positive relationships* ("Experiencing positive relationships with peers and colleagues"), *positive impact* ("Contributing to the development of others") and *entrepreneurship* ("Running my own business"). A 5-point Likert-type rating scale was used. This instrument is based on the 5CC project with the aim to develop a more comprehensive view of perceived career success across the globe. As this is an ongoing project, empirical studies applying this instrument is limited (Smale et al., 2019).

We measured *affective commitment* using the commitment scale of Meyer and Allen (2004), specifically the five items of the affective commitment scale, and measured them on a 7-point Likert-type scale. An example item is: "I really feel as if the organisation's problems are my own." A study conducted in South Africa by Magano, Thomas, and De Bruyn (2011) reported a high alpha coefficient of 0.80 for the affective commitment scale.

Using the Sjöberg and Sverke (2000) scale, we measured *turnover intent* (comprising three items) on a 5-point Likert-type rating scale. An example item is: "I am actively looking for other jobs." Sjöberg and Sverke (2000) reported a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.83. A Cronbach's alpha value of 0.98 was reported in a study conducted in a South African context (De Villiers & Stander, 2011).

13.4.5 Statistical Analysis

We conducted the statistical analysis using SPSS 25 and MPlus version 8. Using structural equation modelling with the mean and variance adjusted weighted least square estimator, which is suitable for categorical data analysis, we assessed model fit for both the competing measurement models and the structural model (Rhemtulla, Brosseau-Liard, & Savalei, 2012). To determine the factor structure and factor loadings of the observed constructs in the measurement models we employed confirmatory factor analysis. We evaluated model fit by examining the following fit indices against the cut-off criteria (shown in parentheses): Comparative fit index (CFI = $\geq .90$); Tucker-Lewis index (TLI = $\geq .90$); root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA = $\leq .08$) (Wang & Wang, 2012).

In computing the internal consistencies of the scales, we calculated both lower-bound (Cronbach's alpha) and upper-bound (composite reliability) reliabilities (Olckers & Van Zyl, 2016; Wang & Wang, 2012). Values above 0.70 for both Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability were considered acceptable (Raykov, 2009; Struwig & Stead, 2001).

In addition, we determined the relationships between the latent constructs by means of Pearson correlations. Statistical significance of the relationships was set at 95% ($p \leq .05$), whereas the practical significance of correlation coefficients was set at 0.30 (medium effect) and 0.50 (large effect) (Ferguson, 2009).

To investigate hypotheses H1, H2 and H3, we used structural regressions to determine the direction and statistical significance of the beta coefficients.

We assessed the indirect effects of subjective career success using the bias-corrected bootstrapping (BCB) method (Preacher, Zyphur, & Zhang, 2010) to obtain estimates and confidence intervals (CIs), and we set BCB to 10,000 resampling draws. A significant indirect effect is present if the bias-corrected 95% CI estimates do not go through zero (Rucker, Preacher, Tormala, & Petty, 2011).

13.5 Results

In determining the relationship between work-family enrichment, subjective career success, turnover intent and affective commitment, we followed a four-phased approach. First, we tested several competing measurement models to determine the best-fit model. Second, we computed the descriptive statistics, correlations and internal consistencies of the measures. Third, we estimated the structural model. Finally, we evaluated the indirect effect of SCS on the relationship between WFE and commitment as well as on the relationship between WFE and turnover intention.

13.5.1 *Comparing Measurement Models*

To determine which measurement model fitted the data the best, we compared several theoretical models. The observed variables served as indicators for the first-order latent variables. Modification indices indicated that if one item from the affective commitment scale and two items from the SCS scale (one item from leading and development and one from positive relationships) could be removed, model fit would improve. Therefore, we removed these three items from all four competing measurement models. However, we did not correlate or parcel any items to improve fit, and we left all error terms uncorrelated.

Using confirmatory factor analysis, we tested four measurement models.

- **Model 1** comprised four latent variables: WFE, SCS, affective commitment and turnover intent. A four-factor model for WFE was fitted to the data: work-family perspectives (measured by six items), work-family affect (measured by three items), work-family time management (measured by six items) and work-family socio-capital (measured by three items). A five-factor model for SCS was tested (i.e. learning and development, work-life balance, positive impact, entrepreneurial success and positive relationships), each factor comprising three items. Affective commitment consisted of four items and turnover intent of three items.
- **Model 2:** A four-factor model for WFE was fitted to the data: work-family perspectives (measured by six items), work-family affect (measured by three

items), work-family time management (measured by six items) and work-family socio-capital (measured by three items). A one-factor model for SCS was tested where all 15 items loaded directly on the latent construct. Affective commitment consisted of four items and turnover intent of three items.

- **Model 3:** A one-factor model for WFE was tested where all 18 items loaded directly on WFE. A five-factor model for SCS was tested: learning and development (measured by three items), work-life balance (measured by three items), positive impact (measured by three items), entrepreneurial success (measured by three items) and positive relationships (measured by three items). Affective commitment consisted of four items and turnover intent of three items.
- **Model 4:** A one-factor model for WFE was tested where all 18 items loaded directly on WFE. Further, a one-factor model for SCS was tested where all 15 items loaded directly on the latent construct. Affective commitment consisted of five items and turnover intent of three items.

Table 13.2 displays the fit statistics for the four competing measurement models.

Since we used the WLSMV estimator, we tested for the chi-square difference using the DIFFTEST function in MPlus. Table 13.3 displays the various model comparisons.

The model comparison results displayed in Table 13.3 indicate significant chi-square differences between Model 1 and models 2, 3 and 4, suggesting that Model 1 fitted the data the best. The study took other fit indices, such as the TLI and CFI, into consideration also. Model 1, comprising a four-factor model for WFE (work-family perspectives, work-family affect, work-family time management and work-family socio-capital), a five-factor model for SCS (learning and development, work-life balance, positive impact, entrepreneurial success and positive relationships) and a one-factor model for both turnover intent and commitment, seemed to fit the data the best on all the proposed fit indices $\chi^2_{(725, N=240)} = 2029.98$; CFI=.91; TLI = .90; RMSEA = .08). All item loadings were significantly higher than Wang and Wang's (2012) .50 cut-off score and loaded significantly ($p < .001$) on the corresponding factors. Model 1 was therefore used as the structural model for further analyses.

Table 13.2 Fit statistics of competing measurement models

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
1	2029.98	725	.91	.90	.08
2	2271.40	692	.88	.87	.09
3	2514.57	729	.87	.86	.10
4	2740.82	696	.84	.83	.11

Note χ^2 = chi-square; *df* = degrees of freedom; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation * $p < .01$

Table 13.3 Model comparisons

Model	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p
Model 1 vs. Model 2	239.79	5	0.00
Model 1 vs. Model 3	309.78	4	0.00
Model 1 vs. Model 4	507.82	9	0.00

Note $\Delta\chi^2$ = change in chi-square; Δdf = change in degrees of freedom; * $p < .01$

13.5.2 Descriptive Statistics, Correlations and Internal Consistencies

Table 13.4 shows the descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations), scale internal consistencies and Pearson correlation coefficients of WFE, SCS, turnover intent and commitment. The mean score results of all the scales show that participants' answers tended to be on the positive side ("agree") of the scales. Further, acceptable internal consistency levels were found at both lower-(Cronbach's alpha $> .70$) and upper-bound limits (composite reliability $> .70$). WFE correlated statistically significantly positively with SCS ($r = .41$; $p < .01$) and commitment ($r = .44$; $p < .01$), and statistically significantly negatively with turnover intent ($r = -.48$; $p < .01$), all with a medium practical effect. Similarly, SCS correlated statistically significantly with commitment ($r = .45$; $p < .01$) with a medium effect, and statistically significantly negatively with turnover intent ($r = -.49$; $p < .01$) with a borderline large practical effect. These results provided support for hypotheses 1, 2 and 3.

13.5.3 Developing the Structural Model

We estimated the structural path model based on the best-fitting, most parsimonious measurement model, Model 1 (see Table 13.2). We found no difference between the chi square of the best-fitting measurement model and the structural model, suggesting acceptable model specification. The structural model, shown in Fig. 13.1, yielded the following fit statistics: $\chi^2_{(725, N=240)} = 2029.98$; CFI = .91; TLI = .90; RMSEA = .08). Table 13.5 shows the results of the regressions.

WFE statistically significantly predicted 46% of the variance in SCS ($\beta = .68$; SE = .06; $p < .01$), supporting *Hypothesis 1*. Further, the path between WFE and commitment ($\beta = .98$; SE = .10; $p < .01$) and the path between WFE and turnover intent ($\beta = .33$; SE = .11; $p < .01$) were statistically significant, providing evidence for the support of *Hypothesis 2a* and *Hypothesis 2b*. SCS statistically significantly predicted 35% of the variance in turnover intent ($\beta = .32$; SE = .12; $p < .01$), supporting *Hypothesis 3b*. Although SCS predicted 80% of the variance in commitment, the path was not significant ($\beta = -.30$; SE = .10; $p > .01$). As such, *Hypothesis 3a* was not supported.

Table 13.4 Descriptive statistics, reliability coefficients and correlations (N = 240)

Variable	\bar{x}	σ	ρ	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. WFE	3.73	.67	.90	.86	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2. Work-family perspectives	3.72	.80	.96	.93	.84 ⁺⁺	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3. Work-family affect	3.61	.88	.84	.78	.87 ⁺⁺	.60 ⁺⁺	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4. Work-family time management	3.83	.73	.91	.87	.84 ⁺⁺	.65 ⁺⁺	.66 ^{++*}	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5. Work-family socio-capital	3.74	.78	.84	.75	.80 ⁺⁺	.56 ⁺⁺	.61 ⁺⁺	.52 ⁺⁺	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
6. SCS	3.67	.73	.88	.82	.41 ⁺	.39 ⁺	.30 ⁺	.37 ⁺	.34 ⁺	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
7. Learning and development	4.03	.81	.94	.79	.35 ⁺	.37 ⁺	.25	.28	.27	.79 ⁺⁺	-	-	-	-	-	-
8. Positive relationships	3.91	.86	.90	.78	.33 ⁺	.25	.24	.26	.32 ⁺	.81 ⁺⁺	.69 ⁺⁺	-	-	-	-	-
9. Work-life balance	3.39	1.13	.83	.91	.38 ⁺	.32 ⁺	.27	.40 ⁺	.28	.78 ⁺⁺	.51 ⁺⁺	.58 ⁺⁺	-	-	-	-
10. Positive impact	3.87	.79	.90	.78	.23	.27	.17	.18	.16	.77 ⁺⁺	.62 ⁺⁺	.64 ⁺⁺	.43 ⁺	-	-	-
11. Entrepreneurial success	3.17	1.14	.85	.86	.28	.26	.21	.24	.21	.71 ⁺⁺	.38 ⁺	.37 ⁺	.40 ⁺	.43 ⁺	-	-
12. Commitment	3.36	1.06	.81	.82	.44 ⁺	.37 ⁺	.40 ⁺	.33 ⁺	.37 ⁺	.45 ⁺	.42 ⁺	.42 ⁺	.37 ⁺	.24 ⁺	.27 ⁺	-
13. Turnover intent	2.84	1.16	.74	.82	-.48 ⁺	-.39 ⁺	-.46 ⁺	-.35 ⁺	-.38 ⁺	-.49 ⁺	-.41 ⁺	-.42 ⁺	-.40 ⁺	-.30 ⁺	-.33 ⁺	-.88 ⁺⁺

\bar{x} = mean; σ =standard deviation; ρ =composite reliability; α = Cronbach's alpha, ⁺Correlation is practically significant $r > .30$ (medium effect) ⁺⁺Correlation is practically significant $r > .50$ (large effect). All correlations are statistically significant ($p < .01$)

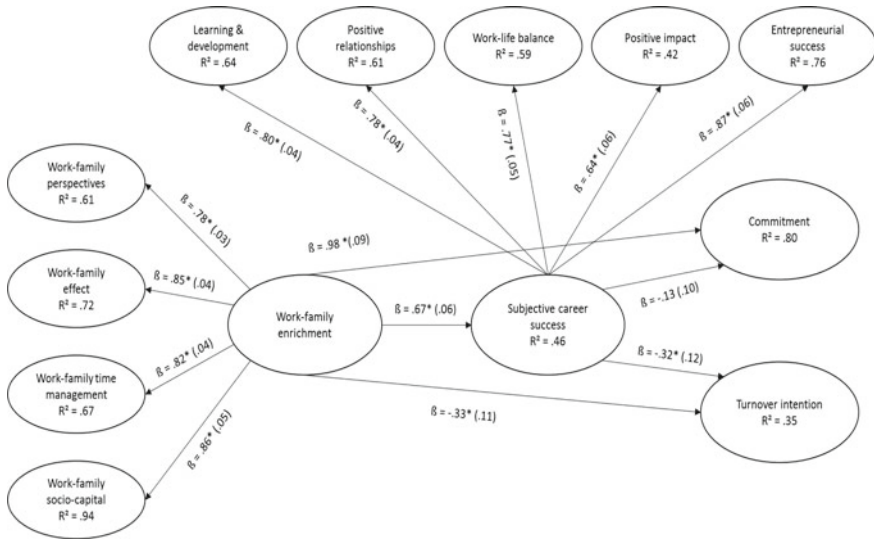


Fig. 13.1 Structural model (Source Author’s own work)

Table 13.5 Regression results for the structural model

Structural path	β	SE	<i>p</i>	Result
WFE → SCS	.68	.06	.00	Significant
WFE → Commitment	.98	.10	.00	Significant
WFE → Turnover intent	.33	.11	.00	Significant
SCS → Commitment	-.13	.10	.20	Not significant
SCS → Turnover intent	.32	.12	.00	Significant

Note β = beta coefficient; SE = standard error, *p* < .05

13.5.4 Assessing the Indirect Effect of SCS

Bootstrapping results (presented in Table 13.6) revealed a significant indirect effect between WFE, SCS and turnover intent (.22; 95% CI: .06, .38) that did not go through zero. Thus, these results suggest that SCS indirectly affected the relationship between these variables; therefore *Hypothesis 4b* was supported. The indirect effect between WFE, SCS and commitment (-.09; 95% CI: -.25, .03) was, however, not significant (*p* > 0.05). As the CIs between WFE and commitment via SCS did include zero, we concluded that SCS did not have an indirect effect on the relationship between these variables. Therefore, *Hypothesis 4a* was not supported.

Table 13.6 Indirect effects of SCS

Variable	Estimate	SE	95% BC CI
Indirect effect (turnover intent)	.22	.08	[.06; .38]
Indirect effect (commitment)	-.09	.07	[-.25; .03]

Note SE = standard error; BC CI = bias-corrected confidence interval

13.6 Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the concepts of WFE, SCS, turnover intention and commitment among women ($N = 240$). Our first objective was to determine whether WFE could predict women's SCS, and secondly, to investigate whether both WFE and SCS could predict the commitment and turnover intention of the women in our sample. Regarding the latter, we aimed to investigate whether SCS had an indirect effect on the relationship between WFE and turnover intention as well as between WFE and commitment. Overall, the results showed significant support for the assumption that women are likely to continue working in their current organisation if they experience that the organisation promotes their career and supports their work-family balance. However, contradictory to our hypothesis, the results indicated that although these women seem to want to remain in their current organisation (low levels of turnover intention), they will not necessarily do so because they feel attached to the organisation as a result of feelings of SCS. These results are explained later in the chapter.

First, we determined the relationships between WFE, SCS, turnover intention and commitment, and found a direct, significant relationship between WFE and SCS, with WFE predicting 46% of the variance in SCS. This suggests that women who experience their work-family interface as positive may develop feelings of SCS. Although the relationship between WFE and SCS has been established among diverse samples of employees, literature focusing on women in this regard is lacking. Predominantly, literature on employed women focused on the challenges they face in their work environment, and relevant studies used the scarcity hypothesis (Cortese et al., 2010). As a result, little information is available on how women may experience their work environments as positively contributing to their career success. For that reason, the findings of the current study significantly contribute to understanding the positive dynamics at play regarding women in their work environments.

Furthermore, the study established direct, significant relationships between WFE and turnover intention as well as between WFE and commitment in respect of the women in the sample. Concerning turnover intention and work-family interface, the majority of the literature shows significant relationships with work-family conflict (Amstad et al., 2011). Inversely, the current study found that women who perceive positive spillovers between work and family (WFE) are more committed to organisations and more inclined to stay.

Although the findings indicated significant relationships between SCS and turnover intention and commitment, results showed that SCS did not have a significant impact on the commitment of the women in the sample. Previous findings, however, indicated that employees who experience SCS are more likely to stay in their organisation and experience organisational commitment (Simo et al., 2010). It seems that the women in the current study (the majority of whom had been employed for more than 10 years, are between 21 and 39 years of age and have children) tended to remain in their current organisations although they did not seem to identify with their organisations at a significant level. Women tend to remain with their organisations due to financial implications especially if they do have children (Campbell, Campbell, & Kennard, 1994). Furthermore, Campbell et al. stated that a decrease in occupational commitment might be related to a specific life-cycle stage which might be evident in our study. Although working mothers perceived their family as their number one priority, they also consider their career as a highly significant priority in their lives due to the intellectual stimulation it provides. While their career is seen as a high priority, it does not necessarily mean that they advanced their career to the highest level—they might lower their career expectations of being promoted because of their family responsibilities (Grady & McCarthy, 2008). Instead, these women tend to choose a level of career that gives their life real meaning and that enable them to balance their work and family roles. Similar studies among women are limited; therefore the findings of the current study add to gender literature in this regard.

The final objective of this study was to examine whether SCS indirectly affected the relationship between WFE and commitment as well as between WFE and turnover intention. The current study confirmed that SCS indirectly affected the relationship between WFE and turnover intention but not the relationship between WFE and commitment. This suggests that, in respect of the women in the sample, WFE experiences not only contribute to the women's feelings of subjective success but may also serve as a reason for staying in the organisation. This finding confirms the theory on reciprocity between employer and employee. However, in respect of this sample of women, although WFE may lead to feelings of subjective career success, these feelings do not necessarily lead to increased feelings of commitment. Not finding support for the indirect effect of SCS between WFE and commitment is contradictory to the SET's assumption that employees will reciprocate by demonstrating positive outcomes (such as commitment). It should, however, be noted that in the literature, several studies attempted to explain the relationship between turnover intent and commitment. It might be that these variables simultaneously influenced each other in ways that differed from what was expected (a high correlation of $r = 0.88$ with a large practical effect was found between commitment and turnover intention in this study), and, given that both these were proposed as outcomes in the current study, different contradictory results were found. More research in this regard is needed. Further, since the majority of the women in the sample indicated that they had been working in the same organisation for longer than 10 years, one might argue that they are already experiencing career success and have experienced less turnover intentions, or are very loyal to the organisation, as can be deduced from their tenure in the organisations.

13.7 Implications for Theory and Practice

Unlike previous literature focusing on negative experiences and negative work-related outcomes, this chapter underscores the importance of positive experiences at work and how these experiences can lead to positive outcomes for employed women. The literature is clear on the rising turnover intention among women; however, this chapter proposes how employers can mitigate this by fostering positive work-place experiences. Based on the findings, the study suggests that the focus should first be on increasing women's WFE in order to retain them in organisations. Organisations should pay particular attention to aspects that make women experience their work-family interactions as enriching, aspects such as flexible work arrangements and work-family friendly policies. The 4th Industrial revolution or so-called *Internet of Things* might even make it easier for working women to foster their careers due to not only flexi-option work programs but to the fact that they can work from home. The productivity and effectiveness of these women might even be enhanced since they can send and receive data from other devices or individuals and transport costs as well as travel time can be saved (Prisecaru, 2016).

A supportive work-family culture can encourage feelings of WFE. Furthermore, as Simo et al. (2010) suggested, organisations should make an effort to increase women's subjective satisfaction with their professional career and should focus on factors that nurture this satisfaction (referred to in the current study as WFE). Other aspects that organisations can consider increasing subjective career success include offering positions with greater responsibility, delegating functions, giving recognition for work well done, enriching work positions, proposing training directed at increasing and continuously improving competence and professional skills, as well as developing personal efficiency.

13.8 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

The study had a number of limitations related to the data collection and analyses processes. First, the use of self-report measures might have resulted in socially desirable bias. Further, the cross-sectional nature of the study had an impact on exploring causal relationships between the various constructs; conducting a longitudinal study might determine the causal effect between the constructs. The relatively small sample size of 240 females might have had a potential impact on the strength of the relationships between the constructs as well. Further, the majority of the sample comprised white, Afrikaans-speaking women who were mothers, with the result that the generalisability of the findings is probably limited. Future research should take cognisance of these limitations.

13.9 Conclusion

This study investigated the relationship between work-family enrichment, subjective career success, turnover intent and commitment of women. According to the findings, women who experience their work-family interface as enriching, may develop feelings of subjective career success. In some instances, this may further contribute to their reciprocating by displaying positive attitudes and behaviours, for example, lower intent to leave. This study advances the understanding that women do not only experience their work environments as challenging or negative (as suggested in work-family conflict literature) but may also experience the positive aspects related to their work, leading to positive work outcomes.

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Eileen Koekemoer is an associate Professor in the Human Resource Management Department in the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences at the University of Pretoria in South Africa. She is a registered Industrial Psychologist with the Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA). Her areas of research include work-life interaction, career success and the wellbeing of employees. She is involved in various research projects investigating the interaction between employees' work and family life and how it influences their career success and/or wellbeing. She is the mother of three daughters and constantly juggles her own work-life balance between her children and her career as academic and researcher.

Chantal Olckers (Ph.D) is employed at the University of Pretoria as an Associate Professor in the Department of Human Resource Management. She is a registered psychologist (Category: Industrial) with the Health Professions Council of South Africa. She has completed a Doctorate degree in the field of Human Resource Management, specialising in psychological ownership. Chantal is a respected researcher, with contributions to several peer-reviewed journals, chapters in international peer-reviewed books, and has presented several research papers at both national and international conferences. Chantal is involved with the South African Journal of Human Resource Management as well as the South African Journal of Industrial Psychology as a Section Editor. She has extensive experience within the tertiary educational environment (as a lecturer and researcher), as well as within the private sector (as a consultant). Chantal has a passion for positive psychology and specifically psychological ownership.