Okechukwu E. Amah · Marvel Ogah

Work-life Integration in Africa

A Multidimensional Approach to Achieving Balance

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The authors dedicate this book to God Almighty who gave us the inspiration, wisdom, and strength to write the book. We also dedicate to our wives and children who gave us their maximum support while we were busy writing the book.

Foreword

A big congratulation to Dr. Okechukwu Ethelbert Amah and Dr. Marvel Ogah on the production of this holistic book on Work–Life Integration, with an African focus. I am thrilled at its rich content. Going through the book, I observed that it was written in a way and manner for all categories of readers. There is a summary for each chapter for light readers and in-depth study material for those who want to go further. More specifically, I find the book encompasses the key subject areas of Work–Life Integration, backed up by research findings, tables and illustrations, with an abundance of references. It also highlights the social cultural challenges confronting management in Nigeria and indeed Africa. These for me give an indication of the amount of work done by the authors to achieve the comprehensive nature of the book and affirm it's thoroughness.

I must say the use of the two-by-two matrixes on Leadership mindset, WLB personality types, gender attitudes, categorization of organizations based on the number of WLI policies, etc. in the book, fosters reflection and self-examination in the individual reader enabling assessment of their current situation at this multidimensional approach to WLI. Furthermore, the book goes to the fundamentals of the purpose of life

and meaning of success and elaborates on several definitions of success and the consequences of each. This goes to the root of the dignity of the human person which is one of the core values of the Institute for Work and Family Integration (IWFI).

As the Academic Director, you know very well that over the years, IWFI have been at the forefront of advocacy, through her Work and Family Conference to sensitize Human Resources professionals, on the benefits of family friendly policies and to enable better Work–Life Integration (WLI) and one of the questions that kept coming up is **How can we do this**? This book provides answers to this question in its multidimensional approach; with practical tips in time management and discipline as integral factors for productivity which highlights the time wasters impacting on work–life integration and productivity at individual and organizational levels. It delves into Scheduling and planning tactics which engenders productivity improvement, and dwells on the step-by-step processes for achieving the benefits of WLI, strategies for both employees and employers.

In summary, this book promotes the missions of IWFI which is providing solutions to the challenges of the demographic shifts in the workplace and rapidly changing technology. It brings it home to the family context in Africa given our own peculiarities. It is a must read for anyone searching for their purpose and meaning in life as it utilizes the wheel of life concept helping individuals establish how success should be defined to achieve balanced life highlighting why tradeoffs are necessary since individuals cannot have all they want and expect. I trust the participants at the programs of the Institute will be delighted by this book. We would be glad to recommend it to business leaders and managers attending our conferences as it contains such references and illustrations which we have come to rely on in communicating the needs and essence of leadership lifestyle changes to enable success at work and family.

We at IWFI are particularly proud of this book and congratulate Dr. Okechukwu Ethelbert Amah and Dr. Marvel Ogah for an excellent work, on Work Life Integration, giving an African perspective. Congratulations!

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Chairman Institute for Work Family Integration (IWFI)
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Preface

The motivation to write this book came from two sources: first, from a series of seminars we gave to the employees of some organizations in Lagos, Nigeria, which gave us an on-the-spot assessment of the plight of employees in managing demands from multiple roles; the second is from the realization that despite the changing nature of work in the twenty-first century characterized by the increased involvement of males and females in the work and family domains, the prevalent traditional gender ideology is still highly resistant to the changing nature of women's involvement in work domain in Africa. Increased levels of work interfering with life, and life interfering with work, were identified by all participants of the seminars. In the realization of this, organizations have proactively improved the number of family-friendly policies they offer. Three issues are however associated with these policies. The first is that organizations are not up to speed concerning the kind of policies required in the changing work demographics. The second is that the effectiveness of these policies is questionable, and the third is the general realization that the use of work–family policies is not the only way to effectively

achieve work–life integration, hence the suggestion of the multidimensional approach in this book. The third issue has not been adequately addressed in previous books.

The current book utilizes a multidimensional approach and views work–life integration from three perspectives namely, organizational perspectives (production process, technology, leadership and organizational climate, and work–life-friendly policies), individual perspectives (understanding self and defining what success means), and family and cultural perspectives (the meaning of family and cultural gender role definition). The perspective of this book is that these dimensions affect efforts at managing work–life integration and must be jointly studied in a model to properly understand the work and life experiences of individuals. Hence, the uniqueness of the book is that it considers all possible contributors to the effectiveness and achievement of work–life integration and is undertaken in the African context where studies on work–life integration are scarce. The book concluded by developing a system view of a work–life integration model that encompasses the various dimensions recognized in the chapters of this book. It is argued herein that the testing of the model will begin with the development and validation of the appropriate measures of the variables in the model.

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Acronyms

AI	Artificial Intelligence
AMOS	Analysis of Moment of Structures
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
COVID-19	Corona Virus Disease
CQ	Career Consequence
CSE	Core Self-Evaluation
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EI	Emotional Intelligence
FWC	Family–Work Conflict
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GFI	Goodness of Fit Index
HP	Hewlett-Packard
HR	Human Resources
HRM	Human Resources Management
IBM	International Business Machine
IoT	Internet of Things
IT	Information Technology
LS	Life Satisfaction
LWC	Life–Work Conflict

ML	Machine Learning
MS	Managerial Support
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
PCLOSE	"p value" for testing the null hypothesis that the population RMSEA is no greater than 0.05
PDAs	Personal Digital Assistant
RMSEA	Root Mean Standard Error of Approximation
SATPOL	Satisfaction with Family Friendly Policies
SDT	Self-Determination Theory
SOPs	Standard Operating Procedures
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
WFB	Work–Family Balance
WFC	Work–Family Conflict
WLB	Work–Life Balance
WLI	Work–Life Integration

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Introduction: Overview of the Book and Book Chapters

Introduction

The history of the interactions among work, family, and life domains is as old as the history of humankind. Still, for long portions of this history, emphasis has been placed on only the work and family domains. Terms such as "segmentation," "spillover," "compensation," and "accommodation" have been used at various times to describe the nature of the interactions. Nevertheless, there has always been the potential for stressful situations in the environment. There was a time in this history when a clear-cut distinction existed between work and other life domains (especially the family). This period appears to be the origin of the term "segmentation." Here, there were two jobs and two people to do them. The man being the stronger was naturally assigned to work while the woman was solely responsible for family roles. This is in line with the gender role theory (Shimanoff 2009), which stipulates that individuals assume different roles in society and are judged based on the society's expectation of them as male or female. Though women sometimes helped men, their part was distinct, and their contributions were limited to what could be done within the vicinity of the family. Although

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potentially stressful situations existed in each domain, a clear division of labor helped to manage stressful situations with little adverse effects. In case of conflict, the decision as to what would give way to the other was easily made. Work varied slightly during the late pre-industrial era, but the man and woman's distinct roles were maintained. This was because work was done as a family business, and the boundary between work and family remained blurred due to physical closeness. Thus, the traditional gender role distinction was practiced in these periods.

The early industrial revolution era produced significant changes in the organization of work, especially after the emergence of the factory system (Wren 1994; Miller 2002). Under the domestic system, families owned the raw materials and processing equipment, and the work was done in the home. Later, when the demand for raw materials outstripped the family's provisional ability, merchants stepped in, although processing continued at the family dwelling. When the merchants decided to start providing equipment and raw materials at their chosen locations, the factory system emerged, which effectively separated work from family (Wren 1994). The factory owners wanted to control, reduce, or eliminate cheating and stealing to ensure high quality and make as much profit as possible. So, they paid less attention to the problems of workers unless the challenges were real threats to production. The factory system thus created two antagonistic groups of capital owners and workers. Besides, the family and the work domains created three roles—or jobs—two for men and women, and one essentially for women but which could be shared with men in some cultures. This period saw the emergence of the egalitarian gender role distinction where work became a means to an end rather than an end in itself. This change in orientation led to the predisposition of individuals to think and act in particular ways with regard to work. The capitalist system of work organization as a consequence of the factory system, alienated and estranged individuals in four main ways: first from others as the relationship became merely calculative, self-interested, and untrusting; second, from the product of their labor since someone else appropriated what they produced and they had no contribution to its usage or sharing; third, from their labor and work satisfaction since necessity forced them to offer their labor power, work, therefore, became alien and oppressive (Watson 2000, p. 116).

One of the outcomes of this new form of work organization was work–family conflict, which resulted from the interaction of the work and family domains and "… occurs when efforts to fulfill work role demands interfere with one's ability to fulfill family demands and vice versa" Greenhaus and Bentell (1985, p. 180). When there was a clear distinction between the work and family roles, stressors in each domain could be managed. However, with the interaction of both domains, stressors from both domains began to affect performance in each domain. For instance, since the time available to the individual is fixed and scarce, heavy involvement in work makes it challenging to perform the expected role in the family. The demographic and economic variables which aggravated the work–family conflict include the increased participation of married woman and single parents with children in the labor force, frequent redundancy, and globalization (Aryee et al. 1999).

The twenty-first century is characterized by the increased involvement of males and females in the work and family domains (Amah 2019a; Annor 2014; Aryee 2005; Casel and Posel 2002; Mapedzahama 2014). Consequently, there is an increased level of work interfering with family (WFC), and family interfering with work (FWC) since the interface between work and life is porous, with activities in one domain affecting those in the other domain. Christensen and Gomory (1999, p. 1) observed that "…adults in many dual-earner families genuinely do feel stressed and pulled in too many directions," for "… the traditional family operated with two jobs and two adults." But "… in today's two-carrier family, there are three jobs, two paid and one unpaid, but still only two people to do them…." The division of unpaid jobs is possible in an egalitarian culture, but not in a traditional culture of gender role allocation. This is because, according to the Social Role Theory, role expectations of men and women in the traditional society arise from the socialization of men and women as breadwinner and home keeper, respectively (Eagly and Wood 2017).

The changing nature of the work domain has led to the review of the effectiveness of gender role allocations in many cultures. However, despite the challenges associated with the traditional concept of gender role separation, the African culture has been resistant to change (Amah 2019b; Epie and Ituma 2014; Okonkwo 2014). Another realization of

the twenty-first century is seeing humans as social beings with activities beyond the work and family domains. This idea arose from the introduction of life satisfaction and well-being into work research. What constitutes success in life was expanded to include satisfaction in the work, family, and life domains. This situation has made it mandatory for organizations and individuals to invent ways of effectively integrating work, family, and life roles to achieve organizational and individual effectiveness. This is the origin of the terms "work-life balance" and "work-life integration." In the realization of this, organizations have improved in the number of family-friendly policies they offer. Three issues are, however, associated with these family-friendly organizational policies. The first is that organizations are not up to speed on the family-friendly policies required in the changing work demographics (Amah 2019a). The second is that the effectiveness of these policies is questionable; and the third is the general realization that the use of work–family policies is not the only way of achieving effectiveness in work-life integration (Foucreault et al. 2018).

Despite the realization of the third issue, past studies have only emphasized some issues that can enhance WLI instead of considering multiple approaches to balancing work and life responsibilities to achieve effectiveness in both domains (see Bloom et al. 2009; Bloom and Reenan 2006; Blyton et al. 2006; Kaiser et al. 2011; Mokomane 2014; Powell et al. 2019; Poelmans and Caligiuri 2008; Sjöberg 2008). However, this book considers WLI from three perspectives namely, organizational perspectives (production process, technology, leadership, organizational climate, and work–life friendly policies), individual perspectives (understanding self and defining what success means), and family and cultural perspectives (the meaning of family and cultural gender role definition). Each of these affects the ability of individuals to manage WLI and must be considered in any recommendation on managing WLI. For instance, if an individual does not understand and define success properly, he/she will place great emphasis on one domain, thus making it difficult to achieve the required integration. The three studies which came close to discussing a multidimensional aspect of handling WLI are Hirsch et al. (2019), Lewis and Cooper (2005), and Greenhaus and Powell (2017). Hirsch et al. (2019) developed the "action regulation model" with the

engagement and disengagement strategies, which describe the activation and allocation of resources, as well as prioritization of goals. Lewis and Cooper (2005) reviewed the effects of work–life conflict (WLC) and life–work conflict (LWC) singly and collectively on organizational and individual outcomes. Greenhaus and Powell (2017) addressed choices that society, employers, employees, and families should make to achieve WLI. Although the need for WLI is popularly recognized, none of these studies discuss the multidimensional solution to achieving it. Hence, some gaps need to be filled to enable a better understanding of the concept of WLI and to understand the mutual role that the organization, the society, and the individual play in achieving it.

The uniqueness of this book is that it considers all possible contributors to the effectiveness and achievement of WLI, and it is undertaken in the African context where studies on WLI are scarce. The book thus advocates that achieving WLI is the joint responsibility of the society, the individual, the organization, and the workplace leadership. It develops the joint responsibility that organizations, leaders, and individuals have in achieving WLI to minimize the identified negative effects of WLC and LWC. This is necessary since organizations are not up to speed in establishing policies that can help employees manage work–life demands, and the ill effects of such mismanagement affect the individual more than the organization. The second contribution of this book is that it considers the failure in WLI achievement as arising from the non-implementation or inadequate implementation of these components, thus, identifying the sources and remedies of these failures. The book, therefore, is a handbook/reference book that students, practitioners, and consultants can consult to find ways of managing WLI from a multidimensional perspective.

Overview of the Chapters

The book is divided into five sections containing a total of thirteen chapters. The sections are introductory chapters, organizational perspectives, individual perspectives, family and cultural perspectives, and chapters containing the summary. The chapters cover various aspects of the sections.

Chapter 2: Work–Life Integration: Overview and Trends

The chapter begins by stating the meaning of the concepts: work–life conflict, life–work conflict, and work–life integration, and presents some research on their negative effects on individual and organizational productivity. It traces the research journey on WLI, bringing out the movement from the scarcity model which leads to conflicts, to the positive psychology model which identifies mutual beneficial effects of involvement in multiple roles. It presents work–life integration as a way of ameliorating the negative effects of involvement in multiple roles and highlights sources of integration. The chapter contributes to the debate of difference/similarity in work–life balance and work–life integration which remains unresolved (Alton 2018; Dresdale 2016; Harrington and Ladge 2009). It reviews the research on WLI with the view of identifying the gap which the book fills. It justifies the multidimensional approach advocated and shows that past books and studies have neglected this.

Chapter 3: Organizational Production Process and Work–Life Integration

Structural and production process issues have not been given much attention in past analyses of WLI (Lambert et al. 2002; Ogah 2018). Hence, this chapter focuses on the concept of productivity process as an integral aspect of work–life integration, and what constitutes the elements of productivity at the individual and organizational levels. Inter

alia, the relationship subsisting between productivity process and work–life integration was explored as a basis for a creative and integrated process flow both for individuals and organizations as units for building a healthy society. Discussions include the role of productivity procedure, elements of inputs, and optimal output flow. The components of an ideal and practical productivity procedure and productivity quotient at individual and organizational levels were explored, as well as the identification of the value-add component of work–life integration and its relationship with productivity. Thus, the major issues addressed in this chapter include:

- The concept of productivity vis-à-vis work–life integration and the relationship inherently subsumed between work–life integration (WLI) and productivity at the individual and organizational levels. Thus, the contents of this chapter include the operational definition of WLI, productivity, factors affecting WLI, and productivity value streamflow.
- The process flow perspective of productivity, work–life integration, and factors impacting on work–life integration.
- What determines an optimal productivity procedure?
- The critical inputs for an optimal productivity flow within an ideal work–life integration continuum.
- Outputs constituting value-add at individual and organizational levels vis-à-vis an ideal work–life integration.
- Importance of prioritization hinged on work–life integration toward eliciting optimal productivity.
- Time management and discipline as integral factors for productivity: Time wasters impacting on work–life integration and productivity at individual and organizational levels.
- Scheduling and planning tactics.
- Productivity improvement strategies within the continuum of work–life integration for employees and employers.

Chapter 4: Technology and Its Impact on Work–Life Integration

In this chapter, discussions revolves around the impact of technology on work–life integration. Some authors have stated that technology has negative effects on WLI (Nam 2014), while others believe that the effects are positive (Dicken 2015; Hickman and Robison 2020; Valcour and Hunter 2005; Vlacic 2013; Yanus et al. 2018). This chapter reviews existing reports to discover why the same variables have conflicting effects. It reviews behaviors that influence the effect of technology on WLI with the view to itemizing what organizations and individuals must do to leverage technology and still achieve WLI. Since technology has engendered a technology-enabled work ecosystem and the seamless integration of other life components, the discussion included how work–life integration, considered from a multidimensional perspective, is impacted by the evolving nature of technology in the twenty-first century. It reviewed the outcomes of such impact as self-esteem and the competing demands of family and society.

Chapter 5: Family–Friendly Policies: Trends and Expectations in Africa

Employees can burn out from the consequences of work–family conflict if nothing is done, thus affecting productivity. Hence, organizations have instituted family-friendly policies aimed at helping employees manage the demands from the work and family domains. This chapter chronicles the various policies that organizations have implemented over time and their effectiveness. It reviews several such policies across nations and identifies why some nations are more advanced in implementing policies than others. Issues discussed include:

- Review of the meaning of "family" across cultures and why it is important in the study of family-friendly policies.
- Why family policies are necessary for organizations.
- Identification and explanation of each policy and its effectiveness.

- Identification of nation-specific policies.

Chapter 6: Evaluation of the Contributions of Work–Life Friendly Policies in Managing Work–Life Integration in Africa

This chapter presents the results of an unpublished study on the effectiveness of family-friendly policies across organizations in Nigeria, highlighting the variables that prevent the effective realization of family-friendly policies. It concluded with recommendations on the changes required in leadership style and organizational structure to get maximum benefits from the policies.

Chapter 7: Leadership and Organizational Climate: Effects on Work–Life Integration

The chapter begins with a formal definition of leadership, and from this definition stated the necessary factors for effective organizational leadership. It reviewed the hidden drivers of leadership style and how they affect behavior (Dweck 2008; The Arbinger Institute 2016). Included in the chapter is the role of the climate created by the leader in enhancing WLI management. It discussed the determinants of created climate and made a special case for the role of emotional intelligence in leadership effectiveness and team dynamics. The chapter makes a case for situational leadership as a way of helping individuals manage work–family demands and prescribed exercises that can aid the development of EI components. Pattern analysis as a major step was discussed with examples given. Issues addressed include:

- Leadership effectiveness resulting from three key factors.
- Leadership style considered from the leader's emphasis on people and production/results.
- Leadership mindset and its role in leadership style.
- The climate created by the leader and the role of emotional intelligence in creating such.

- Ways of enhancing leaders' emotional intelligence.

Chapter 8: Understanding and Evaluation of Self: Role in Work–Life Integration

The chapter begins with the understanding of certain personality traits that play a major role in work–life conflict, as well as evaluating self as the foundation of achieving work–life integration. The chapter considers intrapersonal/interpersonal relationships and communication as a basis for understanding self. It discusses the key aspects of core self-evaluation and how they affect intrapersonal/interpersonal relationships and communication. It considers tools that can help individuals manage themselves to avoid actions that aggravate work–life conflict and make WLI difficult. Issues addressed include:

- Personality traits that affect work–life conflict.
- Intrapersonal, interpersonal communication, and core-self-evaluation.
- Description and explanation of the wheel of life as a tool for setting life goals which can aid WLI.

Chapter 9: Meaning of Life and Successful Life: Work–Life Integration

Life has various components; work and family are simply aspects of it. How an individual defines success, therefore, affects how the individual distributes available resources. Using the concept of the wheel of life, the chapter establishes how to define success in each component and to achieve overall success in life. How the individual defines life will also affect how he develops the process of managing WLI. The chapter reviews various ways of defining success and the consequences of each. It utilized the wheel of life concept to help individuals establish how success should be defined to achieve balanced life success. It discussed why tradeoffs are necessary since individuals cannot have all they want and expect in the various components of life.

Chapter 10: Understanding the Family Structure in Africa: Role in Work–Life Integration

What constitutes the family has never been universally established (Kuschel 2017; Miller 2002; Rothausen 1999). Based on this, Rothausen (1999) advocated the importance of recognizing and capturing the diversity in the definition of the family. Family provides individuals with resources that can help in the achievement of WLI. To accurately identify the resources available to employees in Africa, there is a need to identify what constitutes the family in the African context. Aryee (2005) identified extended family resources as a possible coping mechanism in managing the conflict between work and family in sub-Saharan Africa and even made research proposals to guide future studies. The chapter reviews the various definitions of families in past studies and established what family means in Africa and established the level of resources available according to the African context.

Chapter 11: Revisiting the Gender Ideology: Traditional and Egalitarian Family Role Definition in Africa

In pre-colonial and post-colonial Africa, the traditional family role is adopted, where men are involved in the work domain and women in the family domain. Work and family have transformed in recent times and are characterized by the increased number of dual-income families, single parenting, and workplace diversity (Ajala 2017; International Labor Office Report 2009). These changes demand that the issue of traditional role definition should be revisited. However, in Africa, the traditional role definition has been decisively resistant despite the obvious need for men and women to share responsibilities in work and family domains. The chapter reviews changes in work in the nineteenth to the twenty-first century and establishes the need to adopt the egalitarian role definition in WLI achievement.

Chapter 12: Understanding the Multidimensional and Multifunctional Approach in Managing Work–Life Integration

This chapter brings together the salient points from all the chapters and how they combine to make WLI achievement possible. It described the role of each perspective and established that WLI is better managed when all the perspectives are considered and optimized to help individuals' function effectively. The chapter highlights tradeoffs that must be made to harmonize the requirements of individuals, organizations, society, and productivity.

Chapter 13: Future Directions of Work–Life Integration Research in Africa

The chapter develops a future expectation of research on WLI based on the contributions of the chapters in the book. The chapter suggests a conceptual framework that should guide future attempts of WLI achievement considering the joint actions recommended in the book. A major recommendation of the chapter is the need to pursue the development of the measures for the variables in the expanded WLI model.

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2

Work–Life Integration: Overview and Trends

Introduction

It is understood universally in the twenty-first century that managing work and nonwork demands is important but challenging to organizations, individuals, and groups. This universal understanding did not exist in the early history of the study of the work–nonwork interface but gradually unfolded over time. The terms "work" and "nonwork" have a history that traversed two distinct eras. The first was when the interface was described as work–family interface, and the second was when it was described as work–nonwork interface which recognizes that the nonwork domain is larger than, and includes, the family domain. In this book, the term "work-nonwork interface" is synonymous with "work-life interface," and they are both different from "work-family interface," even though some twenty-first-century authors use the terms "work-family interface" and "work-life interface" to describe the interface between work and nonwork domains (Epie et al. 2008; Whitehead et al. 2008). For example, Whitehead et al. (2008) stated that "The work-family or work-life interface reflects the variety of experiences, constraints, supports… that individuals and groups experience in unique

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cultures" (p. 3). The term, work–family interface, is faulty since it does not acknowledge that the nonwork domain is larger than the family domain, and so gives the wrong impression that individuals' involvement in other components of nonwork is irrelevant in establishing satisfaction. If an individual integrates work and family, what happens to the other components of the nonwork domain?

Studies in the first era were based on the concept of the work–family interface (Byron 2005; Eby et al. 2005; Frone et al. 1997; Frone 2003). During this era, it was believed that managing the interface was a challenge to women only since women were entering the workplace from a "breadwinner-home keeper" perspective. This is prevalent in the African region where women are socialized to see home keeper role as their primary role (Epie et al. 2008). Since men were not generally held responsible for family demands in the African context, they could separate the work and family domains and operate effectively in the work domain. The involvement of women in the workplace in Africa came with an additional challenge arising from the resistant traditional gender role definition which forces working women to be solely responsible for all family responsibilities because of their "home keeper" status. The traditional gender role definition persisted despite the increased involvement of women in the work domain. The traditional gender role affects relationships in the work-family interface studies (Bosch et al. 2018). Despite these results, organizations in Africa are slow in adjusting to the increasing number of women in the workplace through the development of family-friendly policies (Amah 2019).

During this era, the work and family interface was described in many ways (Aryee et al. 1999). The segmentation principle (Blood and Wolfe 1960) assumed that the domains are isolated from each other and what happens in one domain has no effect on the other. The compensation principle (Lambert 1990; Piotrkowski 1997) assumed that what happens in one domain can compensate for the shortcoming in another domain. For example, when people do not have satisfaction in work, they find satisfaction in family roles. However, the African ideology on gender role definition questions the application of compensation principle in Africa (Obiukwu 2019; Mokomane 2014). The spillover principle (Belsky et al. 1985) assumed that what happens in one domain spills over to another.

For example, the strain experienced at work can affect behavior in the family. In Africa men and women are socialized to have different work and family centrality (Amah 2010). This is likely to affect the level of spillover of events from one domain to the other for men and women in Africa. The border principle (Clark 2000) assumed that each domain has a well-defined space which is separated from other domains by a border. This principle specifically assumed that the interface between work and family domains is impervious. The role theory (Frone et al. 1997; Frone 2003) principle assumes that there is conflict between roles in different domains. In Africa, the border principle is created by the prevalent gender role ideology of allocating roles in the family and work to women and men, respectively.

Three conclusions can be drawn from the various conceptualization of the work and family interface, and these were responsible for the management of the work–family interface in the first era. The first is that they are all based on the zero-sum principle in which what one domain gains, another loses. For instance, an increase in satisfaction in the work domain can only be achieved by a reduction in satisfaction in the family domain. The second is that relationships between the domains can only be explained by the scarcity model (Aryee et al. 1999; Katz and Kahn 1978). This model assumes that the resources available to an individual are limited and that using a resource in one domain makes it difficult to utilize it in another domain (Greenhaus and Bentell 1985). For example, time is a personal resource which when used in workplace roles leaves less time for the family domain. Thus, the term "work-family conflict" was used in defining relationships in the interface. The third is that all the conceptualizations agree on the existence of a boundary between the work and family domains, but do not agree as to its nature. While some state an impervious boundary, others state various degrees of permeability. These conclusions may have affected the use of "work-family balance" (WFB) in describing the management of multiple involvements in the work and family domains in this era. Balance is achieved either by allocating equal resources or allocating resources to achieve minimum conflict between the domains.

With time, studies recognized that the challenge in managing this interface cuts across status, culture, and gender. Hence, despite the

gender role differentiation assumed by researchers in the first era, it was realized that the challenges in the interface affected men as they struggled to balance work and nonwork activities. Hence, the interface was renamed "work-life interface." The above realization, coupled with the emergence of the positive psychology drive (Wells 2007), led to the second phase in the understanding of the interface between work and non-work domain. One outcome of the positive psychology drive is the postulation by researchers that there could be an enhancement arising from participation in multiple roles in various domains (Grzywacz et al. 2007; Grzywacz and Marks 2000). For example, the experiences gained in the work domain could improve effectiveness in the nonwork domain. Hence, the term "work-life facilitation" was introduced into the work–nonwork interface literature. Work–life facilitation suggests that positive benefits are derived from involvement in multiple domains. It was therefore no longer adequate to consider the work–nonwork interface as distinct, separated, and in conflict with each other. Hence, the term "work-life integration" (WLI) was introduced to manage the interface jointly as an entity (see Greenhaus and Parasuraman 1999). Another change that enhanced the acceptance of WLI is the outcome of studies aimed at reviewing the life satisfaction and overall well-being of individuals involved in multiple roles. Results showed that an individual's life satisfaction is the combination of the satisfaction achieved in various domains, and this drives overall well-being (Akerele et al. 2007). WLI captures the integration of the work and life domains in ways that enhance overall life satisfaction.

Despite the history of the interface between work and life domains, some researchers see the terms WLB and WLI as synonymous (Akinyele et al. 2016; Dresdale 2016; Grady and McCarthy 2008), and thus, defined them as the process of reconciling the demands of work, family, and other non-work activities. Others see them as different since their emphasis differs in considerable ways (Greenhaus and Parasuraman 1999). It is thus, necessary to explore these terms in more detail to establish their meanings.

Definitions: Meaning of Work–Life Integration and Work–Life Balance

Before explaining how WLB and WLI differ, it is necessary to explain some terms used interchangeably by researchers to put the discussions in the right perspective. These are "work-family interface" and "work-life interface." The life domain is referred to as the nonwork domain and includes family as a component. Other components include social life, spiritual life, and others. Hence, work–life interface includes family as a component, while work–family interface does not include other components that make up the nonwork life of an individual. Work–family interface is used when emphasis is only on work and family. When it became obvious that the nonwork life of an individual contained other components apart from the family, it became necessary to describe the interface as work–life interface. This book is based on work–life interface and how to integrate all domains to achieve individual effectiveness and optimize life satisfaction and well-being.

Certain controversies surround the meaning of WLB and WLI polarized existing literature into three groups. The first contains researchers who find no difference between WLB and WLI (Greenhaus et al. 2003; Nwagbara and Akanji 2012). This group uses the terms WLB and WLI interchangeably and defines them as the integration individuals achieve by involvement in multiple roles in the work and nonwork domains (Nwagbara and Akanji 2012). The use of any of the terms is seen as a matter of semantics and should not be taken seriously. The group argues that the separation implied in the definition of WLB is unrealistic in an era where the interface between work and life is heavily interconnected. The postulation of this group is questionable for the following reasons. The first is that the work–life balance considers how time and other resources are shared between work and nonwork activities, while WLI looks at the holistic experience of individuals enhanced by integrating work and nonwork domains as an overall life experience. The second is that WLB was introduced in the 1930–80s and considered work as a distinct part of an employee's experience, and nonwork activities as another, hence, allocate resources such that work does not interfere with nonwork activities. It, therefore, sees the domains as opposed to

each other and their relationship as a zero-sum concept in which what one domain gains, the other loses. Because of the zero-sum concept, following the best practices in WLB still leaves employees unfulfilled and creates stress which affects their satisfaction and well-being. WLB was introduced at a time when the emphasis was on helping women cope with the new demands of their changing roles in the work and family domains (Casper et al. 2007). Its expected accomplishment was to reduce work–family conflict arising from the difficulty women encounter in the family domain because of their participation in the work domain. On the other hand, WLI is connected to the movement from seeing the issue as a demand for equality for women in the family and work domains to seeing it as a universal issue that affects all employees irrespective of their gender.

The second group sees WLB as a discourse and social construct that lacks reality (Rajan-Rankin 2016). This group believes that WLB originated from industrialized countries and so, its relevance in other social and cultural contexts remains questionable (Lewis et al. 2007; Rajan-Rankin 2016). The group further insinuates that the organizational definition of WLB varies from that of researchers (Lewis et al. 2016). Since studies on the western culture did not recognize this, the group concluded that as conceptualized and understood, WLB is a western concept without implication in other cultures including Africa (Abubaker and Bagley 2016; Atsumi 2007). However, WLB is recognized as a real construct with known history in the timeline of the study of work and life interface. Despite the ambiguity in what constitutes WLB, its reality is demonstrated by the fact that it affects work and family variables, it is valued by people across culture and organizations (Hill et al. 2004; Kossek et al. 2014), and its relationship with important variables is affected by national culture (Haar et al. 2014). How balance is conceptualized will vary with gender role ideology. For example, in Africa where women's effectiveness are gauged by the effective functioning of the family despite their involvement in the work domain, balance would mean that all the cultural assigned roles of women in the family are not compromised.

The third group represent those who view the constructs as distinct from each other (Clark 2000; Frame and Hartog 2003; Reiter 2007).

The authors of this book align with this postulation which is based on considering the meaning of the words "balance" and "integration." From Merriam-Webster.com, "integrate" is defined as "to form, coordinate, or blend into a functioning or unified whole." This means that WLI aims to incorporate the various aspects of one's life to create a whole picture. The conclusion is that WLI involves seeing the work and nonwork domains as parts of a whole person which must be integrated to achieve effectiveness. Balance is the "stability produced by even distribution of weight on each side of the vertical axis." The phrases "even distribution" and "vertical axis" connote that WLB shares resources to distinct and separate parts of the employee. According to Clark (2000, 751), WLB is defined as a state of "satisfaction and good functioning at work and home with minimum conflict." Emphasis is on the conflict between work and life and the desire to minimize the same. Karatepe (2010) postulates that work, and life outside paid jobs are different aspects of an individual's life. The author stated that the idea of balance assumes that one can successfully achieve equilibrium in the two distinct and separate areas of role identification. Thus, a questionable aspect of WLB is its overemphasis on the conflict between the domains, and the exclusion of any possible benefit derivable from involvement in the two domains (Frame and Hartog 2003; Reiter 2007). Trends in WLB have thus, concentrated on the conflict between work and nonwork, and use the scarcity model as a basis for inferring these conflicts (Kahn et al. 1964; Greenhaus and Bentell 1985). This was effective in handling the early involvement of women in the work domain. Future studies must therefore go beyond the overemphasis on women, and include men, as well as the possibility of having benefits from involvements in multiple domains (Casper and Harris 2008; Frame and Hartog 2003; Greenhaus and Powell 2006).

Apart from the controversy surrounding the terms WLB and WLI, there is confusion in the term WLB. Some studies have defined it either from the family perspective (WFB) or from the life perspective (WLB), and the word "balance" has also been explained differently. For example, Grzywacz and Carlson (2007, p. 438) define WLB as the role expectation discussed and shared in the "work and family" domains, and Haar et al. (2014) defined it as the assessment of how multiple life roles are balanced. The word "balance" has been explained as a low level of conflict

(Wayne et al. 2016), and as equal involvement in work and nonwork activities (Hubson 2014). This might explain why some researchers have insinuated that the term is a social construct without reality (Lewis et al. 2016; Rajan-Rankin 2016).

WLI shifts the emphasis from viewing work as a necessary evil that robs people of satisfaction in nonwork domain, to placing work at the center of the overall experience. WLI means a merger and unification of the whole life experience of an individual into a whole (twproject 2018). It involves the integration of the various aspects of a person's role involvement into a unified whole, thus creating a unique individual. Kirchmeyer (2000, p. 50) defined WLI as "achieving satisfying experience in all life domains and to do so resources must be well distributed across domains." According to Alton (2020), under WLI, leaders explore the following:

- Creating an environment that supports experience in all life endeavors.
- Understanding what individuals want in life and creating the culture to support it.
- Creating a work culture that allows for effectiveness in work and all nonwork domains.
- Using technology to support and effectively integrate work and nonwork activities.

Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1999, p. 407) see WLI as happening "when attitude in one role positively spill over into another role or when experience in one role serves as resources that enrich another role in one's life." This positions WLI as including both the conflict and facilitation aspects of multiple role involvement, and the fact that achieving integration would involve simultaneous means of minimizing conflict and enhancing positive spillover.

Why WLI Should Be Studied in a Multidimensional View

One universally accepted concern in the study of WLI is how organizations and individuals can work toward integrating work and nonwork challenges (Greenhaus and Parasuraman 1999; Kirchmeyer 2000). This means that in managing WLI, every organizational, social, and individual variable with the potential to affect the integration must be included in the management process. This will involve understanding the role of the organization (size, culture, climate, process, policies), individual (personality, definition of life satisfaction), and social environment (family, policies). Consequently, when examined in only one perspective (organizational work and nonwork policies) or assumed to be a one-size-fits-all situation, WLI does not fit the reality of the context in which work and nonwork activities occur. Hence, it is necessary to examine WLI from all the perspectives which have potential effects on WLI management. A multidimensional perspective that incorporates the effects of each dimension and their interaction is a better way of viewing WLI. This, however, is one aspect of the integration, a second aspect is to carry out the integration while considering the definition and importance of each component in the regions of the world. For example, in Africa, the family and gender role ideology have different meaning and importance when compared to their meaning and importance in the western culture (Amah 2019).

In a recent focus-group discussion involving some HR experts, it was identified that emphasis on only policies and programs, though necessary, is insufficient at providing a means of effectively handling WLI (Boston College Center of Work and Family 2007). The focus group recommended that any attempt aimed at effectively achieving WLI should involve a multidimensional approach which must begin with a cultural change process involving key areas namely, influencing leaders, individual career management, HR policies and programs, and influencing social policy. This book adopts this approach and views WLI management from these perspectives.

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3

Organizational Production Process and Work–Life Integration

Introduction

The impetus for the discussion in this chapter is hinged on the fact that not much attention has been given to the relationship existing between drive for productivity and work–life integration in the past (Lambert et al. 2002). Inter alia, the concept of productivity as an integral aspect of work–life integration can be considered at the individual and organizational levels. However, the relationship subsisting between productivity process and work–life integration can be explored as a basis for a creative and integrated process flow, both for individuals and organizations as units for contending with unpredicted workflow from the workplace to individual homes. Research posits that not much application can be used to delineate the relationship between work processes and family life; however, many multivariate techniques can be used to assist frameworks in addressing the characteristics of work–life integration (Ladewig and McGee 1986; Orthner and Pittman 1980; Seccombe 1986; Spitze and South 1985). Thus, there is the need to explore outcomes of the linkage of work processes with work and family and the processes in tandem with contemporary workplace policies (Lambert et al. 2002). Directly

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or indirectly, these policies encompass prioritization, time management, work scheduling, and avoidance of undue delay in workflow outcomes. Previous research indicates that a nexus exists between work and family spheres; this nexus distinguishes between direct and indirect spillover or somewhat spillover and other work processes that have potential in linking work and home (Belsky et al. 1985). This logic establishes the link between productivity and its impact on WLI. Thus, to resolve this conundrum, there is a need to explore strategies to improve this spillover from the work environment that impacts work and life relationships.

Concept of Productivity

The concept of productivity is amorphous in varying ways at both the individual and organizational levels. Productivity is the ratio of some measure of output to some index of input; it is a measure of efficient utilization of resources (Eatwell and Newman 1991; Samuelson and Nordhaus 1995). According to Eatwell and Newman (1991), productivity is the total productivity as "multi-factor productivity." In this way, the output is related to any factor input, implying that there are many definitions of productivity as inputs involved in the production process where each definition fits a given input. It can be regarded as a measure or a gauge of the magnitude or effectiveness of the results achieved, expressed as follows:

Productivity = total output/total input, which is identical to total results achieved/total resources consumed or effectiveness/efficiency.

Lawlor (1985) sums up productivity as comprehensive measures of how efficient and effective an organization or economy satisfies five aims: objectives, efficiency, effectiveness, comparability, and progressive trends. Uche (1991) identified four essential channels through which higher productivity impacts the standard of living; these are:

(i) larger supplies of both consumer and capital goods at lower costs and prices.
(ii) higher real earnings.

(iii) improvements in working and living conditions, including shorter work hours; and
(iv) in general, a strengthening of the economic foundations of human well-being.

However, this concept of productivity vis-à-vis work–life integration and its relationship is inherently subsumed in work–life integration (WLI) and how it elicits higher productivity at both individual and organizational levels. At the personal level, productivity could be perceived as the amount of output produced or given by the individual within a timeframe. Succinctly, productivity is a product of time management and discipline:

Productivity = Time management + Discipline

Productivity is a function of the application of time as a scarce resource and discipline which can be captured at the individual, national, and global levels. Critical dimensions that can affect productivity include change in nature of workforce (demography), change in family structure and dynamics, and globalization.

Production process efficiency = f(Time management, stress reduction)

On the flip side, productivity depends on the efficiency of a production process or how efficient the state of the work environment is. In turn, this efficiency depends on how an individual or organization uses time as a scarce resource in tandem with stress reduction. As expressed below:

Time management + Stress reduction = WLI = Productivity

The sum of optimal time management and stress reduction provides work–life integration, which embodies the framework for productivity. Thus, to foster an optimal productivity level and work–life integration, good time management and stress reduction are necessary. These critical block areas impact work–life integration by driving improved productivity at the individual and organization levels. According to Liu (2016), to mitigate the impact of demand on time as a scarce organizational resource and induce a stress-free work environment toward inducing work–life integration, recourse to the following approaches would be useful:

1. Employees' Assessment of Different Work–life Needs

A work environment that would engender WLI should incorporate planning work–life initiatives such that organizational employees can manage potentially conflicting family and work responsibilities. This arrangement would foster many work-related schedules that encompass a diverse and flexible work arrangement for family needs. To ensure successful work–life integration, organizations need to remain relevant to their employees and the business' dynamic needs. This situation is subject to change as a function of time and increasing customer demands.

2. Cultivating a Supportive and Trusting Work Environment

An organization that wishes to integrate work and personal segments of employees should strive to build sustainable enabling frameworks, and the creation of this framework is the joint responsibility of the organization, managers, and employees. This situation will help the managerial span of control disassociate the notion of the "ideal worker" with face time in the office, cultivate, and reward diligence rather than mediocrity. This situation will ultimately engender work–life integration.

3. Provision of the Right Tools and Technology

Although the provision of the right tools and technology has its side effect, it elicits inherent flexibility, thereby fostering the right business tools for employees to work wherever and whenever they align with emerging business imperatives. This also has favorable implications for WLI because employees can stay connected and collaborate both inside and outside the work environment.

Demographic Shift

Societies globally have experienced demographic shifts in various ways (Williams et al. 2016). Some have tended toward the younger continuum and are regarded as productive because the younger the population,

the more agile and energetic the drive to achieve more goals within a quantum of time, plus a youthful determination that encompasses some measure of discipline. Unfortunately, in some developed societies, demography is shifting toward a deliberate move to foster an aging population due to policies that encourage this tendency among their citizenries. On the flip side, some emerging or developing economies, especially in Africa with demography tending toward a youthful population, are fraught with policies that neither provide nor elicit conditions that enhance optimal productivity among their youthful population due to the absence of an enabling environment, inspiring leadership, and obnoxious political framework.

Demographic shifts characterized by an increase in men's house contributions and time spent in providing childcare (Bianchi et al. 2000; Williams and Boushey 2010) necessitated a pull in greater gender equality without a tandem improvement in workplace structures impacted on by work–life integration. This resultant effect is that although there has been a shift regarding family structure, consummate provision is absent, and hence there has arisen a workplace pull in the opposite direction (Lambert et al. 2014; Williams et al. 2016). This pull has impacted the drive for productivity at the individual levels within respective family structures and work–life integration. The lack of incremental improvement regarding workplace structures as occasioned by bad policies, lack of enabling productivity process architecture, and conducive work environment as a function of appropriate leadership support have made enormous demands.

From the aforementioned relational expression: Production process efficiency = (Time management, stress reduction); the drive for productivity is hinged on an efficient production process as a function of good time management and stress reduction. A balance of good time management and stress reduction is an ideal framework for work–life integration; however, if there is a negative pull as occasioned by faulty workplace structures, an infraction on time management occurs, and ultimately stress, and the resultant impact is an imbalance on work–life integration.

Non-responsive Work Environment and Changing Family Structure

Change in the family structure and inherent dynamics within a family unit can also affect productivity. By and large, the family is the primary cell of any society; any change regarding the family's basic structure will ultimately affect the population's viability and dynamism at the micro and macro levels. A society that engenders policies that foster and encourage family health ideals will eventually spawn a productive population. A highly productive population is a microcosm of a society whose ideals are rooted in a healthy and dynamic family structure.

However, while the family structure is changing, there is no deliberate change in the work environment; this emerging inflexible work environment as a fallout of the drive for high productivity in contemporary organizations has become a source of imbalance which tends to make employees experience work–family conflict when demands from work and family are both high and difficult to attain (Valcour and Batt 2003).

This type of workplace environment inhabits organizational policies and values that do not support work–life integration. The resultant effect is an emergent conflict that is incompatible with demands emanating from work and family domains, causing a challenge in satisfying both aspects of work and family cum personal, ultimately impacting work–life integration. Another dimension of this type of restrictive work environment lacking family-responsive work design that prevents organizational employees from balancing work and nonwork demands and the resultant effects is the negative impact on work–life integration.

On the flip side, formal family-friendly policies did not affect reported levels of work–family conflict; and autonomous work design has led to higher levels of motivation, satisfaction, and trust with the attendant lower work–family conflict, less stress, and better work–life integration (Valcour and Batt 2003). Although the relationship between work–life integration and other dimensions of work design is somewhat ambiguous, the emerging work environment has become non-responsive to the changing nature of the family structure; this itself is the crux of the challenge of work–life integration.

Globalization

Globalization is not just a business fad any longer but a reality that is dawning on the consciousness of most people on planet earth. Globalization has become the engine room for flux; change is related to flux; it fosters speed, broader reach to unrestrained capabilities, force, and flexibility. These ingredients constitute relevant inputs for productivity growth at both the individual and societal levels. Globalization has made the world a more connected ecosystem providing leverage for families, organizations, societies, and communities to activate productivity growth as a function of time and discipline. Concretely, globalization has impacted work–life integration by making more resources accessible for individuals to be resident in their private abode and still gain access to virtual work platforms within formal organizations. It has provided ease of access to e-commerce to initiate and develop virtual relationships. The attendant implication of this situation is that it elicits a balance between the drive to access unending opportunities and a beneficial impact on work–life integration since there are no more limits to how the individual can work and tap into the relevant value streams.

Globalization has occasioned a 24/7 business environment characterized by instant gratification and connectivity with an attendant pull on time optimization (Liu 2016), and the resultant effect of this development is a crucial demand on time as an organizational resource and an attendant pull on motivational stress to satisfy business customers within the global ecosystem. This situation caused a flux whereby work- and home-life are increasingly indistinct as both organizational and global levels are connected to the office and often handling work-related responsibilities in the home environment. To this end, globalization under the guise of technology has induced the work environment to become somewhat challenging for individuals to integrate their work and personal responsibilities (Valcour and Hunter 2005).

Process Flow Perspective of Work–Life Integration

A process can be viewed from the systemic framework part of any organization that takes a set of inputs and transforms these inputs into outputs with value-add; the transformational stage adds value to the inputs with an inherent control mechanism. A process can also be defined as a collection of tasks connected by a flow of work requests or customer requirements on value and information that transforms various inputs into useful outputs. A process must possess the capability to store both the goods and information required by business customers during the transformative phase.

At the individual level, inputs would include time, energy, capital, emotions, passion, and knowledge, while at the organizational level, inputs comprise raw material, energy, capital, information, knowledge, and other corporate requirements. Inputs that constitute an essential aspect of this process flow of productivity originate from an environment.

An environment can assume two forms: physical and virtual; it has the dimension of economic conditions and the state of technology. As discussed in another chapter, technology is the set of knowledge regarding processes, methods, techniques, and capital goods by which value is created and delivered to organizational customers and other stakeholders. Technology has evolved as a function of time, human needs, and the influence of globalization. This situation has made it possible for emerging process architecture to achieve the same output with fewer inputs or to use the same inputs to achieve more outputs. An essential byproduct of this change attribute is the impact on work–life integration.

Optimal Productivity Procedure: What Determines It

A productivity procedure is that which enables the intent of productivity flow to attain its result optimally. An optimal productivity procedure will ensure that the input and output relationship regarding the conversion flow is optimal for the individual and organization. Inherently, established steps for actualizing optimizing productivity should be in sync with both individual and organizational goals. An optimal productivity procedure provides an input and output activity framework with high leverage geared toward generating a high output level at the individual and organizational levels. To a large extent, the procedure should be standardized, safe, and value-add driven; thus, a crucial aspect of this logic is that to elicit optimal productivity flow, it is necessary to have an arrangement characterized by high output per activity, in other words, high-leverage productivity architecture.

Critical Inputs for an Optimal Productivity Flow Within an Ideal Work–life Integration Continuum

Individuals constitute an organization, and an organization's productivity level depends on those individuals' united efforts. On the other hand, the well-being of an individual productivity level would, to no small extent, depend on the level of integration of the individual and his well-being outside the work environment. An individual would be optimally productivity if there is an alignment subsisting between his personal goals and other aspects of his significant relationships outside the work environment. Some individuals have developed a healthy and robust flow between their work, personal, and other significant aspects of their lives; the attainment of this sync is what is referred to as work–life integration. Among other things, the critical inputs for an optimal productivity flow with an ideal work–life integration would include the following:

1. High self-esteem of the individual.
2. Conducive work environment.

3. An authentic leadership style that fosters the integration of work and life outside the home.

Aspects of Value-add for WLI at Individual and Organizational Levels

1. A workplace culture, in general, must support legitimate employees' nonwork role demands. This environment shapes the attitudes of managerial as well as nonmanagerial employees.
2. The organization in question must also create an environment that recognizes variation in employees' work–life interface over their life course.
3. Lack of flexibility in the timing and place of work and excessive time demands hamper the effective integration of work with the rest of life, and the easy availability of benefits and policies designed to provide temporal flexibility does not represent an adequate organizational response to the work–life challenges employees face.
4. Frequent meetings and inflexible work schedules both impair employees' ability to harmonize work and life.
5. Organizations must be vigilant and responsive to the problem of overwork.
6. Such individualized solutions to the challenges of work–life integration indicate that organizations are failing to meet employees' work–life needs systematically.
7. Formal work–life policies, informal work–life support from supervisors and other organizational members, favorable human resource incentives, and work designed to provide employees with a reasonable level of work demands and a high level of control over their work conditions are all critical for supporting employee work–life integration.
8. The following signal a lack of systematic respect for employees' personal and family needs; preferential access to flexible scheduling, unreasonable work demands, inadequate compensation and benefits, job insecurity, and stringent demand for employees to justify request for flexible work system.

9. The need to identify the combination of workplace characteristics and work–life supports that best enhance work–life integration for dual-earner couples, employers, employees, and their families.
10. Value incongruence between individuals and organizations is also associated with more significant work interference with family.

Prioritization

Prioritization is aligning a scale of purpose with the demands of time. It is an essential hinge on which integration of work and other aspects of life is based; this integration elicits optimal productivity. One of the biggest challenges of prioritization is "reactionary workflow," a situation where individuals live a life pecking away at the many inboxes around them and trying to stay afloat by responding and reacting to daily occurrences by chance and not consciously. Prioritization generates creativity because it predisposes an individual to select a set of activities and tacks that amplify time regarding work and individual life components. Our natural resources and capabilities are depleting fast, and expectations in the workplace and family fora are increasing as well. Unless we start to set our priorities aright, we might be in an unprecedented crisis. Given the imperatives of evolving demands on our time as individuals and organizations, prioritization regarding time as a resource in flux vis-à-vis other resources will help align our well-being in both personal and work lives; this is the essence of work–life integration. Prioritization can be achieved in the following ways:

1. Setting clear goals in sync with the envisaged task
2. Setting clear metrics in alignment with behavioral cost
3. Manage to-do list
4. Concisely capture outstanding commitments
5. Establish hard edges in daily routine
6. Need to deploy the 20/80 rule.

The importance of prioritization is hinged on work–life integration toward eliciting optimal productivity.

Time Management and Discipline as Integral Factors for Productivity

A critical aspect of work–life integration is time management and discipline. Time is a scarce resource, one that is an essential aspect of work–life integration. Time management as an aspect of work–life integration is related to the behavior and discipline of an individual. Indiscipline in this area has an impact on the effective integration of work and life components. Effective time management is a function of choices made at individual and organizational levels of concerns. Good choices lead to better outcomes, while poor choices lead to wasted time and resources. Inherently, time management provides a framework for making better decisions on how to spend time but invariably leads to making tough choices.

Impact of Delayed Decisions and Time Management

When individuals do not make timely decisions regarding issues in their work and personal lives, they miss or compromise timelines, delay projects, waste resources, and frustrate the timely flow of value to their significant others and business customers. Some individuals procrastinate because they want to be sure that they have enough information; others spend time analyzing decision information and matrix. Although the intent is positive, the outcome can result in time wasted on delivering planned results due to occurrences of waste buckets. There are eight time waste buckets that can impact negatively on successful work–life integration.

Lack of Prioritization

Every individual has priorities vying for completion within the work and private domains. Lack of prioritization can create a situation where an individual does not assign a scale of importance to the routine of tasks that demand attention; this can negatively impact WLI.

Procrastination

Procrastination is a habitual mode default where an individual consistently defers necessary action on tasks or issues that demand completion for an organization's overall good regarding value delivery to business customers. In a bid to meet up with encroaching timelines, an individual may have recourse to using all available time to attain completion of this task hastily; this has a negative implication on work–life integration.

Unnecessary Phone Calls

Receiving and making phone calls have hitherto constituted an essential aspect of contemporary lifestyle. However, this has its attendant negative impact on time and can negatively impact work–life integration.

Clutter (Disorganization)

Order is the absence of chaos. This means that disorder connotes disorganization or clutter. A disorganized lifestyle prohibits judicious use of time and relevant resources, which can impact negatively on WLI.

Please Others (Inability to Say "No")

Relationships in both work and private lives are essential; however, the demands ensuing from these relationships may push an individual to accept more responsibility than necessary, and this may weigh him down in his ability to perform optimally or deliver as per expectation. This situation can impact negatively on successful work–life integration.

Internet

The Internet has made the work environment a global ecosystem due to easy access to the information carriageway, e-commerce, virtual social systems, and virtual work teams, among other benefits. However, this

measure of flexibility has introduced usual vagaries relating to undue distraction regarding the judicious use of time as a scarce resource. This has also impacted negatively on work–life integration.

Drop-in-Visitors

Relationships at different levels abound in contemporary society. These relationships may warrant physical contacts arising from formal and informal needs. Sometimes, physical contacts in the form of unplanned visits among colleagues within and outside the work environment also constitute a bucket of time wasters.

Unplanned Meetings

Meetings are of vital essence in work environments as required and dictated by the needs of business organizations. However, sometimes, these meetings are often unplanned and may consume unnecessary time, thereby impacting unfavorably on WLI since individuals' productive time may be used up.

Scheduling and Planning Tactics

A dominant theme in focus groups is that the companies either have no formal policies for flexible scheduling or make the implementation of formal policies contingent on supervisor approval, and as a result, access to such scheduling is unequal, arbitrary, and often insufficient. Unequal access derives from several sources, including variation in access, and however, can also occur among people in the same department or occupational group, mainly based on the arbitrary discretion of supervisors, variation in departmental tasks, the nature of work and technology, occupational differences, and supervisor attitudes. We have talked about flexibility, but it is all based on what your supervisor is willing to allow you to do. Furthermore, that puts you in a groveling mode, begging and feeling anxious about whether it will be okay. All in all, the lack of

formal policies for flexible working time not only limits access but leads to the development of informal deal-making between employees and their supervisors and to divisions and perceptions of inequality among employees who do and do not gain access to privileged schedules.

Productivity Improvement Strategies Within the Continuum of Work–Life Integration for Employees and Employers

Today's workplace remains a relic of the past. This review attempts to detail psychological processes that have made this workplace remarkably resistant to the adaptation of the modern workforce.

Two psychological processes are proposed to have stalled organizational change to reshape workplace time norms for professionals. The first is that critical social identities are forged on the job: core identities of what it means to be a good worker, a good man or woman, and a right person. The second, resulting from the first, is that any proposal to re-define work is profoundly threatening to those whose identities have been forged around the old way of doing things.

Past research shows that employers' efforts to set limits on the workday can reduce employees' work–family conflict and improve corporate productivity. In some focus groups, employees identify these types of effort as essential organizational strategies to support WLI.

Thus, increasing the apparent flexibility of a job or career while expecting workers to commit boundless time and energy to work does little or nothing to advance the cause of work–life integration. Formal and informal work–life policies alone do not address the full range of challenges that working families face in successfully integrating work and the rest of life. Job security, pay, career-development prospects, benefits, and other job features important to employees and their family stability are also components of organizational family responsiveness. Several focus-group participants frame the issue of compensation in terms of its impact on the work–life interface.

Perhaps most significantly, Artificial Intelligence (AI), in the form of very rapid innovation in Machine Learning (ML), is enabling the automation of routine and narrow tasks—not just essential, tedious back-office admin work—and increasing interactions with customers. In addition to this evolution technology-wise, advanced robotics is enabling the collaboration of human and increasingly autonomous operations with the extended influence of other dimensions of technology. Albeit, from the technological angle, considering a broader perspective of the impact of digital on the work platform, people, and business interphase, there are five powerful areas regarding the impact of technology on WLI, viz:

1. empowered internal and external business customers
2. unleashed creativity
3. catalyzed social connections emanating from work and communal relationship
4. accelerated innovative
5. energized work entrepreneurship.

The above five forces imply that leverage is provided for every economically active adult in the work environment globally to connect with other significant persons in the business ecosystem to make informed choices, elicit flexible in-work deliverables, and support organizational goals in real-time.

Concerning work–life support policies, access to flexible scheduling has surprisingly little impact on the work–family outcomes tested. It does not affect work–family conflict or the reported control over the work of either wives or husbands. It is negatively related to turnover intentions, but this relationship holds only for husbands. By contrast, supervisor supportiveness has a powerfully negative effect on wives' work-family conflict and is negatively related to both wives' and husbands' turnover intentions.

Improving Workflow and Work–Life Integration

Bottlenecks can crop up in all types of work, from complex, cross-functional projects to routine processes. Whether they stem from external circumstances or habits, obstacles interfere with productivity, and this drive for productivity can impact on WLI.

Either from an individual or organizational perspective, there is a need to identify the top five obstacles in the work environment. This can be achieved in the following ways:

1. Choose the issue that interferes most with your highest-priority work. Quantify the extent to which it affects your work; this will motivate you to change it.
2. Imagine how a process would work if you could instantly remove its biggest constraint. Then think of the five ways to begin removing that constraint.
3. When you cannot think of ways to remove obstacles or solve problems, involve others to get a fresh perspective and learn from those who have dealt with similar issues.
4. Discuss the given under which your team operates. Examine each one to see if it is truly immutable.

Identify two processes that your group will improve in the short or medium term. For each process, form a team to oversee the change initiative. Assemble a task force to reduce those involved in a work process:

1. Review the purpose of each step in the process.
2. Reconfigure ineffective steps.
3. Eliminate unnecessary steps.
4. Implement the new process.
5. Follow-up to determine if the new process is more effective and efficient.
6. Invite internal or external customers to provide feedback on the obstacles they encountered in working with your organization.
7. Ask them to suggest changes and to help you test their proposed changes.

Establish High Standards of Performance Toward Improving Work–Life Integration

Individuals and groups are expected to meet not only customer needs but also internal organizational needs. To do this, they need a leader who will encourage them to stretch beyond what they thought they could achieve. Consider the following suggestions:

1. Demonstrate high performance by delivering on your commitments. If you say that you will do something, do it—model going beyond expectations, especially regarding commitments to your direct reports.
2. Establish performance standards. Include a description of what will be considered "above expectations." Many people will want to strive for that level of performance.
3. Give appropriate recognition, not inflated performance evaluations. If a person does what is expected, rate the performance "met expectations."
4. Provide feedback about how people can improve. You can simultaneously recognize and appreciate what was done and discuss what someone might add next time.

How to Handle Underperformance in Productive Ways

Analyze external factors—systemic problems, lack of resources—that influence the person's performance. If ineffective performance is due to misaligned goals, listen to the person's ideas and perspectives. Determine if there is a way to realign his or her goals. On the other hand, if ineffective performance is due to lack of skill, knowledge, or experience, provide coaching and development opportunities. Give more direction when the person is working in areas in which his or her experience is limited. If organizational rewards or goal-setting policies are contributing to ineffective performance, identify areas in which competing objectives encourage good performance in one area, and poor performance in another.

Streamlining and Improving Efficiency of Work

Inefficient work processes lead to wasted time and effort. Work can often be done more smartly if people eliminate or modify inefficient procedures and systems or create new approaches. Recourse to the following steps can be taken:

1. Gather the people involved in the work process. Map current process and identify problem areas, bottlenecks, and recurring problems and identify duplication of efforts.
2. Note places where the formal process is often circumvented and highlight the internal and external customer service problems.
3. Examine the level at which decisions are made and include what is working well.
4. Determine if any steps can be eliminated or combined to save time.
5. Investigate the cost of the constraint or problem areas. Do the problem areas result in customer needs not being met, higher costs, or a longer cycle time?
6. Before deciding on priorities, understand the impact of each bottleneck. Prioritize areas to address based on customer priorities and internal considerations, for example. If part of the process takes longer and creates unnecessary conflict among team members, you may want to put this high on the priority list. Eliminating inefficiencies might allow team members to concentrate on meeting other customer needs.
7. Establish goals and desired outcomes for the process-improvement effort. Team members should not be working on process-improvement projects without clear goals and deliverables.
8. Once you have decided which part of the process to address, investigate it in detail. What is working and what is not? Generate and review alternate procedures that would meet the same objective. It may be possible to combine the best elements of several alternatives to obtain one outstanding solution.
9. Arrange for a pilot program to test a new process. Measure the success of the pilot against the criteria established for the new process.

How Standardized Work Processes Can Improve WLI

When you have standardized work processes, you do not have to reinvent the wheel for each new project or situation. Instead, you can modify a standard process to fit each new initiative. Similarly, process-improvement methods can also benefit from standardization. Organizations focused on this area create improvement processes, train specialists to consult with and support process-improvement teams, and train employees on basic techniques and processes. The following suggestions may be considered:

1. Use resources available in your organization (such as individuals' learning and experience, books, and experts in process improvement) to identify improvement methods, processes, and tools.
2. If your organization has standard process-improvement procedures, select a team to be trained on these procedures and then have them serve as the work unit's advisers in process improvement.
3. If the organization has many different work processes, such as project management methodologies, simplify and use one. Communicate the standard work process and process-improvement procedures and tools so that people are aware of them. Also, recognize and celebrate improvement successes.

Some useful tools for standardizing work processes are as follows:

Flow charts convey the relationships of one process or person to another through visual descriptions of work cycles. They are tree-like diagrams that represent the workflow among process components. Standard symbols such as circles and squares are used to identify tasks, and lines are used to describe relationships. Flow charts are handy when there are complex process relationships and when several tasks coincide. Using flow charts, you can identify critical paths and track progress.

Project planning worksheets provide overall snapshots of projects. A project planning worksheet breaks a project into specific tasks and steps, shows estimates of the time required and the cost involved for each task

or step, and identifies the person or group responsible for carrying the task through to completion.

Gantt charts represent time relationship in a project. A Gantt chart works particularly well for projects that involve simple, repetitive tasks, projects for which the plan needs to be communicated simply and directly to others. Gantt charts do not work well for highly interdependent steps.

Control sheets are simple spreadsheets that list due dates and designated responsibilities and serve as a communication tool to both managers and employees.

Errors logs (or process breakdown logs) track information about specific incidences. Reviewing them over time reveals trends that indicate process weakness.

Works plans are used to assign and prioritize work and communicate estimated standards for individuals or workgroups daily, weekly, or monthly. They can also be used to track estimated versus actual time for job completion. Actual times that differ significantly from estimated times might indicate a need for further analysis of the job process.

Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs) spell out the steps for completing a task. SOPs are very useful as a training and cross-training tool if employee turnover is high. Checklists can be used when documentation is essential or when no step must be overlooked. Standard versions of these tools are available in both paper and electronic formats.

Many organizations create their versions for internal use. Such resources consult process-improvement literature, check with your improvement teams or quality-process people, or talk with a manufacturing or customer service group. In addition to standard tools, use a standard method—a specific way in which something is done. The following are commonly used standard methods:

1. Cross-functional teams consist of people who work in different departments. A temporary team might be formed to develop and implement a new process. Permanent teams might form for processes that depend on many different groups working together cohesively.

2. Meeting management guidelines provide a standard way to conduct meetings. They usually cover agendas, start and stop times, how to handle conflicts, and so on.
3. Brainstorming protocol provides guidelines for effective brainstorming in groups. Project initiation meetings trigger the start of a project. Participants include project owners from various functions, customers, and other groups. The sessions are used to clarify requirements, work processes, and how teams will work together.
4. Vendor meetings allow you to review vendors' abilities, determine what they need from you, and discuss ways of serving each other better. Vendors can often suggest how to serve customer needs better.
5. Customer reviews provide a standardized process for gathering information from customers to improve customer relationships and satisfaction.

Work Structures and Processes Flow for Organizational Goals and Work–Life Integration

An organization's structure, which includes the roles and relationships among people in the organization must be dynamic. What once worked well may no longer work due to changes in expectations, people, and so on. Effective managers regularly review and adjust the structure of their part of the organization to meet changing work processes, changing internal and external needs, and employees' skills. The following approaches may suffice:

1. Do not focus solely on changing structure. Identify the business process before you work on the structure. Without a clear understanding of the value chain and business processes, you will not get the structure right.
2. Design your structure with empowerment in mind. Whenever possible, create a structure in which people do the whole job, not just a piece of it.
3. Ensure that your organization's structure is current, especially if you have just experienced reorganization, downsizing, significant

growth, or product or service changes: Revaluate job descriptions and reporting relationships.
4. Look at how employees in remote locations, contract workers, and alliance partners fit into the structure. These staffing methods can work virtually as long as the reporting relationships are transparent; people know they connect to the organization and whom they connect with. They have access to technical resources, and there is a clear understanding that they are part of the team.
5. When developing a new product or initiating an interdepartmental project, create a cross-functional task force to determine work processes, and make recommendations for structure. Include participants at several levels of the organization.
6. When you are working on recurring problems, staff the team with representatives from groups not previously involved in order to get new perspectives. For instance, include customer representatives and administrative support people.

Organizational Production Process and Work–Life Integration: Perspectives from Africa

Organizational employees within emerging countries in Africa are reported to have much higher work identity scores than employees in developed countries (Linkow et al. 2011). The implication of this development is that there are deliberate organizational efforts toward supporting employees' work–life integration which may translate into outcomes related to engagement, such as higher productivity and retention in Africa than in developed countries. Research (Linkow et al. 2011) has also posited that employees in Africa with the emerging country ecosystem have had recourse to workplace flexibility as a way of improving productivity. A tandem implication of this finding is that an adaptation of various productivity improvement techniques as means of adapting work–life integration in emerging countries is a reflection that organizational leaders be careful not to superimpose evolving values and beliefs on the work–life solutions being developed for employees in Africa because what works in developed climes might not be applicable

in developing countries, mostly in Africa. However, it may be that the needs of these working environments are so much different from what is obtainable in developed climes, but the perception of work demands within the framework of work–life integration might also be viewed differently. On the contrary, while research has predicted that organizational employees in developed countries would use workplace flexibility, as a way of improving productivity as occasioned by digitization, at greater rates that employees in emerging ecosystems domicile within Africa, the outcome has proven otherwise (Linkow et al. 2011). Accordingly, research has also revealed that with the exception of flexibility initiated at the start and end of work tasks, organizational employees from emerging climes such as Africa use flexible working schedule at greater rates that those from developed climes. In congruence to this development, recourse to telework, remote work, compressed workweek, and reduced hours at work are becoming emergent work practices among the female workforce from emerging countries than in developed climes. This development gives preponderance to the aspects of work–life integration in Africa, and more especially among the female workforce in some organizations. Technology-enabled work environments are tending toward the norm because digitization, devices, and software are aiding organizational employees to work seamlessly from anywhere globally. In Africa, especially in emerging economies such as Nigeria and Ghana, this is increasingly becoming a reality due to the advancement made possible by developments in digitization. Increasingly, technology is eroding the boundaries between work and home by creating an always-on, always-connected, and their always-in-the-office environment.

In a research done by Ojo et al. (2014) among some Nigerian organizations in Africa within the educational, banking, and power sectors, it was discovered that there is a need to be strategic toward being competitive in providing a variety of flexible working pattern to help improve efficiency and effectiveness. A critical aspect of process flow alignment with WLI is how to improve productivity by driving efficiency and effectiveness via optimal productive process, time management, productivity improvement strategies, and standardized work processes. Aside from these vagaries, increasing number of organizational employees in some

African countries such as Nigeria are seeking to subsume work–life integration strategies to improve their organizational productivity despite the low level of management awareness and seeming job insecurity (Epie 2006; Mordi and Ojo 2011; Morris and Madsen 2007). These issuing dimensions should constitute the organizational lenses when there is a need to design work–life initiatives for emerging economies in Africa.

Conclusion

Work–life integration and attainment of optimal productivity can be achieved at individual, societal, and global levels. However, productivity as a product of time management and discipline should give impetus to integrating work and life at a dimensional level. Techniques abound that can mitigate the impact of any misalignment between productivity and work–life integration occasioned by good time management as a scarce organizational resource and reduction of stress.

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4

Technology and Its Impact on Work–Life Integration

Introduction

Technology, either sophisticated or simple, is an intrinsic part of the operational structure of any work environment. Information and information flow provide the glue that holds the structure—physical or virtual—together and facilitates infrastructural decisions. Technology and information strategies are central requirements for service development in the majority of organizations. The implementation of a new information system or the introduction of a revolutionary new technology can transform the competitive or working environment. The use and control of IT provide an opportunity to be innovative when, where, and how we work. These evolutionary trends have impacted variously on the different facets of work–life integration.

Howcroft and Taylor (2014) posited that these innovations in labor utilization and scheduling work impact on employees' work and how to work are done as the boundaries of the organization "melt" away. Indeed, they argue that society is seeing a new wave of revolutionary technology that provides the platform for significant change in the way we work.

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These changes have created renewed interest in how work is conceptualized—what is described as the "smart-side" of technology (Holland and Bardoel 2016). However, these advances in technology can provide an unprecedented level of electronic monitoring and surveillance of work and employees both inside and outside the workplace and have the potential to create "deadly combinations" (Howcroft and Taylor 2014).

The twenty-first century has seen significant expansion in the use and availability of technology, which has created a paradigm shift in the operational flow of most organizations. This shift has affected the different facets of the smart and dark side of technology and how new waves of technology lead to significant changes in the way we work. The tensions between "smart and dark" are examined concerning the use of formal telework practices, a connection between IT systems and work–life balance, the potential of Social Media to fundamentally change the nature and boundaries of voice in the workplace, attitudes toward workplace surveillance, and finally a critical research agenda between the interface of IT and management of human resource in contemporary work environments (Holland and Bardoel 2016).

Technology has evolved to become an intricate part of human beings both at the individual and organizational facets. It has changed the way of life and disrupted the work–life integration of individuals in their workplaces. Technology has not only disrupted the lives of individuals; it has revolutionized the pattern of work–life across all facets of life. The work environment has evolved from being a monolithic world to a global environment where individuals can no longer live discreetly but seamless personal, family, and work lives that are wholly integrated. Technology has been perceived as a vehicle of enslavement to work and subjugation of the nonwork domain to the work environment, another school of thought believes that technology has engendered some measure of flexibility, speed, agility, and innovation across all facets: individual, work, society, community, national, and globally. Whatever angle one considers it from, technology has evolved, influenced, and impacted all aspects of human existence; however, technology connotes different meanings to diverse people. Some consider it an enabler; others see it as an influencer, while others see it as disruptive. Although technology has impacted individuals, family, and work components positively, it

has also, in a subtle way, impacted work–life integration in varying dimensions; this is an aspect that this chapter seeks to explore.

Meaning and Nature of Technology

Technology connotes different meanings to different persons under varying circumstances. These connotations each have their implications on individuals, families, communities, nations, and global dimensions. The term "technology" evokes several images, and this general definition refers to know-how that is objectified independently of specific actors; from diverse perspectives, previous research has considered people whose work and nonwork, at the family levels, lives are well-integrated functions effectively at work and home, feel a sense of satisfaction with both domains, and experience minimal conflict levels between work and family (Kossek et al. 2011; Holland and Bardoel 2016; Valcour and Hunter 2005). To this end, ensuing researches on work–life integration have modeled multiple outcomes under the conceptual umbrella of work–life.

Technology is, essentially, an enabler or a facilitator. It makes it possible for new structures, new organizational and geographical arrangements of economic activities, new products, and new processes while not making particular outcomes inevitable. Technological advances such as phones and other personal digital assistants (PDAs), cell phones, and the Internet are among the many forces shaping and redefining work–life boundaries. A school of thought considers technology a "blessing" in disguise, while another school of thought perceives it as a "curse."

The concept of "domicile as a refuge" has been severely challenged by the increasing encroachment of work-related technology into the home. Advances in technology have expanded opportunities for employees to utilize flexible work options, most notably telecommuting, which has enabled many people to work from their homes' confines, irrespective of the location and type of business being transacted. This development has not only led to increased intrusion into the nonwork lives of people, thereby impacting negatively on WLI; it has also enabled people to work at any time and in any place and has thus invaded their personal lives

and, in many cases, turned their homes into "satellite offices, blurring the boundaries between work and home" (Howcroft and Taylor 2014).

An aspect of technology that has impacted individuals, families, and process architecture is the integrational dimension of work and life (this is not clear). In the work environment, organizational employees face challenges of meeting the competing demands of work, social, communal, and family life hinged on the varying assumptions that arise from managing significant issues and family demands as occasioned by inseparable spheres of different facets of life.

According to research (Valcour and Hunter 2005), technology has had different impacts on different aspects of work–life integration; for instance, the use of IT tools has increased the autonomy of organizational employees, work functioning, and associated spillovers from work to family and other areas of individual life spheres. There is a dramatic shift regarding all aspects of human endeavors, encompassing individual and work–life interphase primarily driven by a combination of five digital types of technology: smartphones, cloud services, the Internet of Things (IoT), artificial intelligence (AI), and advanced (autonomous collaborative) robotics that have coevolved toward the creation of an innovative digital platform that has enabled seamless work delivery across private and business domains.

A resultant dramatic effect of this reshaping of work-related behavior and expectations regarding work output and key deliverables from business customers is the attendant incremental flow of information and greater transparency about products and services with a work process flow that entails speedy and more accessible access to work platforms. The evolution of technology provides an unlimited creativity level, whereby unshackling individuals in their work ecosystem from routine and low-value tasks. Another aspect of technology is that it can augment those in their work environments with additional capability, providing them with relevant information and insights toward delivering value from work collaboration as outcomes of the interphase between human and technology. It also enables people in their work environment to focus on the essentials in interpersonal relationships within and outside traditional work domains by eliciting and demonstrating empathy, wisdom, knowledge for informed decision-making, and harnessing work-related

creativity in value delivery to business customers. Disruption in the workplace arising from globalization and technological change impacts individual, communal, and national aggregations with the attendant emerging opportunities and peculiar challenges. This is highly noticeable regarding new technologies and growing levels of digitalization, thus prompting the need for individuals and organizations to adopt and adapt to varying demands from within and without the work environment.

The focus of technology on creating new freedom for when and where people work, in other words, measures flexibility and added value of agility; it also provides the leverage to improve value delivery to business customers because the flexibility platform makes it possible for much work to be achieved. Also, it gives the impetus for workers to actualize their work routine outside their conventional workplace, work hours, and location. These new work archetypes are not just about deriving better efficiency than the traditional location-specific ways of working, but more effective and smarter decisions, creative outcomes, and most importantly, a congenial working environment. Several advantages can allude to the benefits that technology brings to the contemporary working environment. These advantages include new ways of working that engender winning the war for talent enhancement, as good people access solutions and places digitally that would enable them to get stuff done efficiently and effectively. On the other hand, it provides them with some flexibility level that would be valuable to them. Secondly, digital technology is a catalyst for social and business connections. It provides leverage for access to social infrastructure and varying product and service offerings, and it makes coordination possible, a feature unfeasible with analog ecosystems. These energizing new business technological models enable on-demand service and draw on the organization's availability for working hours. This situation has far-reaching consequences on the work–life of organizational employees. Perhaps, most importantly, these facets of technology accelerate the innovative style of work pattern, which would increase the iteration rate via faster product development and feedback loop mechanism. Aside from these opportunities, digital technology is also facilitating the creation of energizing platforms; this dimension has the potential of expanding new customers and targeting potential customers. The opportunities ensuing

from advancement in technology have reduced the start-up costs for new business ventures with the attendant work platform via cloud services and digital ecosystems.

Additionally, they have enabled new ventures to evolve with new products and services faster, implying that new challenges have been opened by how extraordinarily these technologies have coevolved and aligned to foster new engagement rules spanning from the immediate work environment to the impact at the individual's private domain. A critical aspect of the leadership capabilities on WLI is the shaping and influence of the organizational culture, which, in turn, affects the work environment. Interchangeably, the workplace culture should elicit the support of legitimate employees' nonwork role demands and shape the attitudes of managerial and nonmanagerial employees (Batt and Valcour 2003). Thus, an existing technology ecosystem influences leadership capability as the work environment subsists.

As the technology ecosystem evolves, five distinctive leadership capabilities are critical for inclusive integration between work and individual's life domain (Davies 2019):

1. Audacity
2. Acuity
3. Ambidexterity
4. Agility
5. Adaptability.

Audacity

Technological audacity is a digital criterion that is difficult to infuse into a work environment. It is crucial for the successful engagement of individuals regarding their job deliverables in tandem with other facets of their lives. It requires leadership courage at the organizational level and a resilient drive to commit organizational talents. Without this courage and commitment, reallocating business architecture in energizing organizational workforce and talent becomes a challenge and defies existing norms. Thus, organizational leaders spanning supervisory to executive

roles need to walk the talk in harnessing creativity at the individual level without causing misalignment between work and individual work facets. The audacity of leadership function affects technology, thus impacting WLI by stimulating an enabling work environment.

Acuity

Acuity is an aspect of technology that incorporates digital leadership capability. It entails looking beyond the boundaries of a business work environment, building insights into how a work environment is evolving, and developing the foresight required to anticipate potential changes. Concretely, it requires a conscious shift in time and attention away from optimizing operational performances in a dynamic core business milieu. It entails shifting focus from business customers and competitors toward building a coherent perspective on innovation, on changes in customers' preferences and behaviors, and emerging business models within the digital technological framework. Acuity helps in eliciting stress reduction in the work environment, and this directly affects work–life integration.

Ambidexterity

Ambidexterity as a digital technology capability entails pulling off the delicate balancing act of making the investments required to explore emerging opportunities to increase and capture new value while simultaneously delivering value from current core business architecture to business customers. This emergent scenario implies that business leaders would have to leverage relentless reinvention and seamless adaptability to a rapidly changing business environment with the attendant work culture and demands. This impact affects the individual's work demands, and challenges in coping with family and societal expectations, alignment using ambidexterity are also required at the individual and work community. To get this all right, technology would influence organizations in two significant areas: regarding the current technological platform, continuity in cost reduction and increasing revenue and growing demand for organizational product offerings, automation of existing processes

and transformation of customer experience toward attaining customer-centric, continuous, conversational, and customized technological based business entities. In the long run, this would embrace and manage risk and leverage technology digitally in attracting new customers and enabling new business models. Ambidexterity fosters systemic balance as a way of balancing the pull between work demands and personal aspects of organizational employees: this prevents the challenges of work–life integration.

Agility

Technological agility is another characteristic of the emerging working environment that impacts individual, societal, and family levels. This has its implications regarding the integration of work and individual lives. The essence of technological agility is increasingly being embraced by incumbent technological natives and new generations of a population. It also entails the ability of the technological framework to adapt and integrate emerging work requirements with modern, different, disruptive, and convergent customer demands. Integration of the disruptive essence of the work environment discourages the challenges of work–life integration.

Adaptability

Technological adaptability refers to a situation where a new technological architecture fits individual and organizational work environment. It incorporates changing work expectations, anticipatory customer requirements, and evolving global priorities; it tends to situate organizational versatility, identify new work deliverables, time horizons, and critical competitive priorities within and outside the individual work environment. This is important as an aspect of work–life integration. In an evolving digital ecosystem with evolving work imperatives, there is a need to reshape the work environment not merely to survive the odds but to drive radical innovations in a bid to reshape and re-enact the new work

rule with its attendant implications. Adaptability at the individual and organizational levels inhibits the challenges of work–life integration.

Types of Technological Change Affecting the Management of WLI

According to Dicken (2015), there are four broad types of technological change that have progressively made significant and far-reaching impacts on several areas of work–life integration viz:

1. Incremental Innovations: These are technological innovations encompassing small-scale, progressive modifications of existing products and processes, created via "learning by doing" and "learning by using." This type of innovative drive is hinged on already existent products and processing from a small-scale perspective. The incremental nature of this innovation necessitates a push on the work environment that generates demand on time and attendant motivational stress to provide the service offering or product in question. The implication of this situation is the manifestation of the tandem impact of work–life integration.
2. Radical Innovations: As the name connote, this type of innovation entails radical aspects of innovation that are leveraged radically; they are the discontinuous and discrete innovative archetypes that drastically change existing products or processes. It does not engender change on a widespread basis, but spews change at a cluster level. The radical nature of this innovation warrants a drastic change within a paradigm continuum that demands pull on organizational resources inclusive of time and motivational stress. This situation may result in an imbalance that may impact the WLI of individuals and groups in a corporate work environment. Organizations are increasingly innovating radically and tapping from organizations within and outside their value chains (Oke 2019). This systemic pull implies a demand on time resources and individual capability, which ultimately impacts WLI.

3. Changes in technological systems: This is an aspect of technological architecture that impacts existing business ecosystems and stimulates new opportunities. This type of innovation embodies radical and incremental technological innovations in tandem with relevant organizational innovations associated with the emergence of vital generic technologies. A systemic change impacts both process flow, recourse (inclusive of time), and organizational employees at individual and group levels. Since it embodies both radical and incremental aspects of innovation, it automatically encroaches into work and private life components of individuals and groups in the work environment.
4. Changes in the techno-economic paradigm: This type of innovation involves a revolutionary change as a function of new evolving technological architecture. A characteristic of this type of innovation is that the pace of change is slow and takes time to actualize since it requires a combination of social, organizational, and technical aspects.

An aspect of this change is the gradual impact on work design that has enabled the deployment of multifaceted technological tools such as telecommuting. It has also enabled the flow of work to invade or spillover into the home (Valcour and Hunter 2005). However, from the productivity perspectives, the drive for outcomes and deliverables rather than hours clocked and physical presence in the work environment has generated different work–life needs and difficulty getting a flexi-time block to attend to family and personal issues (Liu 2016; Ogah 2018). Accordingly, an organization can improve the organizational work environment via innovative and robust engagement of employees, especially in developing economies (Ogah 2018). This would help alleviate work–life integration challenges.

Improvement in technology architecture has a dual impact on value delivery and attempts to provide employees with the support they need to ensure a healthy work environment. Advancement in technology has raised expectations for both employees and employers to achieve goals and objectives and meet often unreasonable deadlines that increase pressure on other employees within the organization. This may affect employees' health, resulting in higher absenteeism, lower productivity, and higher turnover rates. New technology has provided more flexible

work practices but has also increased the speed at which information is shared and the expectation for responses, action, and decision-making. Hours of work extend beyond the average daily hours regardless of being able to adjust the hours within the 24 hours. This has generally been found to impact work–life balance negatively. Importantly, there is a potential for greater global telework access, which can deliver "smart" outcomes, such as higher productivity, commitment, engagement, productivity, and better work–life balance for multiple stakeholders. However, on the flip side, it is also essential to recognize the challenges of telework management to avoid the "dark" side, such as a loss of social cohesion and information and knowledge transfer (e.g., when individualism values dominate) and a loss of work motivation and engagement (e.g., when collectivism values dominate).

Although technology is the leverage for workplace revolution, it affects the human workforce that would engender the required transformation despite ample opportunities that exist in it in an emerging digital age. Concurrently, the rest of the population resident in the workplace may be challenged to adapt to evolving automation with attendant new skill requirements. This emergent attribute may pose a challenge in the immediate workplace and constitute a spillover to the workforce's life outside the immediate work environment: here lie the inherent dimensions of WLI. A significant consequence of this aspect of the workplace is that organizations must help workers embrace change and adapt and leverage new opportunities to thrive in a digitally challenged world. A critical discourse of this implication is that a large segment of our population may find themselves stuck and confronted with irrelevant skills and long-term unemployment, leading to poor socioeconomic work-related outcomes. This would ultimately lead to many employers struggling to prepare their workforce for new work routines and spillover to their private living space toward ensuring the freed capacity from workplace redundancy geared toward optimal productivity and maintenance of full employment. Some aspects that would impact on WLI include:

1. Automation being used selectively to drive only efficiency.
2. A lack of clarity as to the extent to which roles and tasks are being impacted by automation.

Fig. 4.1 Impact of technology on job distributions and work–life integration (*Source* Adopted from Valcour and Hunter [2005])

3. A failure to invest in end-to-end automation and digitization.
4. Rewards from technology investments being returned to shareholders and not being invested in growth.
5. Displaced workers reentering the workforce at a lower level.

Technology has influenced the distribution of jobs across industries, occupations, and supervisory span of managers and supervisors, which has directly impacted WLI, as shown in Fig. 4.1. In varying ways, technology has affected work–life integration via the distribution of jobs at industrial, occupational, and managerial span levels.

Another essential shift driven by technological advances is the increasing share of people employed as managers and professionals. The increase in the percentage of workers with supervisory responsibility or professional standing suggests a concomitant increase in the autonomy and discretion enjoyed by workers, and research has established that job autonomy is associated with increased opportunity to exercise control over the relationship between work and nonwork domains with low work–family conflict.

To this end, technology influences the overall mix of jobs, and because jobs in themselves differ in how they influence the relationships between work and life outside of work, technology affects work–life conflict, as depicted in Fig. 4.2. Technological change matters at the aggregate level. As it creates some kinds of jobs and destroys others, the overall state of the relationship between work and life outside work also changes. In addition to reducing autonomy, technology can also place workers under closer managerial scrutiny by facilitating extensive monitoring of employees' work. Sophisticated computer systems are replacing mechanical time clocks and are extending managers' ability to track when

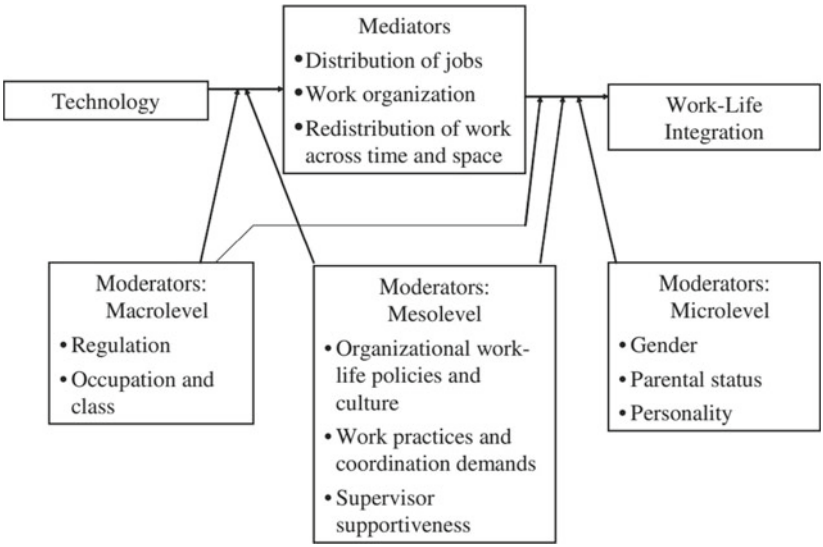

Fig. 4.2 A model of the effects of technology on work–life integration (*Source* Adopted from Valcour and Hunter [2005])

employees start and stop—a capacity previously applied primarily to nonmanagerial employees, but that can now be applied to more highly skilled workers. Modern technology does more than automate tasks: it provides supporting tools for nonroutine activities that require high levels of skill and worker engagement (Holland and Bardoel 2016). Software applications such as spreadsheets, word processing, and sales-support technologies automate sets of tasks ranging from the routine to the very complex, providing workers with the means to do higher level activities more efficiently.

The elimination of redundancy in processes means that every worker's role may be vital; the leaner the process, the more tightly linked its steps, the more difficult it is for workers to exercise the sorts of discretion that would steal their focus from their work tasks. In terms of its contemporary impact on WLI, the most fundamental and prevalent change brought on by advances in information technology is arguably the redistribution of work across time and space. Such redistribution is not entirely distinct from changes in the mix of industries and workplace

technologies described earlier. New technologies allowed firms to gather workers together in factories in the nineteenth century. Today, the latest advances allow firms to disperse workers to do jobs such as consulting that barely existed half a century ago.

Features of Technological Impact on Work–Life Integration

Teleworking is associated with increased permeability of the boundary between work and nonwork domains. The spatial, temporal, social, and psychological aspects of the work–nonwork boundary are all affected by the movement of work demands into the home. Whereas the social roles people occupy at work and family had generally been separated in industrial societies, telecommuting causes these roles to overlap. Finally, the movement from home to work, and vice versa, involves crossing a psychological boundary, an aspect that is also changed when people work at home.

Evidence on the impact of technology and telecommuting on aspects of WLI is equivocal. Generally, research suggests that the use of portable information and communication technologies is associated with increased adverse spillovers from work to family, even when controlling for occupation, work hours, and commuting time.

The search for a technological solution to enhance work–life integration is, however, not the only force underlying the implementation of teleworking technology. By the 1990s, more kinds of teleworkers emerged, and several organizational rationales for teleworking were offered, including reduction of real estate and labor costs, efforts to increase productivity, customer proximity, complementarily with the required mobility of many client-focused workers, and compliance with regulations.

Factors Influencing the Relationship Between Technology and Work–Life Integration

Organizations should create technology-based infrastructures and tools to activate varied technological experiences, tailored to suit both individuals and evolving work teams, and designed to influence engagement, adoption, and productivity. These types of team architectures should operate across multiple dimensions to inform and feed all complementary work functions. A priority aims at developing an integrated understanding and related plans that connect people and technology. However, many business configurations are already imbibing the dynamic rate of technology adoption as a measure of outpacing the ability of organizations and the adaptability of people.

Aside from this direct influence induced by technology, a relational factor is the lack of flexibility in workplace timing. Working in a physical space is a limitation, but technology might be a constraint in mitigating the impact regarding a virtual space. On the flip side, technology gives unrestrained room for persons to encroach on their private spaces due to work demands; this situation impacts negatively on work–life integration.

Working in a virtual space gives leverage to persons coping with excessive time and work demands. The use of technology gives ample space for some multitasking in the physical workspace. However, these advantages have their downsides since they encroach into the private lives of individuals and families and impact negatively on the work–life integration component.

In work situations where supervisors are not providing support for their direct reports, the presence of technology may not mitigate this situation but rather exacerbate it. Thus, the redesign of the work structure may not even be useful in this instance.

Factors affecting the impact of WLI can be explored within three-dimensional aspects (Valcour and Hunter 2005).

Micro

Micro-level impact on WLI has two main dimensions: individual and family. These dimensions have a direct effect not only on the work environment but also on the societal ecosystem at large. However, different work demands may influence the manner and extent of the impact of technology on the integration of the various components of private, family, and society. Incidents of imbalance of integration between the individual, personal, work, and society abound in different work ecosystems. A manifestation of these disconnections exemplifies various forms and shapes in a work environment, family, communities, and nations. These scenarios, though unique in some instances, are widespread in developed economies than in emerging ones. Some relate to different categories, such as gender, parental status, marital status, and personality.

Meso

Individuals do not exist in isolation but coexist with other significant others in any subsisting ecosystem. The meso-level depicts the effects and levels at which individuals interact with one another. The type and extent of interaction depend on the nature of interest, goal, and urgency; however, the most common type of interaction pertaining to the meso-level exists in organizations as required by work rules and demands. This interaction is typical of organizational and sub-organizational work enclaves such as division, department, and work units. As exemplars of these factors, we consider the roles that may be played by organizational policies and culture regarding work and family, the effects of supervisor support, and the demands that workplace practices and strategies place on coordination. Most challenges of WLI abound at this level.

Macro

Interactions that subsist at the meso-level gradually grow to an enormous scope of interaction referred to as macro-level. This type of

interaction governs workplace architecture and largely influences the relationship between configurations of workplace technology and work–life. Examples of these include regulatory, occupational, and class hegemony.

The emerging dimension of this macro-level interaction is globalization. Globalization is an interaction that entails a process flow by which countries cohabit by trade, capital flows, and technology. It impacts job content, work communities, and consumption patterns, which influences the work–life integration between the microcosm of individuals in business communities and nations. A related consequence of this imbalance, as a fallout of the disconnect in the work–life integration, is a sustainability impact on the environment, people, and broader ecosystem.

Technology-Specific to Service-Oriented and Non-service-Oriented Work Environments

Service-Oriented Work Environment

A service work environment has its unique technological characteristics. This type of technological architecture rarely invokes a single dominant feature due to the nature of service delivery value flow. Investment in information systems is likely to be the significant expenditure for many service organizations, both at the initial setup of the operation and at frequent intervals as the industry moves forward and adopts similar technologies. Some services are built on the provision of information. In terms of the service concept, the outcome is that the user is provided with details of where to buy particular goods or obtain service. Technology has influenced service delivery in varying roles encompassing multiple knowledge bases, service streamlining, customizing, and personalizing service, increasing reliability, facilitating communications, cost reduction, and total customer control. This situation is donated by the characteristics of the service work environment as enumerated below.

Characteristics of a Service-Based Work Environment

Researchers and analysts have used the following criteria to characterize services, although not all services exhibit these characteristics (Johnson et al. 2012). However, most manifest these characteristics:

Intangibility

Intangibility is an aspect of a service-based organization that entails delivering value to business customers, which cannot be captured concretely. One of the challenges of this situation is that there is no delineated boundary between the envisaged customer experience and the expected outcome flow from the reference value chain of the organization in question. This relationship implies difficult work–life integration.

Lack of Ownership

Both organizational employees and customers value creation in the service-based work environment as a requisite of the value chain. This aspect implies that it makes varying demands on the organization's private and work–life dimensions, indirectly impacting work–life integration.

Inseparability

The delivery of value to business customers and the life segment of employees in service-oriented work environments are inseparable because of the uncontrolled overlap existing between these different dimensions of work–life components. In advanced economies, this poses a major occupational challenge but less of a challenge in developing economies where technological advancement is still incipient.

Perishability

A service work environment delivers value that is consumed in situ by the output recipients. This attribute makes increasing demand on the employees in this type of work environment. The resultant effect is that work–life integration becomes a challenge both at the individual and societal ecosystems.

Variability

A service work environment is configured by default to spew out variable outcomes in response to the varying demands of customers. The implication of this is that employees in this type of work situation must incrementally upscale their capabilities to reclaim relevance; this is having its downside on work–life integration.

Operational Challenges

The critical lesson for leaders and employees in a service work environment is to recognize that service concepts are changing rapidly, and new service providers may be providing better value for customers by taking advantage of changes in networks, information, and technology. More positively, there are many possibilities to provide better service at lower costs by integrating services and information provision and harnessing the power of intelligence networks. The pace of change offers both opportunities and challenges of service to the operations manager. These include the need for:

1. Investments in future-proof technologies
2. Sophisticated but reliable technology
3. Extensive, reliable, and up-to-date database
4. More centralized operations
5. Technology-competent staff
6. Involving users in the development of "unknown services."

The aspects mentioned earlier distill a personal relationship with the customer despite limited personal interaction. Some information-based organizations see opportunities for developing advanced services following, for example, the creation of databases based on the original service. In such cases, the potential rate of innovation might be relatively rapid, thus presenting significant challenges for the operations manager.

Flexing the Structure of the Work Environment

In the past, the structure of operation acted as a constraint to operations. Today, using technology, information, and the creation of global, physical, and virtual networks, constraints can be removed, and new services and operations capabilities created. The usual way of describing the two main clusters of operational tasks is those decisions concerned with managing the operation's structure and infrastructure. The structure of an operation is akin to a human body—it has the skeleton, organs, and muscle structure, which create its shape and define its ability. For an operation, the structure includes the technology, facilities, buildings and their locations, and the supply network. These hard-structural parts of an organization define its overall shape and architecture, and in the past, have constrained its abilities. A restaurant with only 30 seats, for example, constrains its activities, just as the capacity of a telecommunications device, measured in kilobits, may constrain the type and speed of information flows. Structural decisions include the location, capacity (size), capability, and the resilience or flexibility of the various physical or virtual parts of the operation.

On the other hand, an organization's infrastructure comprises the decisions that affect how the structure is used—the organization, planning, control, and improvement of its processes, staff, and customers, for example—and decisions about how performance is measured and improved. Many operations decision-making has taken structure as given, or at least as a costly resource. This means that operations managers have concentrated on infrastructural decisions, such as process design, people management, and resource allocation. Today operations

structures are much more fluid through the use of networks, technology, and information, and they can provide the key to new services and new levels of productivity and customer service. There are two aspects for operations managers to consider here:

Managing Physical and Virtual Networks

Some individuals prefer the physical to the virtual workspace. The former encourages closer and personal contact; it drives a greater level of collaboration and essence of being, whether in periods of urgent or regular flow of value to the business customer. There has been a paradigm shift in how work–life is structured in the physical space vis-à-vis the virtual network, while due to an emerging disruptive situation as occasioned by an evolving instance of COVID pandemic. However, managing teams in a virtual environment is more demanding than in a physical environment, though there is more flexibility in the virtual space. Nevertheless, getting work done or meeting work deliverables in a virtual space encourages work–life integration than in a physical space. In developed economies, working in the virtual workspace gives more room for integrating private life with work demands, while in developing economies, there is a challenge in working virtually due to the unavailability of internet connectivity and other related constraints.

Managing Technology and Information Flows

Leveraging knowledge about customers. Information systems that ensure that customer-facing employees have all relevant information about the customer during the service transaction present a more professional image and allow the core transaction to be conducted more efficiently. When First Direct, the telephone banking service, was conceived, a fundamental requirement was for an information system that allowed any customer to talk to any service employee at a time. Some hotels keep comprehensive records of regular guests' likes and dislikes, preferred rooms, and dietary requirements. At a simple but effective level, an airport hotel courtesy bus radios ahead for customers on board so that

they can be greeted by name at arrival. This latter example demonstrates that technology does not need to be complicated or expensive to impact significantly.

Leveraging knowledge of the service product. Service organizations that are moving away from offering a standard service may need upskill customer-facing staff. A more excellent choice for customers may require greater knowledge about the product to give appropriate advice. Information systems may allow the customer-facing employees to act "as if" they were experts. Again, these systems vary from too complicated to very simple. At one end of the scale, an expert system may harness all the knowledge of recognized experts and specialists. On the other extreme, a simple checklist on a computer screen may deal with many customer inquiries without the need to refer to expensive technical help. Many computer or software helplines operate on this principle, with on-screen diagnostic routines to aid the customer service agents.

Multiplying knowledge of customers' use of the product. This is an extension of the previous use of technology and constitutes a change in service concept typically. Instead of merely selling a product, the service provider seeks to understand how the customer uses it and aids or advises on using it more effectively. Truck manufacturers, faced with increased competition, moved the emphasis of their aftermarket operations away from merely selling spares to truck operators. To develop customer loyalty, they invested in understanding how truck operators might manage their fleets more profitably. This knowledge was then disseminated through the manufacturers' networks utilizing an information system, rather than positioning a fleet profitability expert in each location.

Integrated Information Provision

Information technology, coupled with technologies such as satellite tracking, has enabled operation managers to make decisions based on more complete and real-time information. An obvious example is the parcel business. Both managers and customers can track the location of parcels sent by the courier. Information technology has transferred

some of the work to the customer and put them in greater control of the service and its delivery. From our computer at work, we can order our stationery and computer peripherals, changing the role of the traditional purchasing department. From our home computers, we can order our weekly groceries or train tickets or cinema tickets or move money between bank account or pay bills.

Non-service-Oriented Work Environment

In particular jobs, technology influences work–family integration by shaping the tasks that workers perform. An assembly line under mass production, for example, permits workers little control over the content of their work, its pace, or the order in which they do specific tasks. Automation may therefore raise obstacles to effective work–life integration, and such effects are not limited to manufacturing assembly lines.

Technological advances, rather than reducing employment to a sideshow, seem to be associated with an intensification of work. This dynamism has remained unchanged both within and without the traditional workspace. Moreover, the emerging work, the decline in the share of workers employed in manufacturing, and concomitant increases in service-sector employment suggest that workers have moved into jobs that—in some instances—permit more freedom of movement and communication outside the workplace, allow more flexible scheduling, and provide other opportunities to achieve effective integration between work and the rest of life.

The contextualist perspective on the organization of work raises two critical issues for work–life integration. The first is the extent to which different configurations of technology in use influence workers' abilities to balance their work responsibilities with their lives outside of work. Our review suggests that effects may be associated with the extent to which workers enjoy task discretion, that technology is used to facilitate flexible rather than constraining work schedules, and that monitoring is used to limit workers' behaviors. A second issue is an extent to which work–life integration is a consideration, explicitly or implicitly, in

managerial decisions about technological implementation or in workers' responses to these decisions.

In some instances, workplace culture, in general, must support and legitimize employees' nonwork role demands. This environment shapes the attitudes of managerial as well as nonmanagerial employees. The organization must also create an environment that recognizes variation in the work–life interface of employees over their life course. The relationships that subsist between work–life integration and other dimensions of work design are more ambiguous. Globally, organizations have increasingly adopted more collaborative or team-based forms of work organization to improve workplace quality, efficiency, and coordination, which has fostered work–life integration. Although there is a school of thought that supports the idea that team collaboration and coordination improve organizational performance, there is little research on how these forms of work organization affect employees' ability to manage work and family.

On the one hand, the ability to collaborate or coordinate work with other colleagues may increase flexibility if coworkers can substitute for one another or establish norms of reciprocity in which they agree to help one another meet work and nonwork demands. Some studies have found positive effects of team-based systems on work–life outcomes. Still, on the flip side, the demands of collaboration and group coordination may increase work hours or the rigidity of work if they lead to time-consuming meetings or heightened peer-group pressure. The use of information technology is another area of work design that is rapidly changing, and the nature of its impact on WLI is also unclear. Portable computers, faxes, voice mail, and email allow workers to bring work into the home more efficiently but may have effects similar to those of telecommuting. Researchers have found very mixed outcomes for telecommuting because, although it increases flexibility, it also allows work to invade or spill over into the home.

Employees tend to experience work–family conflict when demands from work and family are high and difficult to satisfy. A work–family conflict is an integral conflict in which incompatible demands emanating from work and family domains make it difficult or impossible to satisfy both sets. Employees from dual-earner families are particularly likely to

experience conflict between work and family. Whereas most research has focused on individuals and the work–family conflict they report, a growing number of studies suggest that work–life issues must be understood in the context of both spouses' employment conditions. The paradigm shift is to focus on ways in which technology affects work–life integration, "a perceptual phenomenon characterized by a sense of having achieved a satisfactory resolution of the multiple demands" of work and nonwork domains.

Employees have traditionally faced the challenge of meeting the competing demands of work and family life with the assumption that they were solely responsible for managing their balancing acts and could not expect significant assistance from their employers in this regard. Both employers and employees often treated work and family domains as separate spheres of existence.

The term "technology" evokes several images. It's most general definition refers to know-how that is objectified independently of specific actors. In this chapter, we explicitly focus on technology as embodied in machines and, to a lesser extent, work processes (we consider organizational practices as separate from this "hard" definition). We give much of our attention to recent advances, focusing mainly on information technology (IT)—hardware, software, and telecommunication. Our framework also allows us to consider technology from a historical perspective and frame our claims more generally. People whose work and nonwork (mostly family) lives are well-integrated function effectively at work and home, feel a sense of satisfaction with both domains, and experience minimal conflict levels between work and family. As this definition suggests, work–life integration is a multifaceted construct. Researchers interested in work–life integration have modeled multiple outcomes under the conceptual umbrella of work–life.

Technology Impact on WLI: Implications for Africa

Research done among manufacturing organizations in Nigeria, Africa, indicated that an organizational work environment could be improved using emerging innovation and robust employee engagement (Ogah

2018). An emerging aspect of innovation has been witnessed and is occasioned by technological digitization in most businesses across Africa, especially in recent times. Previous research works (Epie 2006; Fapohunda 2014; Obamiro et al. 2016), have also revealed that inadequate infrastructural frameworks and growing incidents of job scarcity are some factors aside leadership challenges that have affected the link between work and life components in some Africa countries. The distortion inherent in this link has also impacted somewhat on work–life integration in these climes. However, with the emergent opportunities and flexibility as enabled by technology in the digitization of most work environments in Africa, the advantages outweigh the disadvantages in many aspects in the long run as it were. However, a dark side of technology is the stress created in Africa due to the ineffective technology arising from lack of infrastructure. For example, during COVID-19 many businesses in Africa began to work remotely and studies found out that poor infrastructure such as poor power supply limited the effectiveness of internet required for remote work and caused high work stress in employees (see Chawla et al. 2020; Falokun 2020; Mulley-Goodbarne 2020).

Albeit several models based on role, ecological systems, and conservation of resources(COR) theories espousing the limitation of resources, the interaction between the individual and the several systems surrounding the individual, and work–home resources respectively have been used to explore the various aspects of work–life integration (Brummelhuis and Bakker 2012). However, COR theory seems to exemplify and amplify most dimensions of work–life integration in Africa since it subscribes to how people react to stressors in their environment and how these encounters influence and define their well-being.

Conclusion

Technology has not only impacted work–life integration but has also influenced how employees function in their respective organizations irrespective of the type of organization—whether service-based, manufacturing-based, or hybrid. This inherent attribute has made it

possible not only for individuals to function more productively in their workplaces but for technology to encroach into their individual and private lives. Aside from the benefits of multi-tasking and the enhanced capability to achieve more work deliverables, technology has reduced the quantum of quality time that individuals can access due mainly to the pervasive drive to use ample leverage that technology provides to work from the confines of their home. As enabled by technology, this flexibility has not only influenced work–life integration somewhat positively or negatively but has also affected it from all perspectives and dimensions, as it were. Albeit this may continue for the time being as unique people grapple with this evolving aspect of their lives amidst other competing issues emanating from the personal, communal, and global dimensions.

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5

Family-Friendly Policies: Trend and Expectations in Africa

Introduction

The interaction of humans with their environment has always produced potentially stressful situations. However, there was once a period where such interaction occurred without an increase in stress. This was in the early pre-colonial and pre-industrial era in Africa. During this period, work–life balance, work–life conflict, and work–life integration were not used; there were no factories because work was done in the vicinity of the family. Although work and family domains were completely identifiable, they did not interfere with each other. Terms such as "segmentation" and "separation" were used to describe the interface between work and family. The term "work–life conflict," however, was introduced in the industrial revolution era when the number of women in the work domain increased, and the interface no longer prevented but allowed a spillover of events from one domain to the other. Work–life balance policies were then introduced to help employees integrate work and life responsibilities (Fapohunda 2014). These policies improved the well-being and productivity of employees, but the effectiveness of these benefits has been questioned by past studies. For example, Bloom et al. (2009) insinuated

O. E. Amah and M. Ogah, *Work-life Integration in Africa*,
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that even if there were benefits associated with these policies, they were obtained at a high cost/benefit ratio.

To fully understand the history of work–life friendly policies, the chapter addresses how, why, and when work–life friendly policies became necessary in organizational settings, and discusses the policies established by law, and the challenges encountered. It also discusses the discretional policies established by organizations and the associated issues and reviews the categorization of organizations to identify the differential success achieved across them.

Trends in Work–Life Friendly Policies

The trend of work–life friendly policies in Africa followed a similar trend as in other parts of the world (Lockwood 2003; Prasad 2012). This trend is linked to the historical nature of work and gender role distribution. During the pre-colonial era in Africa, there was a clear-cut distinction between the work and family domains. In this era, this interface was clear and permitted no spillovers from one domain to another. There were two jobs and two people to perform them. Based on gender role distribution, men being the stronger were naturally assigned to work while women were assigned to the family. Women occasionally helped in work roles, but such was limited to what could be done in the vicinity of the family; was at the woman's discretion and was not allowed to interfere with her main role. Although potentially stressful situations were present in each domain, the clear division of labor made it possible for the situations to be managed with little adverse effects. In case of conflict, the decision as to what would give way to the other was easily made. Since roles were clearly defined, work–life conflict was extremely low or nonexistent. Hence, work–life friendly policies were unnecessary. The situation of work varied slightly in the late pre-industrial era, although the distinction of the man–woman roles was maintained. The early industrial revolution era produced great changes in the organization of work, especially after the emergence of the factory system (Wren 1994; Miller 2002). Under the domestic system, families owned the raw materials and processing equipment, and the work was done in the

home. When the need for more raw materials than could be provided by the family arose, merchants rose to the task, providing the raw materials, even though processing still occurred at the family level. However, when the merchants decided to situate the equipment and raw materials at their chosen locations, the factory system emerged which effectively separated work from family.

The factory owners sought to control cheating and stealing, to ensure high quality and maximize profit, so, they paid less attention to the problems of the workers unless they were threats to production. The factory system thus created two antagonistic groups of capital owners and workers. In addition, the family and work interface created three roles or jobs—two for men and women, and one essentially for women but which could be shared with men in some cultures. Work thus became a means to an end rather than an end. This change in orientation led to the predisposition of individuals to think and act in particular ways with regard to work. The capitalist system of work organization as a consequence of the factory system, alienated and estranged individuals in four main ways: from others as relationships became merely calculative, self-interested, and untrusting; from the product of their labor since someone else appropriated what they produced and they had no contribution to its usage or sharing; from their labor and work satisfaction since necessity forced them to offer their labor power, work was therefore seen as alien and oppressive (Watson 2000, p. 116).

One of the outcomes of this new form of work organization was work–family conflict, which resulted from the interaction of the work and family domains and "… occurs when efforts to fulfill work role demands interfere with one's ability to fulfill family demands and vice versa" Greenhaus and Beutell (1985, p. 180). When there was a clear distinction between the work and family roles, the stressors in each domain could be managed. However, due to the interaction, stressors from both domains began to affect performance in individual domains. For instance, since the time available to the individual is fixed and scarce, heavy involvement in work makes it difficult to perform the expected role in the family. The demographic and economic variables which have aggravated the work–family conflict include the increased participation of married woman in the labor force, increasing number of single parents

with children in the labor force, frequent redundancy, and globalization (Aryee et al. 1999). Christensen and Gomory (1999, p. 1) also observed that "…adults in many dual-earner families genuinely do feel stressed and pulled in too many directions," for "… the traditional family operated with two jobs and two adults." But "… in today's two-carrier family, there are three jobs, two paid and one unpaid, but still only two people to do them…." The division of unpaid jobs is possible in cultures where the man helps with household jobs.

National and Organizational Reaction to Work–Life Friendly Policies

The changing dynamics in the workplace necessitated by the increased participation of women in the work domain has led organizations to establish various work–life friendly policies aimed at helping employees balance the demands of involvement in multiple domains. This was expected to secure a win-win situation for organizations and employees. Formally, work–life friendly policies are organizational policies that help employees to effectively integrate their roles (Lewis et al. 2007). When women entered the workforce, governments set up statutorily mandated policies to help in the management of work and family responsibilities (Olivetti and Petrongolo 2017). However, there were several challenges associated with these policies. The first is that the policies elicited diverse reactions from people. Some considered the action imperative due to its positive effect on gender equality, child development, and the provision for women to combine career and motherhood in a traditional family structure where women are solely responsible for family responsibilities (Olayanju 2005; Manning 2003; Mba 2007; Omololu 1997). Others saw it as negative because usage of the policies seemed to result in loss of experience for women and higher cost for organizations who employ women of childbearing age (Ruhm 1998). The second is that work–life balance policies created by the law are not uniformly adhered to by organizations in both public and private sectors in Africa (Amah 2019). For example, despite what the law says regarding maternity leave, the Oxford Policy management Nigerian team (Alive and Thrive 2019)

stated that there are still gaps in how organizations implement this legally stipulated duration of maternity leave. The team attributed the gaps to lack of clarity of the sanctions that organizations would face for non-compliance, what employees can claim in a situation of denial, and the fact that many in the informal sectors are not looked after by the same law. Since women are not adequately protected by the law, they have to seek support to manage their work–life demands from either the discretionary efforts of some family-friendly organizations or help from extended family members and domestic helps (Earle et al. 2011). This assertion is also supported by Okonkwo et al. (2019) who found out that women who worked between 30- and 60-hours weekly experienced high work–life conflict and utilized domestic servants to take care of family chores.

Most work–life friendly policies fall into three groups, namely, on-site provisions, parental leave policies, and flexible work arrangements. However, Perrigino et al. (2018) stated that instead of a win-win situation, what surfaced was work–life backlash. Work–life backlash is recognized as "negative attitudes, negative emotions and negative behavior" (Perrigino et al. 2018, p. 604) that individuals and groups have about multiple work–life friendly policies. Work–life backlash arises because of the inequity, stigmatization, and spillover associated with the implementation of the policies. Evidence of this is in past studies that hold that policies exist in organizational manuals, but individuals do not use them due to the consequences that usage will have on their careers (Allen et al. 2013; Rothausen et al. 1998). Thus, work–life backlash arises from the negative actions of leaders whenever employees utilize organizationally provided work–life friendly policies. Inequity-based mechanism is negative attitude to the policies arising from a sense of inequity. For example, those who do not need any policy feel cheated by those who need and use the policy. Stigmatization-based mechanism arises when leaders negatively interpret policy usage. For example, the use of parental leave by men is interpreted by leaders as a sign of lack of job commitment (Leslie et al. 2012). Spillover-based mechanism arises when the use of a flexible work arrangement leads to an individual's inability to effectively handle role demands in other domains of life. For example, individuals under

flexible work arrangements may take work home and thus use family time for the work taken home (Edwards and Rothbard 2000).

Apart from the activities of leaders, past studies have also questioned the contributions of work–life policies to individual and organizational performance. Past studies insinuated that even if the policies made positive contributions, such were achieved at a high cost/benefit ratio as most organizations measure the benefits and not the cost of the policies. For example, Bloom et al. (2009) argued that good management associated with work–life balance and increased level of work–life friendly policies will provide positive contribution. However, the well-being obtained is at a cost that is more than the benefit derived. Studies have also questioned the inability of some organizations in Nigeria to consider the preferences of employees in the development of work–family friendly policies (Fapohunda 2014). The author identifies the range of family-friendly policies provided by organizations and established a difference in the preferences of journalists and nurses for various aspects of work–family friendly policies. For example, they both want childcare services, but differ in preference for compressed hours of work, self-roasting, teleworking, and breaks from work. Since organizations do not consider these preferences; the flexibility desired by employees is not factored into the development of these policies. However, the author asserts that organizations that consider these preferences have employees who are highly productive at work, have high job satisfaction, and have reduced turnover.

Past studies have also attributed the ineffectiveness of work–family-friendly policies to the ignorance of employees to existing policies (Kodz et al. 2008), lack of information and training on the need for work–life balance (Mordi and Ojo 2011), fear of career consequences from using the policies (Eaton 2003), lack of management and coworker support, and adoption of the presenteeism culture where time and physical presence are criteria for gauging employees' effectiveness (Beauregard and Lesley 2009). Because of these factors, only a few employees agree that they have support from their organizations in managing work–life conflict. The concept of the insider and outsider principle proposed by Chung (2018) applies in Africa where organizations contract and outsource regular employment to manage talents. Employees in each

category are treated differently when issues of work–life balance policies are considered. Chung (2018) found out that in Europe, statutory policies are available to all, while occupational policies are selectively provided to employees whom the organization has vested interest in. This is because of the insider and outsider segmentation in some European countries. In Africa, statutorily mandated policies and organizational provided policies are given to those considered as insiders. The contracts developed with outsiders are such that they do not enjoy certain policies, resulting in discrimination as stated by Kvist and Greve (2011) and Seeleib-Kaiser and Fleckenstein (2009). The use of discretionary occupational policies may be performance-driven, and this may result in the segmentation of employees (Chung 2019; Lambert and Haley-Lock 2004). Outsiders in the African context are those on contracts and those obtained through outsourcing, while insiders are the regular employees considered as permanent staff and who enjoy discretionary treatment from their organizations.

Another perspective on how organizations support, or hinder work–life balance comes from categorizing organizations on two fronts, namely, number of policies provided, and level of support for work–life balance (Filipkowski 2013; Lockwood 2003; Osoian et al. 2009). The position of an organization is influenced by its belief on whether the relationship between family and work is accepted as segmentation and spillover (Zedeck and Moiser 1990). Figure 5.1 shows the four categories of organizations.

Various forms of work–life friendly policies are known to be highly effective in attracting and retaining talents, especially working mothers (Filipkowski 2013). These policies have resulted in reduction in absenteeism and employee turnover, increased job satisfaction, diversity, employee referrals, and attraction of the right people to the organization (Lockwood 2003; Osoian et al. 2009). However, a supportive work–life organizational culture is key to the realization of these benefits. Figure 5.1 depicts four types of organizations with varying levels of support for work–life balance. Organizations with a high number of policies but low support for work–life balance are categorized as culture of discouragement. These organizations establish policies to give outsiders

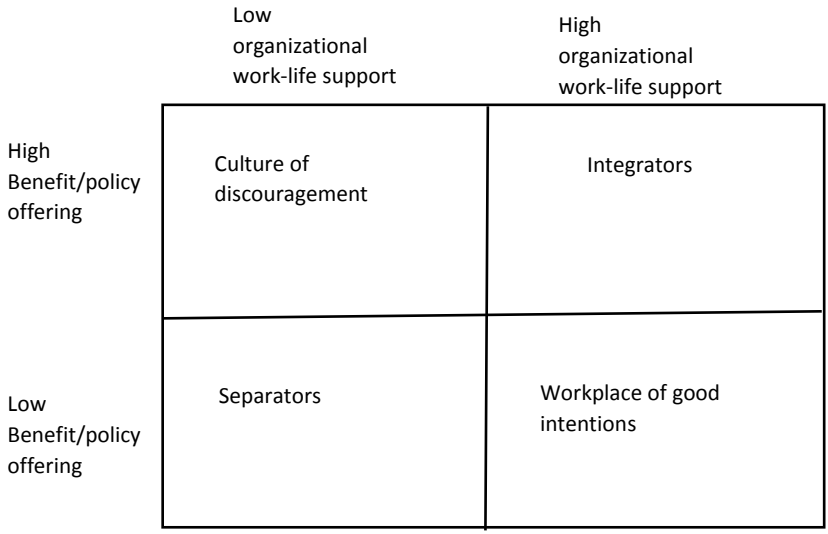

Fig. 5.1 Categorization of organizations based on the number of policies and support for work–life balance (*Source* Author)

or regulatory authorities the impression that they are family-friendly organizations. They may spend a high level of operating expenses in developing the policies, but only because they are legally demanded. The workplace of good intentions has high level of support for work–life balance, but not enough policies for employees. Cost consideration is the major determinant of these organizations. Separators are organizations with low support and a small number of policies. Their principle is to separate the domains, which is impossible in the current situation of work and family domain. Environments in these organizations, therefore, will neither support nor encourage employees in policy usage. Integrators are organizations with high number of policies and high level of support. Such organizations are known to have employees who are more satisfied and engaged than those of separators (Filipkowski 2013). Past studies have established that 28.5% of organizations are integrators, while 39.6% are separators, with the other categories having equal percentages. There is a statistical difference between the impact of integrators on employees and that of other categories (Filipkowski 2013;

Lockwood 2003; Osoian et al. 2009). Vozza (2018) suggested four ways that organizations can become integrators such as rethinking schedules, respect for boundaries, creating community, and open communication.

Conclusion

The challenges of work–family integration never used to be an issue. There was a time when two jobs could distinctly be assigned to men and women with no interference. In Africa, this period covered the pre-colonial to the early post-colonial era. Africa has a traditional family structure in which men work to provide for their families while women are at home handling family chores. Even when women were involved in work, their primary responsibilities were not compromised (Wren 1994). In the industrial era, owing to women's higher education and the need for them to help in the provision of family finances, the number of women in Africa involved in the work domain increased radically. Despite this, the traditional family concept for women as solely responsible for family chores did not change. This period saw the introduction of work–life conflict and the necessity to control it so that employees could integrate work and life responsibilities. Early forms of work–life friendly policies were driven by legislation, and later, organizations introduced other discretionary policies popularly known as occupational policies.

The work–life friendly policies established by law had few setbacks which rendered them ineffective. The first was that the law was ineffective at demanding compliance from organizations, and so organizations implemented them at their discretion. The second is that the employees had no way of demanding compliance or redress when their rights were denied by organizations. The third is that differences existed in policy implementation in the public and private sectors. For example, though the law establishes the duration for maternity leave, the actual duration implemented by organizations differs and the law is unable to demand compliance where fewer days are allocated. The fourth is that the number of policies covered by law did not address the whole range of employees' needs.

The discretionary policies introduced by organizations was an attempt to address the inadequacy of those introduced by law, but their implementation had a few challenges also resulting from the different attachment to the various forms of work relationship (contract employees, outsourcing, and full-time employees), resulting in the concept of insider and outsider. Thus, the discretionary policies were implemented selectively to the advantage of insiders, and organizational support was high for full-time employees than others. The support offered by an organization is therefore linked to the activity of leaders who create climates that hinder or encourage policy usage. These challenges masked the expected positive benefits of work–life friendly policies.

To further explore why organizations differ in their ability to encourage work–life friendly policies, the chapter categorizes organizations based on two criteria: number of policies and level of support offered. Based on these, organizations were categorized as: culture of discouragement, integrators, separators, and workplace of good intention. Statistical differences were found in the level of support offered by each category with integrators offering the highest support and obtaining greater productivity and well-being from employees (Filipkowski 2013). The next chapter will fully explore the organizational factors that hinder the effectiveness of the discretionary work–life friendly policies introduced by organizations. Lockwood (2003) and Osoian et al. (2009) recommended that organizations should establish cost–benefit analysis for the policies they provide to show if the funds spent are justifiable.

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6

Evaluation of the Contributions of Work–Life Friendly Policies in Managing Work–Life Integration in Africa

Introduction

Employees face two challenges in multiple role involvement, namely, stress arising from involvement, and the slow response of their organization in responding to their demands for improved well-being (Dike 2007; Evbuoma 2008; Odejide 2003; Salami and Alesinloye 2005). However, organizations that incorporate work–life friendly policies and supportive environments create a healthy exchange relationship between them and their employees which gives rise to higher organizational and individual productivity. Productivity is further increased if the policies are outcomes of communication with employees aimed at eliciting the actual need for effectiveness and managing their work–life demands (Evbuoma 2008).

The terms "work–life integration" and "work–life policies" are offshoots of the increased involvement of women in the workforce (Osoian et al. 2009). Implementation of work–life friendly policies pose challenges to organizations, and when effectively implemented, provide a competitive advantage to the organization (Coff 1997; Huselid 1995;

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https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-69113-4_6

Pfeffer 1994). According to Chimote and Srivastava (2013), organizational benefits arising from the implementation of work–life balance policies include reduced absenteeism, better productivity, improved corporate image, and increased employee loyalty and retention. Individual benefits include greater safety at work, autonomy, reduced stress, improved health and well-being, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction (see Oyekunle 2018). The outcomes of work–life policies can be divided into hard factors such as productivity increase, financial performance, turnover, absenteeism, recruitment, and retention; and soft factors such as employee morale, attitudes, and commitment. Soft factors are known to act as mediators between work–life friendly policies and hard factors (Kossek et al. 2011). Despite the potential of the policies, Clay (2011) noted that organizations' attempt to manage employees' WLI resulted in a drop in employees' satisfaction from 42% in 2009 to 36% in 2011. This resulted in a corresponding drop in satisfaction with the benefits of the policies. This fact indicates that organizational behavior has remarkable effects on the realization of organizational and individual benefits of work–life policies.

Lockwood (2003) and Osoian et al. (2009) established the following policies in order of importance/preference to the employees they surveyed: job autonomy, work from home, compressed workweek, unpaid family leave, work from home daily, sabbaticals, transition between full-time and part-time for parents, gradual return to work after childbirth or adoption, and job sharing. They also established the order of contribution for the following benefits: paid family leave, health and wellness subsidy, on-site fitness center, and backup emergency childcare. This shows that preference and order of benefit may vary between organizations and individuals. This calls for a collaboration of employees and organizations in the management of WLI and the establishment of work–life policies (Brough et al. 2009; O'Driscoll et al. 2003; Shockley and Allen 2007). From the above, this collaboration must involve researchers who can make research results meaningful to both the organization and individuals. Past studies have proffered suggestions on how research results can be made relevant to organizations to enable them to derive the benefits of their investments in work–life policies. For instance, Kossek et al. (2011) stated that researchers should: work with

organizations to study the policies and implementation effects, focus on the effects of technology on the blurring interface between the work and nonwork domains, empower individuals through the study to drive the management of the interface themselves, and advocate the collaboration and breaking down of silos, and fitting of organizational contexts to work–life balance.

On occasion, organizations may not be able to provide all the resources for handling family demands, hence, family resources can play a major role in achieving WLI. For instance, Barnett and Baruch (1987) stated that when husbands take part in family responsibilities, the marital satisfaction of full-time employed married women is high. Also, Amah (2019) discovered that extended family resources helped working mothers cope with responsibilities arising from childcare. Mesmer-Magnus and Veswesvaran (2006), Milward (2006), and Houston and Marks (2003) postulated that policies are necessary steps in helping employees manage WLI; a sufficient condition, is the existence of a favorable organizational climate to encourage policy use. Such climate must pose no consequence to the use of organizational policies or family resources.

Work–life friendly policies have the potential to enhance organizational and individual productivity as well as employees' well-being as seen from past studies (Kossek et al. 2011; Dike 2007; Evbuoma 2008; Lockwood 2003; Odejide 2003; Osoian et al. 2009; Salami and Alesinloye 2005). It is also clear that for these benefits to be obtained, the organizational climate must be supportive in providing and encouraging the use of the policies with no consequence to employees' careers (Mesmer-Magnus and Veswesvaran 2006; Milward 2006; Houston and Marks 2003). More so, the policies must be a joint responsibility of the organization and employees to avoid establishing what would not be useful to the employees. The following study involves the survey of organizations located in the metropolis of Lagos, Nigeria on the effectiveness of their policies and factors responsible for failed outcomes.

Evidence from a Study on Work–Life Integration Efforts of Organizations in Nigeria

Background of the Study

The study began as a yearly survey of the WLI efforts of organizations to recognize those with effective policies and spur creativity in WLI management. The award was based on the calculation of the work–life index of participating organizations. One finding of the study is that organizations with high work–life index did not have correspondingly high employee life satisfaction, and family-friendly policy satisfaction. A deep review indicated that the negative organizational climate created by leadership behavior prevented the successful realization of the policies. Further studies explored the contents of the negative climate created by leaders. The results obtained are reported and analyzed.

Method

Family-friendly policies were obtained from the review of literature on work–family-friendly policies within and outside the country (see Lockwood 2003: Osoian et al. 2009). This was necessary to ensure that organizations were rated by international standards instead of creating local champions who fell short of acceptable standards. The questionnaire used contained 27 work–family-friendly policies broadly categorized as follows:

- Flexibility at work (6 policies)
- Easing the demand from work (6 policies)
- Dependents' care benefits (7 policies)
- Others (8 policies).

Human Resources Managers and employees filled out the questionnaire on the availability of policies, and employees further provided input on usage and satisfaction with the organizations' family-friendly policies

and work–life conflict. The study included both contract and full-time employees. Based on the first year's results and employee comments, it was decided to add the variables of managerial support, career consequences of using the policies, and employee life satisfaction to the questionnaire in subsequent years. The work–family index was based on the number of policies, usage, and number of employees in the organization. The maximum number obtainable by any organization was 100%.

All the organizations in the Lagos metropolis were invited to be part of the study. However, only a few of them agreed and permitted the researchers to administer the questionnaires to their HR managers and employees. In each participating organization, at least 50% of employees were contacted.

Results

The major findings of the first year include the following:

The surveyed organizations had work–life indexes ranging from 32 to 60% (see Fig. 6.1). When categorized, most fell within the low range while others fell within the mean range. No organization excelled in the number of policies provided. The policies provided were those mandated by law; only a few organizations valued employees' WLI beyond the statutory requirement. Variations were observed across organizations in the implementation of the statutory policies. For instance, the law established 12 weeks of maternity leave for working mothers, most organizations, however, deferred on the calculation of the weeks. Some included working mothers' annual leave while others did not. Figures 6.2, 6.3 and 6.4 indicate that organizations with high work–life index did not experience better satisfaction in policy, life satisfaction, and low work–life conflict as expected when work–life friendly policies are utilized. Results also indicate that most employees utilized only a few of the policies, with some commenting that it was useless establishing policies which when used would damage their career. The inclusion of managerial support for policy use and career consequence shows that the

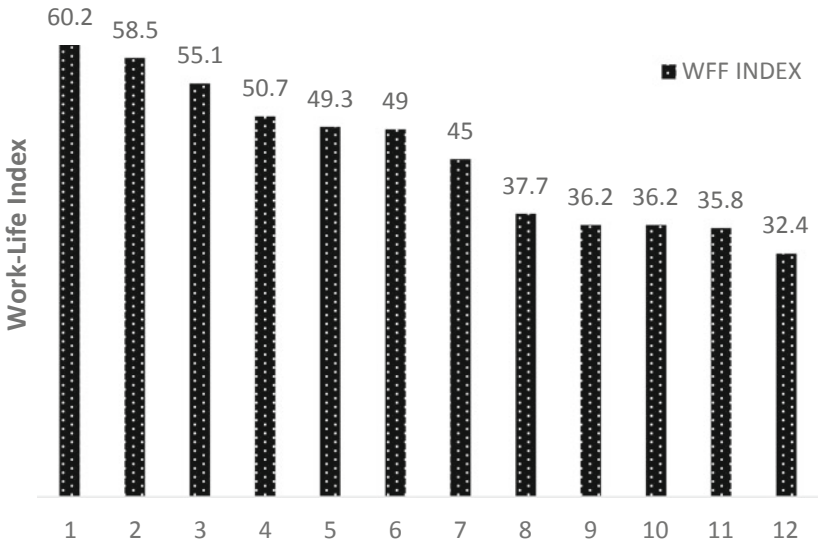

Fig. 6.1 Work–family-friendly index (WFFI) (*Source* Author)

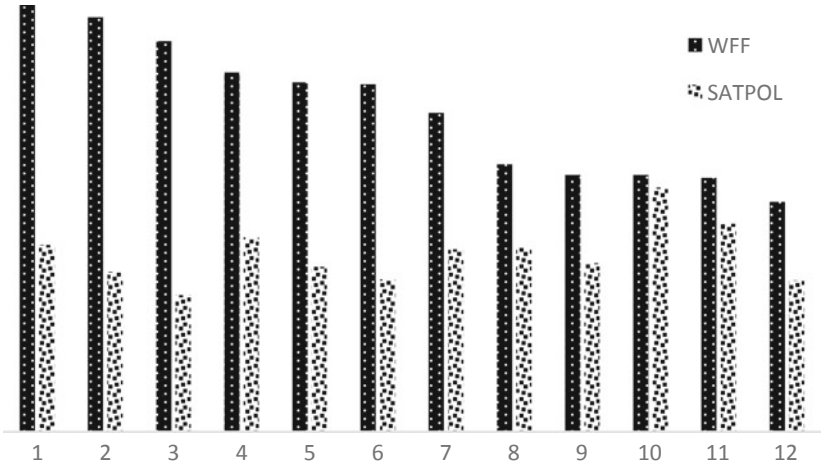

Fig. 6.2 Work–family-friendly index (WFFI) and Satisfaction with family-friendly policies (SATPOL) (*Source* Author)

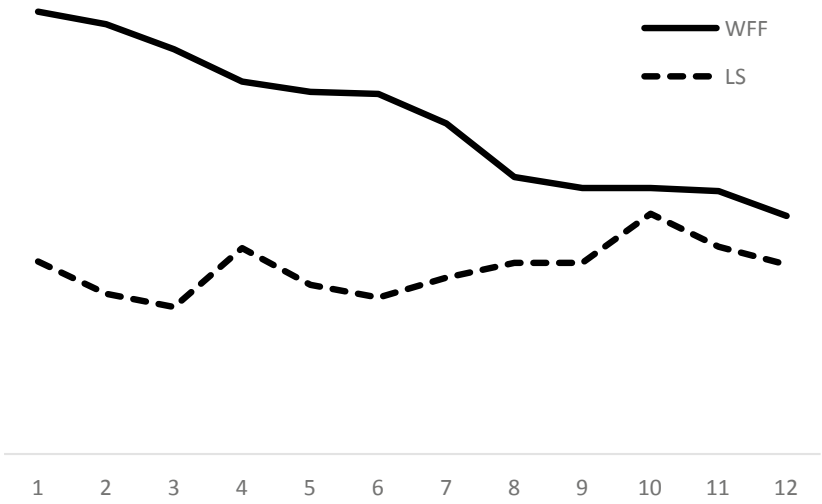

Fig. 6.3 Work–family-friendly index (WFFI) and Life satisfaction (LS) (*Source* Author)

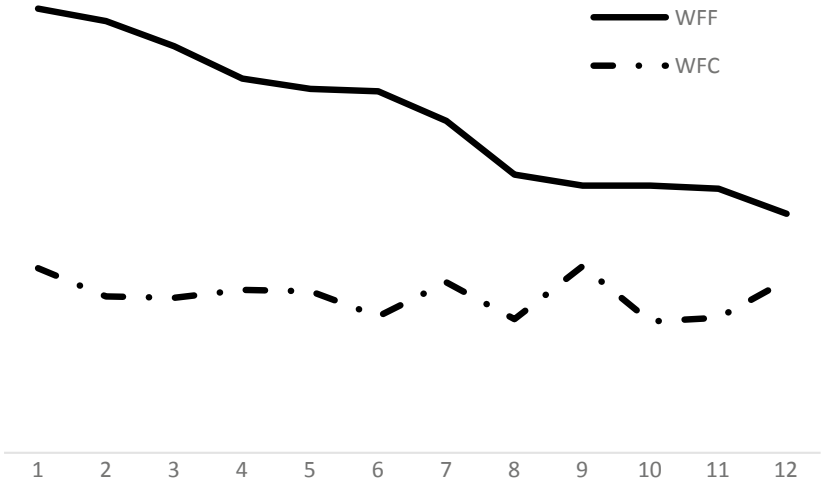

Fig. 6.4 Work–family-friendly index (WFFI) and Work–family conflict (WFC) (*Source* Author)

reason for non-performance of work–life policies was due to non-usage by employees.

As indicated in Fig. 6.5, employees with high satisfaction used the policies most, resulting in high life satisfaction. Figure 6.6 indicates that where the career consequence is high and managerial support is low, employees experience low life satisfaction, high work–life conflict, and low satisfaction with the policies. This result happened even in organizations with high work–life index. The results obtained agreed with the works of (Clay 2011; Mesmer-Magnus and Veswesvaran 2006; Milward 2006; Houston and Marks 2003).

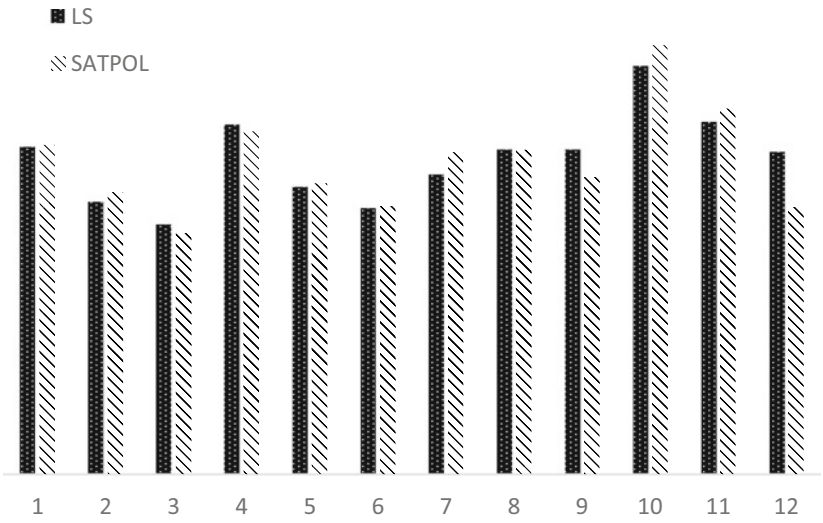

Fig. 6.5 Satisfaction with family-friendly policies (SATPOL) and Life satisfaction (LS) (*Source* Author)

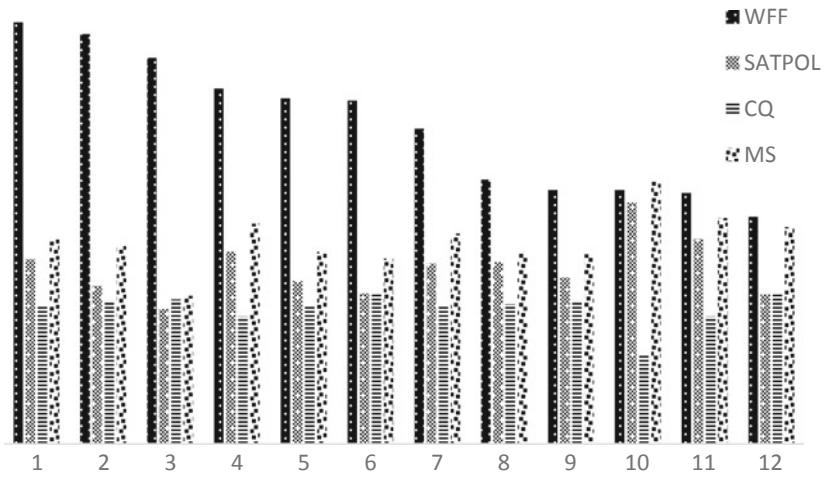

Fig. 6.6 Work–family-friendly index (WFFI), Career consequences of using family-friendly policies (CQ), Managerial support (MS), and satisfaction with family-friendly policies (SATPOL) (*Source* Author)

Discussion of Results

The fact that the surveyed organizations had work–life indices in the low to medium range (32–62%) indicates that they did not excel in the number of policies provided. A review of this showed that many of the organizations provided the mandated policies but did not create discretionary policies. Evidence of preference for different forms of employment is seen in the difference between the availability of policies to full-time and contract employees. Organizations should provide policies to enhance WLI management and to achieve high employee perception of satisfaction with policies, employee life satisfaction, and reduction in work–life conflict level. However, as demonstrated in Figs. 6.2, 6.3 and 6.4, this expectation was not met as high levels of work–life index did not correspond to high levels of these variables. The conclusion was that organizations were investing in setting up policies that had little or no effect on employees' ability to manage WLI.

Subsequent studies confirmed that the climate created by leaders affects the use of policies, satisfaction with policies, and employee life

satisfaction (see Figs. 6.5–6.6). Both career consequences of policy usage and managerial support are variables in the organizational climate created by leaders which make it impossible for employees to utilize the organizational policies aimed at helping them manage WLI. For example, some female employees reported that using the maternity leave policy altered their promotion and promotion sequence. The results obtained showed that leaders create an organizational climate (low managerial support, career consequence of using policies) which discourages the use of policies and contributes negatively to the ability to manage WLI. This means that participating organizations invest greatly in providing work–life friendly policies only for leadership behavior to make the investment a waste.

Conclusion

The chapter reviews the number of work–life policies provided by organizations which are categorized into two: those mandated by law, and those which are discretionary and fully implemented by the organization. Other categorizations of the outcomes of work–life friendly policies are placed under hard factors and soft factors. These latter factors mediate the relationship between the hard factors and the expected outcome of managing WLI. Having the policies is a necessary condition in achieving WLI; however, a sufficient condition that guarantees the realization of benefits is the existence of a supportive environment that encourages policy use without fear of consequence to career. It was also established that supportive climates are derived from leadership behaviors. When an organization makes policies available and has a supportive and encouraging environment, it derives the benefits associated with investing in work–life policies. This leads to high employee satisfaction with policies, job satisfaction, and effective management of WLI.

The follow-up study in the chapter shows that organizations who invested much in the provision of work–life policies and have high work–life indexes did not necessarily observe low employee work–life conflict, high satisfaction with policies, and job satisfaction. It also establishes that

when managerial support for policy usage is low and the career consequence of using the policies is high, employees experience high work–life conflict. This means that although an organization may invest much in providing various policies, it may not derive the expected benefits if its climate is unsupportive of policy usage by its employees.

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7

Leadership and Organizational Climate: Effects on Work–Life Integration

Introduction

A study of organizations in Nigeria (see Chapter 6), identified that the climate created by leaders rendered investments and expectations of work–life policies ineffective. This is because the climate created by the leadership behavior did not support policy use, resulting in high work–life conflict and low life satisfaction for employees. Hence, work–life integration is a joint effort between employees and organizations. Organizations make two valuable contributions to WLI management: setting up policies for achieving the integration, and enabling climate for the use of the policies. Work–life policies were handled in Chapter 6, while the current chapter discusses the climates created by organizational leaders and their effects on the use of work–life friendly policies.

It is an error of reification to attribute life to an organization. Thus, when we emphasize organizational climate, we refer to the atmosphere created by leaders which either hinders or enhances the use of policies and the willingness of employees to freely discuss WLI issues. For instance, if the created climate is toxic such that the career of those who seek and use the provided policies are negatively affected, such employees

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would quit using the policy and not be free to discuss WLI related issues with their leaders.

Studies have indicated that various leadership behaviors create different climates. Amah (2018a, b), Amah and Sese (2018), Dosunmu and Olusanya (2011), and Ismail et al. (2015) all linked organizational climate to leadership behavior. While leadership behavior is the noticeable physical characteristics, other unnoticed characteristics are the basis of these behaviors. Understanding and enhancing leadership behavior is therefore premised on these hidden characteristics, otherwise, any effect at changing leadership behavior may be unsuccessful. A leader may learn of a need to change his behavior, and may even do so temporarily, but without the proper motive and mindset, he would sooner relapse to the behavior originally supported by his motive and mindset. Also, the Emotional Intelligence (EI) of a leader is a major contributor to the quality of the relationship developed between him and the employees. The level of empathy and concern he shows is a function of the level of EI he possesses. For example, Mahon et al. (2014), Momeni (2009), and Ravichandran et al. (2011) have established that leaders' EI is a distal antecedent of employee behavior because it affects the climate they create. The EI of the leader creates a contagious emotional climate that is imbibed by employees resulting in their own EI (Owens et al. 2016).

The chapter reviews the different motives and mindsets leaders can have and identifies the behaviors associated with each. It discusses the effects of the climate created by the various leadership behaviors and concludes by discussing leaders' EI and how it can be enhanced.

Leadership Behavior and Organizational Climate

WLI gives rise to higher life satisfaction and enhanced mental well-being. While it is recognized that the responsibility of integrating work and life lies on employees, organizations must play a major part since employees spend most of their time working for the organization. Organizations play two major parts: they set up work–life policies that help employees achieve the desired integration, and they create positive work climates

that encourage policy usage by the employees. Twenty-first-century organizational challenges have led to a reduction in management levels. Hence, managers have higher spans of control with increased possibility for delegation of responsibilities. This calls for managers to structure work in ways that enhance employees' productivity. These activities have brought managers to the forefront of WLI management. Since employees spend a great deal of time in the organization and are expected to satisfy other life activities, the work structure created by leaders plays a major role in how they achieve WLI. Past studies have documented that employees have varying perceptions of the climate created by their leaders, and how it affects their desire to achieve WLI (Glassand and Finley 2002; Rozaini et al. 2015). Employees have also stated that their ability to achieve WLI depends on the type of treatment they get from leaders in their workplace (Glassand and Finley 2002).

An aspect of this treatment is the level of support offered by the organization. Organizational support is defined as employees' perception of how the organization values their contribution and ultimate well-being. The latter is demonstrated in the organizational support given to employees to achieve WLI (Riggle et al. 2009). Leaders are responsible for creating an environment that will enhance employees' perception of organizational support. This means that leaders must jointly pursue the achievement of organizational goals as well as the personal needs of employees. Organizational climate constitutes a major determinant of employees' variables (Mazerolle and Eason 2018). When viewed from the management perspective, organizational climate is a multifaceted construct that includes how favorably disposed leaders are to employees' attempt to achieve WLI. When employees perceive that work climate is family-friendly, they are motivated to pursue the achievement of WLI.

Climates found to support WLI include environments with high emotional intelligence and leader and coworker support characterized by empathy. Akanji et al. (2015) stated that organizations should create climates characterized by leadership support that encourage employees to use the provided family-friendly policies. Organizational climates that support work flexibility value family and the use of such policies encourage WLI (Lange 2017). Organizations and employees benefit from achieving WLI (Smith et al. 2016). Past studies have established

that leaders who believe that employees should work long hours and who do not use family-friendly policies will be unsupportive of WLI efforts by employees (Favero and Health 2012; Sonier 2012). The general measure of organizational climate relates positively to the quality of work–life and WLI (Buyukyilmaz and Ercan 2016; Kitraptporn and Puncreobutr 2016).

Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Climate

The EI of leaders affects WLI through the climate they create and its effects on the EI of employees. Past writers have stipulated that high EI helps in the development of positive WLI (Goleman and Davidson 2017). For instance, having a good relationship can enhance a positive approach to challenges at work. Emotions are an inseparable part of what an individual brings into all the domains of life. Hence, emotions will invariably affect the personal and organizational effectiveness of individuals. Emotional intelligence is a set of soft skills that help individuals manage their emotions and those of others to achieve personal and organizational effectiveness. It was initially introduced by Slovey and Meyer (1990) and received prominence after the Goleman (1998) publication on why EI may be more important than intelligence quotient in driving efficiency in the twenty-first century. EI is the ability to perceive, analyze, regulate, and manage one's emotions and those of others, to promote emotional and intellectual stability and growth (Bradberry and Greaves 2009).

EI has four competencies (Bradberry and Greaves 2009; Goleman 1998), namely: self-awareness (the ability to perceive personal emotion and tendencies), self-management (the ability to use self-awareness to regulate behavior), social awareness (the ability to pick up the emotions of others and understand what is happening through interaction), and relationship management (the ability to manage social interactions using the information gathered from social awareness). Emotional intelligence affects the evaluation of employees' behavior and leadership style. It helps in the understanding of one's behavior and those of others and can

be used to regulate personal behavior and manage relationships during interaction. Hence, it has been advocated that the various components of EI affect the ability of employees to manage WLI.

Past studies have linked leaders' and employees' EI to important work variables including WLI (Bina and John 2014; Koubova and Buchko 2015; Sakalle et al. 2017; Sharma 2014). This is not surprising since globalization and its associated information overload have become issues as employees face high workloads and struggle to integrate work and life domains which have become undifferentiated due to technology. Hence, how employees handle themselves and how they relate to their leaders have become major contributors to achieving WLI (Shylaja and Prasad 2017).

Emotional intelligence helps employees cope with stress resulting from involvement in work and prevents the stress from being transferred to other domains of life. Shylaja and Prasad (2017) found out that EI significantly affects an individual's involvement in life domains and is necessary for maintaining effectiveness in the work and life domains. Sharma (2014) found out that high WLI is associated with high levels of EI. Gupta (2016) found a negative relationship between EI and work–life conflict, and a positive relationship between EI and quality of work–life (QWL). Quality of work life is defined as the "degree to which a work can meet the overall needs of employees" (p. 3). Applewhite (2017) found that EI positively affects WLI. Needs must therefore be met in all domains of life.

According to Angel and Krishnapriya (2018, p. 104), the ability of employees to achieve WLI is affected by "nature of work, workplace and working conditions, workload, flexibility and number of hours worked, and availability of WLI support structures." Both employees and organizations have roles in raising positive factors and reducing negative ones. For instance, work is allocated by leaders, it is, therefore, their duty to ensure that employees do not work long hours which can erode their ability to achieve WLI. In the same way, only emotionally intelligent leaders can design work processes that offer employees the needed flexibility for work and life integration.

Organizations are not only required to encourage WLI but also to demand compliance through the climate and policies they set up. Thus,

having the policies in place is necessary, but ensuring the use thereof, and that non-users are disciplined is sufficient (Gupta 2016). Organizations must therefore set up climates that encourage policy usage, and sanction those who deliberately avoid them.

The level of EI is known to be the strongest driver of leadership and personal effectiveness (Bradberry and Greaves 2009; Goleman 2005); it creates a positive or negative climate where people can feel engaged or disengaged (Goleman 2005; Goleman et al. 2002; Frost 2003; Mahon et al. 2014), and in a highly interdependent environment, it is necessary for social interactions. EI is known to correlate with organizational climate (Mahon et al. 2014). Studies have also found that EI moderates the relationship between organizational climate factors and employee engagement (Mahon et al. 2014). The positive attributes of emotionally intelligent leaders allow the creation of climates that enables employees to speak out against treatments that hinder their efforts at WLI.

Enhancing Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is not hereditary. It can be learned and enhanced through various ways including:

Reading books: Many books have been written on EI and how to improve it. These books provide knowledge and practical experience on EI.

Engaging a mentor: an individual can facilitate a meeting where the mentor observes how he handles his emotion and that of others. The mentor can then provide feedback which will help the individual in reflecting on his emotion. Some organizations make it a policy that at each meeting, those in attendance must provide feedback to the facilitator on their behaviors during the meeting.

Reflecting on specific developmental situations which may affect one's emotions: Environmental development has a way of shaping behavior. For instance, there are indications that when a child grows up in an environment of spousal abuse, the child grows up with the belief that domestic violence is acceptable. Thus, the future spousal relationship of

that child may be affected unless the child is counseled and made to see the environment as abnormal.

Working on one's thought process: thought process has a way of directing behavior. Army (2016) asserts that a person's thought influences their feelings and behavior. In social psychology, schema includes the information we have about someone, and attitude includes whether we like the person or not. The schema and attitude of a person make us quickly decide how to label the person without much thought on if the person is who we feel he/she is. Hence, in social relationships, schema and attitude are particularly important to how we process information and react to situations. An exercise in developing EI aims at moderating thoughts and feelings about people to improve social relationships. A lesson from this exercise is that the words we think, and voice out have a great influence on how we react to people and situations.

In extreme cases, seeking the help of a psychotherapist: The amygdala is the part of the brain that seats emotions. It is responsible for the reaction to emotion without deep thought. When a person loses consciousness of his emotion and reacts based on directives from the amygdala, he may become a slave to his emotions. In this situation, the individual may need the help of a psychotherapist.

Pattern analysis: Here, the individual keeps records of all emotions exhibited in two weeks to identify a pattern that can be analyzed to improve EI. The following steps are taken:

- Keep a log of all the emotions you express daily for about two weeks
- For each emotion, record the following
- Situation of occurrence
- Location of occurrence
- What you were doing
- Who was with you?
- Time of occurrence
- Notice the pattern, and use it to locate the origin of the emotions recorded.

The fact that a pattern indicates the source of the emotional reaction does not mean that the individual is not responsible for the action. Individuals

must be honest, seek advice, and take effective action that will resolve any breakdown in the relationship. Below is a typical example of a pattern analysis obtained in an intervention by one of the authors:

- Emotion: Anger and self-pity
- Situation: Whenever he attends a meeting without preparation because of short notice
- Who was involved: The same individual who makes the schedule?
- When and Where: Whenever the meeting involves top team managers
- Time: Any time.

The above represents the pattern discovered after two weeks of observing emotions by an individual. The organization required every project developer to carry out a peer review process involving his/her peers and top leaders before any project was approved. The pattern analysis was therefore captured during the peer review processes. In the first review, the project owner gave the participants a long time to review the project before the meeting. The client utilized that period to identify all that was wrong with the project and presented them in a way that made the project owner feel bad. Thus, the reaction of the project owner in subsequent peer reviews was to give short notices for the meetings such that the client had little time to read and effectively critique the work. The client felt it was the project owner's fault. On further investigation, however, the author found that the client's intentions were wrong, and the project owner had perceived them as such and decided to protect himself by giving the client very little notice before the review. On the author's advice, the client engaged the source and they openly discussed and resolved the issue. The client eventually became a mentor to the project owner.

The Understanding of Leadership or Motive for Leadership

So far in this chapter, it has been argued that leadership behavior is important in creating a climate that affects WLI management. Thus, drivers of leadership behavior is the subject of this section. A relationship exists among leadership behavior, motives for leadership, and leadership mindset. Mathematically, it can be stated that leadership behavior is a function of the last two variables. Leadership behavior is the characteristic of leaders that we see and observe. To properly understand and instruct people on leadership behaviors that enhance employees' WLI through positive climates, there is the need to understand and articulate the drivers of such behaviors. Attempting to change leadership behavior without changing the drivers amounts to changing the surface aspects of culture without considering the underlying factors. Unfortunately, the drivers of leadership behavior, like the drivers of culture, are sometimes unconscious that people forget that they are being influenced by hidden factors. The relationship among leadership behavior, motives of leadership, and leadership mindset is best described by the diagram in Fig. 7.1.

Figure 7.1 indicates that the drivers of leadership behavior (which is popularly known about leadership in organizations), which are understanding of leadership and leadership mindset are hidden. Effective leadership trainings must therefore incorporate these to derive enduring benefits. Hence, the purpose of all leadership trainings is to make the learners understand the various leadership behaviors, and what drives the behaviors. Thus, bringing the types of leadership behaviors and their effects on organizational climates to the consciousness of leaders without exposing the drivers thereof will not yield the desired results.

Understanding leadership behavior must be viewed from a system perspective like every other organizational behavior. It is only when the various components are understood and analyzed that the behavior will be understood and changed. Understanding of leadership and leadership mindset are inputs in the system, organizational leadership culture provides the process which transforms the inputs into leadership behavior which is the output. Unless the inputs are effective, the

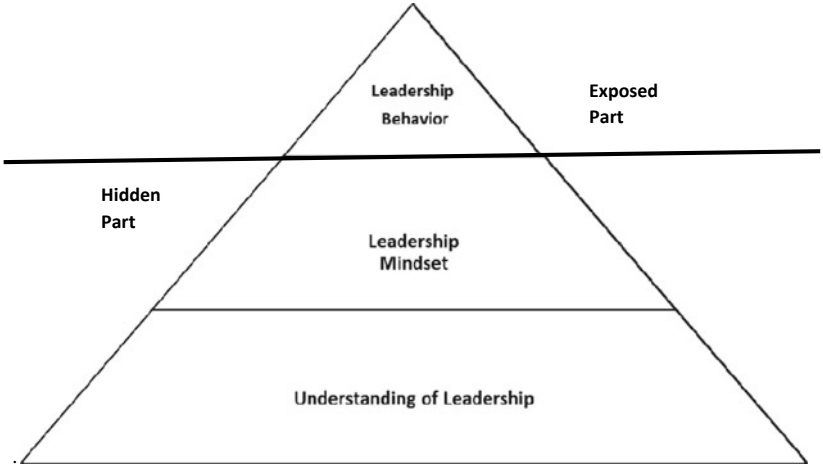

Fig. 7.1 Iceberg reflection of the relationship among leadership behavior, mindset, and understanding of leadership (*Source* Author)

output will be defective. Thus, changing only behavior without the hidden portions (mindset and understanding) will yield no positive value. This is the reason most leadership trainings fail to produce lasting results. Individuals are fascinated by new behaviors, but since the drivers are defective, they soon revert to the behavior driven by their mindset and understanding of leadership. Effective change comes by ensuring that understanding of leadership and leadership mindset is aligned with the expected leadership behavior. Only then can behavioral change be effective.

Understanding of Leadership

> *"Please do not be a leader, unless you are doing it for the right reason"*. (Lencioni 2020, p. ix)

Patrick Lencioni is a prolific writer on leadership. He gave the above advice in his latest book on leadership. Leadership motive is particularly important in achieving effectiveness in leadership. Leadership can be understood (motive) in two ways. Leadership can either be understood as a means of acquiring status or a means to serve. When leadership is understood as a means to acquire status, the leader is only in for the derivable benefits, i.e., he is internally focused, and every action is directed at achieving maximum benefits. A leader with this understanding is in leadership for what he can get out of it. His actions are internally focused; his followers are slaves who exist only to do what he wants and must tremble at his presence. More so, decisions are made to align with achieving what is essential to him.

Leadership can also be understood as a process or means to serve. This understanding is externally focused, and its purpose is to serve followers so that they can develop to the level they aspire. The leader exists to ensure that the follower becomes the best version of himself; recognizing and accepting that leaders and followers are in a collaborative environment that becomes efficient with trust and empathy. Such a leader has an overarching purpose of developing the human capacity of the organization to achieve the present and future productivity of the organization. Because these leaders aim for the long-term survival of their organizations, they create positive environments that enable their employees to develop the capacity to sustain the short and long-term plans of the organization. These leaders realize that they need their followers to drive sustainable development and would thus do everything within their power to develop their organization's human capacity. Such leaders will not sacrifice employees for numbers since they believe that organizational productivity is driven by employees whom the numbers represent. Because they care for people, they build trust and collaboration between them and their followers. It is obvious that only when leadership is viewed from this angle will a positive work environment that can enhance employees' productivity be created. An understanding of leadership drives the development of leadership mindset which is discussed next.

Leadership Mindset

An understanding of leadership drives the leadership mindset, which in turn drives leadership behavior (see Fig. 7.1). Leadership mindset represents what a leader intends to do as a leader. The first categorization of leadership mindset was developed by The Arbinger Institute (2016). Following this categorization, leadership mindset can be internal or external. Leaders who understand leadership as a means of acquiring status will subscribe to the internal mindset. Internal mindset views power and status as a right that is demanded and not earned. This mindset seeks to lord it over followers and cares nothing about their feelings. The leader who understands leadership as a means to serve, however, subscribes to the external mindset. His interest is not on himself but his followers. In the external mindset, leadership is earned by how the leader relates and enables his followers to be the best aspects of themselves. Such a leader believes that followers are at their best when they are enabled to be part of the big picture. The table below captures the essence and attitude of internal and external mindset leaders. As observed in the table, only leaders with an external mindset can create positive work climates for employees to thrive (Table 7.1).

Dweck (2006) categorized leadership mindset based on dynamism. In this category, leadership mindset can either be fixed or growth. Fixed mindset arises from understanding leadership as a status. Here, the leader resists change especially when such change does not come from him or threatens his power base. Changes are allowed if they come from him to

Table 7.1 Consequences of the internal and external mindset

Internal mindset	External mindset
Narrow-minded possibilities	Considers wide and better possibilities
Operates only within the narrow self-interest	Sees beyond self and operates outside the narrow self-interest
Has a low opinion of others	View others positively
Has low emotional intelligence	Has high emotional intelligence
Sees others as objects to be used and dumped when not required	See others as human beings to be developed and appreciated

Source Author

fully reinforce his belief of having sole custody of the means of development. In the growth mindset, the leader allows change either from followers or from self. The leader's interest is not in who designs the change but that the change, when implemented, will lead to the development of the common goal. Such a leader assumes that innovative and creative ideas are not limited to any set of people but are widely distributed in the organization. The work of the leader is to lead in such a way that people seek positive behaviors and enact them for the common good. Amah (2019) developed a typology that contains the two ways of categorizing mindset shown in Fig. 5.8.

Figure 7.2 demonstrates the four types of leaders in any organization. Below is the description of each leadership behavior, and Fig. 7.3 demon-

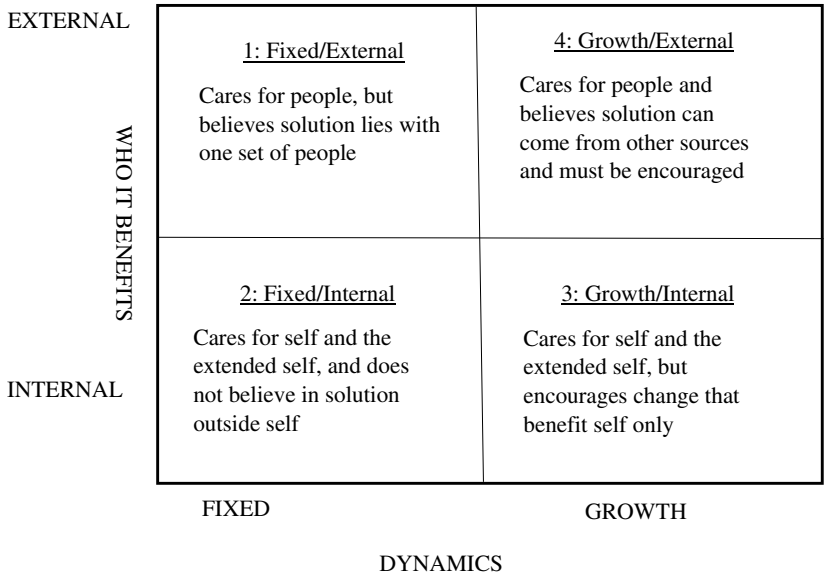

Fig. 7.2 Typology of leadership mindset (*Source* Amah 2019, p. 58)

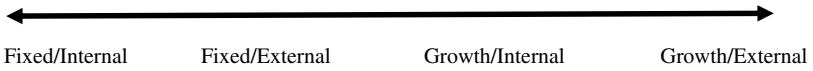

Fig. 7.3 Continuum of leadership behaviors (*Source* Author)

strates that these types can be placed in a continuum. Leaders are rarely on the extremes of the continuum but placed in certain locations in the continuum. The closer the leader is to the right of the continuum, the better the style.

Fixed/External

Because of the external mindset, the leader cares about people. However, the fixed mindset means that such care comes with a price. The followers being cared for must therefore be willing to subscribe only to what the leader wants since the fixed nature only allows changes from him alone or only changes that will drive his agenda. This type of leader easily creates in-group and out-group followers based on employees' willingness to rigidly follow his bidding. In-group members are favorably treated and giving resources since they follow the leader's bidding. This type of leader may not be able to create a positive climate that values employees' ability to manage WLI. If positive climates are created, they are usually for select people in the in-group category.

Fixed/Internal

This is the worse form of leadership because the actions of such leaders are directed at pleasing themselves and providing what is valuable to them only. Followers are tools for obtaining whatever the leader wants. Investment in or care of employees are only to the extent perceived to be useful and are "discarded" when the leader perceives them as useless. The leader takes most of the decisions because he believes that change can only come from him. The climate created by such a leader is the type that will force employees to act in line with what he wants. Employees cannot make decisions because the information for decision-making lies only in the hand of the leader.

Growth/Internal

This is a mirror image of the fixed/external mindset. However, this type of leader allows changes from the employees, but only what he desires, or what will help consolidate his position. This style and the fixed/external mindsets are most deceptive since such leaders give the impression that they care for employees, but only for exploitation. The leaders use their leadership to acquire and perpetuate power and position, and the climate created by them is always toxic and will not enable employees to express themselves and work toward managing WLI.

Growth/External

This type of leader genuinely cares for people and always pursues what will be to their advantage. He believes that people will make meaningful contributions to goals if a favorable climate is created. He values employees' contribution to decision-making and listens to them when they have suggestions. This leader is open to changes advanced by employees, provided the aim is to advance employee well-being and organizational productivity. The leader serves by creating a positive work climate that enhances employee productivity and WLI management. Every decision is always from the angle of developing employees because the leader believes that employees will willingly be part of the organizational goal if treated well. This is the type of leadership that can utilize the situational leadership style (Thompson and Glasø 2015). For instance, when such a leader enacts a directing behavior, it is for the purpose of closely coaching and developing those employees with low levels of development. The leader will then gradually ease to a delegating and empowering behavior when the employee fully develops.

Conclusion

The chapter establishes that leadership behavior creates climates that encourage the establishment of family-friendly policies and influences employees' usage of the provided policies. Unfortunately, the development of leadership behavior has always been pursued without understanding the motive and mindset of the leader. Thus, incorporating leadership motive and mindset has become an important aspect of leadership development. The study of organizations in Lagos, Nigeria (see Chapter 6) clearly shows that some organizations spend huge resources establishing family-friendly policies which are unused by employees due to the unfavorable work climate created by the leaders. Two such climates identified are climates that put the careers of the users in jeopardy and are unsupportive of users' efforts at managing WLI. The result of such a climate is that employees have high work–life conflict and low life satisfaction, even in the presence of the policies set up to help manage the demands of work and life. The role of emotional intelligence (EI) was also reviewed as a source for achieving WLI. Employees' EI level affects their WLI and well-being, and leaders' EI induces a climate that enhances employees' EI and contributes to the creation of a WLI-favorable work climate. Suggestions were made on how EI can be enhanced since it is not hereditary.

Leadership behavior was said to be driven by the understanding of leadership/motive for leadership and leadership mindset. A proper understanding of leadership behavior and how it can be enhanced depends on the understanding of these two variables. Four types of leadership mindsets arising from two leadership motives were discussed. These types fall in a continuum from fixed/internal to growth/external. It was established that the growth/external leadership mindset is based on leaders' motive to serve and is the only mindset capable of consistently creating the positive work climate required to support employees in achieving WLI since it arises from the motive to serve employees to be the best of what they can be.

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8

Understanding and Evaluation of Self: Role in Work–Life Integration

Introduction

The entire book advocates a multidimensional approach to achieving WLI which involves the society, organization, the individual, and the context of the individual. This chapter therefore dedicates to exploring how personality traits and specific behaviors influence the achievement of work–life integration. It is not to indict any personality type or trait, but to highlight the tendencies of some personality traits which can influence effective work–life integration, a requirement for the proper functioning of people. Personality is the totality of an individual's "natural, and acquired impulses, habits, interests, sentiments and beliefs" (McKenna 2006, p. 200), that the individual projects to the outside world. It is assumed in this book that personality has both hereditary and environmentally determined components (Caspi et al. 2003; Bayley 1970). Personality is known to predict effectiveness in decision-making and other behaviors in a variety of situations (Caspi et al. 2003). Consequently, this chapter argues that since the achievement of WLI depends on behaviors adopted and enacted by individuals, personality is likely to be a contributor to effectiveness in achieving WLI.

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Though the role employers play in facilitating WLI achievement is recognized and advocated, employees have preferences in how they define balance and the path to achieving such. These preferences are linked to personality differences that affect behaviors allowed and rejected by the individuals. Hence, Crosbie and Moore (2004) identified demands from work, personality, and the understanding of what constitutes balance as three issues that drive the inability of individuals to effectively integrate work and life roles. For instance, if balance is understood to mean equal allocation of time and other resources to work and life roles, then the behaviors allowed in integrating the roles will differ from when balance is understood to mean effectiveness in both domains. The former definition discourages tradeoffs while the latter allows it.

Unfortunately, despite the large number of studies on WLI, only a few incorporated the role of personality (Eby et al. 2005). The effect of personality on work–life integration arises from individuals' preferences of work and life, perception of events in the work and nonwork domains, and the behaviors engaged by such individuals in managing the integration. For example, negative and positive affect personality types affect how individuals interpret stressful situations including work–life conflict, and this will invariably affect the coping behaviors allowed by the individual (Carlson 1999; Michel and Clark 2009; Stoeva et al. 2002). Individuals with high negative affect experience more stress than individuals with high positive affect (Judge et al. 1999; Kinnunen et al. 2003). Personality affects how individuals perceive the role of work and life in the entire life success spectrum, as well as the behavior enacted to either help or hinder WLI achievement. For example, Barrick and Mount (1991) and Wayne et al. (2004) found that certain individuals with conscientious personalities were able to manage work–life integration effectively. Work–life integration involves the management of behaviors of humans as they integrate work and life responsibilities, and personality has a major influence on the behaviors allowed or rejected in managing the integration (Viswesvaran et al. 2007; Zimmerman 2008).

Prior to discussing individual differences that affect WLI management, Self-Care behaviors are discussed. These behaviors make the management of personal and professional lives quite easy. For example, exercising keeps the physical body healthy and eliminates the negative

effects of stress. The authors, therefore, subscribe to the postulation that Self-Care behaviors have a direct effect on the work–nonwork interface and can moderate the relationship between individual differences and stress and work–life integration. This agrees with the work of Moazami-Goodarzi et al. (2015) which demonstrated that personality influences behaviors, feelings, and perceptions, consequently influencing the work–life interface. Hence, in analyzing the outcomes of personality in WLI management, the effects of personality traits, core-self evaluations, individuals as segregators and integrators, and Self-Care behaviors are considered (Cunningham and De La Rosa 2008; Noor 2002; Rotter 1966).

Self-Care Behaviors

Work–life integration involves reducing conflict and increasing facilitation, and certain studies have found a direct relationship among individual differences, work–life conflict, and work–life facilitation (Greenhaus and Parasuraman 1999; Michel and Clark 2013; Moazami-Goodarzi et al. 2015; Pandey and Shukla 2018). However, only a small variance in the variables was explained by this direct relationship. For instance, the Big-five personality traits accounted for moderate variance of .15 and .18 for conflict and facilitation respectively (Michel et al. 2011). The study by Judge et al. (2016) which placed Self-Care behaviors as moderators of the relationship between individual difference and the work–nonwork interface explained more variance. Hence, the authors believe that a better model explaining the role of individual differences in the management of the work–life interface and work–life integration is in Fig. 8.1.

Self-Care behaviors aim at making people healthy by "dealing appropriately with job demands and fostering healthy conditions" (Franke et al. 2014, p. 142). They are a group of behaviors which have negative relationship with work–life conflict, build well-being and help in achieving WLI. Examples include eating right and exercising regularly to keep the body in shape. In professional life, examples include prioritizing/planning work assignments and taking regular breaks at work.

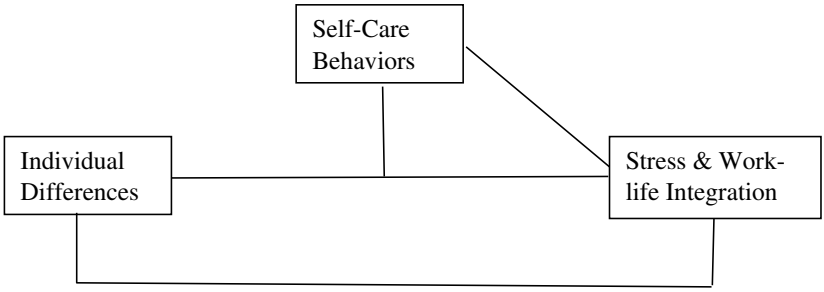

Fig. 8.1 Proposed model for the relationship between individual difference, stress, and work–life integration (*Source* Author)

These behaviors are multidimensional and have many facets (Godfrey et al. 2011); they are known to affect well-being, relieve the stress associated with multiple role involvement, and aid the achievement of balance in both professional and personal lives (Coster and Schwebel 1997; Goncher et al. 2013; Rupert and Kent 2007; Rupert et al. 2012). Since they are multifaceted, no single Self-Care behavior can reduce all the stress associated with multiple role involvement, hence, they must be combined with others to achieve WLI.

The concept of Self-Care is based on the premise that people are aware of the importance of their personal and professional lives, that they value good health and effectiveness in both lives and would act in positive ways to enhance overall well-being from both lives. When considered in WLI management, it implies that individuals who are aware of and value the effects of work–life integration on their health and well-being would act in positive ways to enhance both using Self-Care behaviors. Self-Care has been conceptualized using many typologies (Baker 2003; Collins 2005; Gantz 1990; Lee and Miller 2013; Myers et al. 2012). However, Norcross and Guy (2007) identified Self-Care behaviors as taking care of the physical body, building, and cultivating supportive relationships in and outside the work domain, psychologically or actually (unintentionally or intentionally) setting boundaries between the work and nonwork domains, restructuring maladaptive cognition, and creating a flourishing work environment. Personal Self-Care behaviors occur outside the work domain and they involve behaviors that foster

well-being through care of the physical body, such as eating healthy foods, keeping healthy relationships, and other behaviors. Professional Self-Care behaviors ensure balance and effectiveness in professional roles. These behaviors include taking regular breaks during work hours, and maintaining regular contacts with colleagues, prioritizing, planning, and other behaviors. Those who achieve work–life integration foster balance in their personal and professional lives through the adoption of Self-Care behaviors in both lives (Lee and Miller 2013). Self-Care behaviors have also been classified into four broad groups: interpersonal behaviors, intrapersonal support, personal development and support, and physical recreational activities. These behaviors are aimed at maintaining a balance between personal and professional lives to promote physical, mental, and spiritual well-being (Baker 2003). Thus, Self-Care behaviors are ultimately aimed at creating a balance in all aspects of a person's life (personal and professional). Core self-evaluation (an individual difference variable) directly affects the use of Self-Care behaviors (conceptualized as the willingness & ability to manage work–life integration). Core self-evaluation (CSE) is positively related to Self-Care behaviors and negatively related to exhaustion (Koppe and Schutz 2019). This result shows that Self-Care behaviors are major tools in WLI achievement and that individual differences affect the willingness and ability of people to enact Self-Care behaviors. The next section discusses the various individual differences that affect the use of Self-Care behaviors and their roles in the management of WLI.

Influence of Individual Differences on Work–Life Integration

Segregators, Integrators, and Work–Life Integration

Segmentation and integration theory of work–nonwork interface can give rise to two sets of individuals depending on how intentionally or unintentionally they segregate or integrate the work and nonwork domains (Edwards and Rothbard 2000). While reviewing how individuals approach WLI management, Nippert-Eng (1996) identified two

types of individual behaviors labeled as segregators and integrators. The author found that 69% of the people studied were integrators. Segregators (either intentionally or unintentionally) draw a clear mental line of segregation between the work and nonwork domains. They act as though the line physically exists and thus shut off all work-related activities when they are out of the work domain and in other nonwork domains. For example, segregators will not take work assignments home, and if they do, would not work on them, with the rationale that the work and nonwork domains are different and have different role responsibilities. Segregators work long hours far beyond the 40-hour week and still achieve balance because they shut off all work activities when they are not at work. In a COVID-19 environment where employees work from home with a blurred interface between the work and nonwork domains, segregators will be able to mentally shut off, thereby achieving balance.

Integrators struggle to separate their work and nonwork lives. They tend to remain active with work even when they are outside the work domain. They either work on the activities or think about the activities while in a nonwork domain. Even if integrators work the normal 40-hour week, they will still struggle with achieving work–life integration because they tend to work at home or mentally connect to activities in the work domain while in the nonwork domain. Technology that enhances involvement in work activities outside the work domain makes the situation even worse. For example, integrators will attend to emails even when the mails are not urgent and can be postponed to a normal working day. Crosbie and Moore (2004) studied how working from home enhances WLI management, the results were however inconclusive. The authors concluded that some of those studies developed Self-Care behaviors which helped them to achieve integration, while others did not. Segregators were found to develop Self-Care behaviors more easily than integrators because the former could form a psychological detachment while the latter could not because of actual psychological involvement in work activities. The authors, therefore, concluded that those who would gain the benefit of working from home must consider their "personality, skills and aspirations" (p. 230).

Segregators have high psychological detachment from work while at home, while integrators have low psychological detachment because they

are mentally involved with work while at home (Sonnentag and Fritz 2007). The Effort-recovery model (Meijman and Mulder 1998) stipulates that efforts at work lead to fatigue and psychological activation, and that to reduce these negative consequences and attain recovery, the individual must be physically out of and psychologically detached from the work domain to avoid the continuous drain of personal resources. Psychological detachment at work is the "individuals' sense of being away from work activities" (Hartig et al. 2007, p. 579). Taking work home and working on or thinking about it while at home does not enable psychological detachment and will lead to poor WLI management because of poor recovery.

Those who struggle with achieving work–life integration despite the provisions made by their employers are always integrators. Sonnentag and Fritz (2007) recommended that such individuals must create detachments by stopping work while outside the work environment and avoid thinking of work while in other domains of life. One way to achieve this is through the Self-Care behavior of developing a to-do list which allocates appropriate time to both personal and professional activities and to ensure that the list is followed religiously. From the study of Bock (2014), Google helps integrators achieve psychological detachment by ensuring they do not take gadgets that would link them to work activities at home. The company also offers what is called an "Inbox purse" which does not allow emails on certain times and days. When assignments are planned and spread across dates, individuals can avoid the "rehearsal loop" which occurs when individuals are mentally involved in work activities while in nonwork domains.

Segregators achieve psychological detachment but run the risk of working long hours which may infringe on other nonwork activities unless they plan their activities. Integrators may work normal hours per week, but they run the risk of extending working hours per week because of involvement in an activity at home or the inability to psychologically detach from work activities while at home. Thus, both segregators and integrators have disturbing tendencies that individuals must recognize and work on with the support of their organizations to ensure minimization of negative tendencies while taking advantage of the positive ones. Insisting on being an integrator, for example, will make it difficult for

an individual to achieve WLI regardless of the level of support obtained from the organization. Bock (2014) recommended that employees must empty their thoughts on work activities before leaving the work domain to avoid the "rehearsal loop" associated with storing work activities in the brain.

Big-Five Personality Traits and Work–Life Integration

Differences in human behavior in the work and nonwork domains are accounted for by differences in "personality, attitudes, intelligence, perceptions, motivations, and ability" (Wickkramaaratchi and Perera 2016, pp. 53–56). Personality is the "individual pattern of psychological processes arising from individual characteristics" (Muindi 2016, p. 3). Personality is instrumental to the perception of the environment and this affects how the perceiver reacts to the environment (Kohler and Mathieu 1993), the centrality of work and nonwork roles, and how the roles are executed (Pandey and Shukla 2018). These perceptions have consequences on behavior and important work and nonwork outcomes (Allemand et al. 2008; Bacon et al. 2005; Klimstra et al. 2009; Muindi 2016). It has also been discussed that personality plays a significant role in an individual's ability to perceive and manage work–life integration (Lin 2013; Malekiha et al. 2012).

The Big-Five personality traits have been studied in the management of the work–nonwork interface (Lin 2013). The traits discussed are extraversion, neuroticism, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness to experience (Wickramaaratchi and Perera 2016). Individuals with extraversion personality have the "tendency to be sociable, dominant, and have positive emotionality" (Michel et al. 2011, p. 193). Extraverts have positive emotions and would seek solutions proactively to manage the demands placed on them. Such solutions will enable them to develop personal and professional Self-Care behaviors which would help them to effectively manage work and nonwork demands. Individuals high in extraversion and positive emotionality would seek out proactive solutions in managing competing demands from various roles. Studies have shown

that extroverted individuals have high life satisfaction and seek and acquire resources for enhancing well-being (Cohn et al. 2009; Michel et al. 2011). Extraversion is linked to improved well-being which is a sign of achieving work–life integration (Diener and Lucas 1999; McCrae and John 1992).

Conscientious individuals are high in achievement, dependable, and organized (Michel et al. 2011). They are proactive planners and being organized, save resources for use in other domains. They pre-plan their strategies and develop coping mechanisms that may involve Self-Care behaviors such as seeking support and restructuring coping behaviors (Connor-Smith and Flachsbart 2007). Because they are organized, plan carefully, seek support when needed, and are good at managing time (Barrick and Mount 2001; Judge and Higgins 1999), conscientious individuals are effective in managing the work–nonwork interface to achieve work–life integration. Individuals high in agreeableness are "cooperative, compliant, trusting, kind, and warm" (Michel and Clark 2011, p. 193). Because of these qualities, they easily build support that can be used in situations of low internal resources. Such individuals are willing to adopt any Self-Care behavior such as support-seeking behaviors and utilize their numerous external contacts to handle demands arising from the work and nonwork domains (Connor-Smith and Flachsbart 2007). The agreeable personality trait is positively related to positive work–nonwork interface and negatively related to negative work–nonwork interface because such individuals experience success at work and receive support from other workers in their numerous networks (Zellers and Perrewé 2001; McCrae and John 1992).

Neuroticism is associated with high emotional instability, anxiety, and depression (Judge and Ilies 2002). Neuroticism has been linked to negative outcomes owing to poor emotional adjustment (Michel et al. 2011). This personality trait is associated with withdrawal behaviors and inability to develop solutions to the demands from the work and nonwork domains. Withdrawal behavior is not an aspect of Self-Care behavior hence, individuals high in neuroticism will find few solutions to handling work–nonwork challenges. Applying the Broaden-and-Build theory, those high in neuroticism cannot enlarge the stock of cognitive resources needed to function in a challenging environment

(Watson and Pennebaker 1989). However, they have a high response to negative stimuli and since they do not have stored resources to handle and build coping mechanisms, they are affected by such stressful environments (Zellers and Perrewé 2001). Neuroticism is associated with high stress and increased conflict, which consequently affect WLI management (Devadoss and Minnie 2013). Individuals with the openness to experience are creative, willing to consider various options, sometimes go outside the conventional box to find solutions, and can transfer skills from one domain to the other (Devadoss and Minnie 2013; McCrae 1996). They consider wider perspectives and utilize more creative solutions in handling challenges. Individuals high in openness are associated with problem-solving coping mechanisms and consider stressful situations as challenging rather than a hindrance (Connor-Smith and Flachsbart 2007). The understanding of stress from a challenging or opportunity perspective will open such individuals to proactively seek Self-Care behaviors that would help them manage the stressful environment. Openness to experience is positively related to positive work–nonwork interface and negatively related to negative work–nonwork interface, which enhances the management of work–life integration (Michel et al. 2011). Composite Big-Five personality traits have also been found to positively affect work–life integration through a reduction in conflict and an increase in facilitation (Wickramaaratchi and Perera 2016).

The discussions above indicate that having four of the Big-Five personality traits will enhance WLI management through a positive relationship with positive work–life interface and reduction of conflict in the interface. Neuroticism has opposite relationships and makes work–life integration difficult. Whatever the level of support received from an organization and other WLI components, an individual's personality can make effective coordination of available resources difficult or otherwise. The first step in managing the situation, however, is in understanding one's tendencies and working to minimize their effects.

Core Self-Evaluation and Work–Life Integration

Core self-evaluation reflects the "fundamental assessments that people make about their worthiness, competence, and capabilities" (Judge et al. 2005, p. 257). It accounts for how individuals care for themselves including their health (Lanaj et al. 2012; Schütz 2001; Selecka and Vaclavikova 2017). The construct has four separate variables that capture individuals' self-worth. These variables include self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, and neuroticism. Self-esteem is the value an individual places on himself/herself implied in words such as by being "capable, significant, successful, and worthy" (Coopersmith 1967, pp. 4–5). Those with high self-esteem believe in themselves and are positive about themselves.

Self-efficacy indicates the belief of individuals on how well they can handle life challenges. There are two components namely, specific self-efficacy, which is the perception of being able to handle challenges in particular situations and areas of life, and general self-efficacy, which is the perception of being able to handle challenges across various situations and areas of life. Neuroticism is the inclination to have a negative outlook on life and to emphasize only negative outlooks on issues. Locus of control is an individual's belief of what causes events in their lives and situations. Those with internal locus of control believe they have control and can handle any event in their lives. External locus of control is the belief that external factors are responsible for events in one's life, and that the individual can do nothing about these factors. For example, a person with external locus of control will accept that work–life conflict is the outcome of factors external to him and for which he can do nothing about. A person with internal locus of control will see the conflict as a result of actions taken by him and which he can remedy through other actions. External locus does not believe that achieving work–life integration is possible, while internal believes it is and will do something to achieve it.

Studies that explore the relationship between CSE and work–life interface are scarce, and available studies handled only some of the

components of CSE (Pandey and Shukla 2018). A significant relationship has been found between neuroticism and work–life facilitation (Michel and Clark 2013; Rantanen et al. 2013). Individuals with high CSE are known to have high coping skills in the face of stress, and this enhances work–life facilitation. Positive self-evaluation is a resource based on the resource-demand model of stress that will help minimize the effects of stress in the work–life interface. High CSE predisposes individuals to accept new challenges and enhances their abilities to solve different tasks through an internal desire to acquire new skills that can enhance their problem-solving skills (Judge et al. 2016). The composite form of CSE has been established to affect work–life facilitation through distributive justice (Pandey and Shukla 2018). This study is a pointer to the role that the organizational environment plays in the effectiveness of CSE on the work–nonwork interface (Moazami-Goodarzi et al. 2015). CSE is linked to individuals' motivation to be involved in multiple work and nonwork activities including the desire to manage work–life integration. Individuals with high CSE have high life satisfaction, attain challenging goals, and can achieve important goals in life. Since they have a high evaluation of their ability to face life challenges, they will likely persist in the face of daunting tasks such as managing work–life integration. Such individuals have a high expectancy that their efforts will achieve the desired goals, have fewer career plateaus, and report less stress (Judge et al. 1997, 2002). Individuals with high CSE can deal with social stressors, emotional exhaustion (Best et al. 2005; Boyar and Mosley 2007), and have less intention to give up on their preferred pursuit (Boyar and Mosley 2007). In a high organizational support environment, those with high CSE can elicit positive behaviors which help to reduce the negative effects of stress in the work–nonwork interface. High CSE individuals are more motivated in their jobs and more motivated to conquer their environment to enhance performance in the work and nonwork domains and are resilient in various life challenges (Bono and Judge 2003; Judge 2009). People with high CSE have a high ability to cope with external demands, have positive emotions (Scott and Judge 2009), and foster self-regulation that aids functioning in diverse levels of stressful environments (Judge and Bono 2001).

A pointer to how CSE can affect how individuals pursue and succeed in managing work–life integration is offered by the self-determination theory (SDT). The theory postulates that when individuals determine a goal to pursue, there is a high probability of pursuing such goals because they find them interesting and they have a high internal motivation to pursue the goals (Sheldon and Elliot 1999). SDT provides a link between personality, human motivation, and optimal functioning. Internal human motivations are powerful in shaping who we are and how we behave (Deci and Ryan 2012). It states that individuals have internal motivation which drives how they react to situations in their social environment. The internalization of the motivation needed to handle situations is enhanced by CSE. For example, those with high CSE believe in their abilities to successfully face life situations, hence they will proactively seek and acquire the skills needed to understand and manage their environments. Thus, when those high in CSE desire WLI achievement as an overarching goal and value the goal, they are likely to be motivated to develop internal capability including Self-Care behaviors which could make achievement of the goal possible.

Personality Behaviors Associated with the COVID-19 Environment

When there is a blurred interface between work and nonwork interface as in the COVID-19 environment where people work from home, the chances of people becoming workaholics is extremely high. Spears (2016) described four personality behaviors that have high tendencies to be excessively involved in work or nonwork domains, thereby making achieving work–life integration challenging. Spears insinuated that by exhibiting these behaviors, individuals can knowingly or unknowingly define their option of work–life integration which deviates from what is required for an effective lifestyle.

The planners are "extremely goal-oriented and very good at details" (Spears 2016, p. 2). They are highly organized in their work and personal lives and have a high tendency to work long hours while pursuing the perfection they desire. Unless the planner can offset the long hours

at work by using other resources, he/she will struggle with managing the work–nonwork interface and thus be unable to achieve WLI. The visionary behavior type "dreams" a lot and can see the bigger picture than others. Because the visionary has a series of dreams and pursues them with great passion, there is the tendency to spend long hours trying to address the dreams. This may make achieving WLI difficult. The analyzer/inventor mentally thinks of ideas and organizes them to make meanings. The analyzer/inventor figures out how to make things work. Because a lot of time is spent thinking of ideas, organizing them, and making them work, analyzers/inventors act like workaholics and often experience burnout. These tendencies can make managing the work–nonwork interface and WLI difficult. Action takers need minimal supervision and produce finished work. They are self-motivated and are always involved in other nonwork pursuits where they can exhibit their action taking roles. There is, therefore, the possibility of not being able to coordinate the series of roles they take on in the work and nonwork domains, and the possibility of spending many hours coordinating them. This can also make WLI achievement difficult. The passion of the neutralizers makes them heavily involved in their work and nonwork lives. When such passions are not properly prioritized, coordinated, and channeled, the management of the work–nonwork interface and WLI become difficult. These personality behaviors are highly required by organizations in the COVID-19 environment, but the work ethic arising from these personality types poses challenges to WLI management. Understanding these tendencies and planning for them will make the avoidance of workaholic behavior possible. Planning and managing may be enhanced when individuals can identify and mobilize Self-Care behaviors that enhance personal and professional roles.

The Disc Personality Type

Another personality type that can point to difficulties in achieving work–life integration if not properly understood and controlled is the "DiSC" personality type (PADRAIG Consulting 2020). The "D" style takes

charge and likes to see things through execution and success. Individuals who are type "D" like to be organized in the work and nonwork domains, and this may keep them spending long hours on task execution. The "i" individuals are sensitive to others who work long hours and can be pressured to also work long hours. "S" individuals love to please others and so are always willing to ensure that others have what they need and want. They will work long hours to ensure that others are satisfied and successful. Even when the "S" person knows the need for WLI and desires to pursue it, their high compromising spirit will make them give up the pursuit to please others. The "C" individuals are independent workaholics, with high analytical skills and problem-solving abilities. They are usually heavily involved in detail, making them work long hours, prone to burnout and high levels of stress. Strengths and weaknesses are associated with each personality type. Their strengths are desirable, able to enhance organizational productivity and enhance interpersonal relationships. The differences in the types, however, affect how individuals perceive challenges in managing WLI, and the actions are taken. Hence, if the strengths and weaknesses are not understood and managed, the individual may be his worst enemy in achieving work–life integration. For example, the "S" person can live his life for others if he does not adopt the Self-Care behaviors that say "no" to demands from others.

Typology of Working Mothers' Work–Life Balance Personality Behavior

Working mothers face unique challenges in the developing world due to their context of work and nonwork relationships. The traditional family structure mandates working women to be solely responsible for family chores even when they are involved at work. More so, organizations are not up to speed in developing family-friendly policies to help working mothers coordinate their work and nonwork activities. The situation is further aggravated in a COVID-19 environment where mothers work from home with their young children at home with them. In addition to these challenges, there are peculiar individual differences in

working women that can further aggravate the challenges of managing the work–nonwork interface. These differences include personality, interests, strengths, family values, hierarchical level in the organization, and extended family responsibilities. Brownlee (2015) in a study of 500 working mothers established how working mothers arrive at their unique philosophy and attitudes to WLI. The author categorized the women using the categories "willingness to Sacrifice/Say no" and "level of organization/intentionality." Four categories of working women were identified using the above scales. The four categories are developed in Fig. 8.2.

The work–life balance personality characterized as "I will sleep when I am dead" has a high level of organization/intentionality and "low level of willingness to Sacrifice/Say No." This is an individual who is highly organized in all she does. However, she finds it difficult to say no to jobs and sacrifice low priority jobs. The individual is characterized by the following:

- Runs on full capacity and does not like the presence of unfulfilled assignments
- She wants to do every job that appears in the work and nonwork domain because idleness is not part of her character

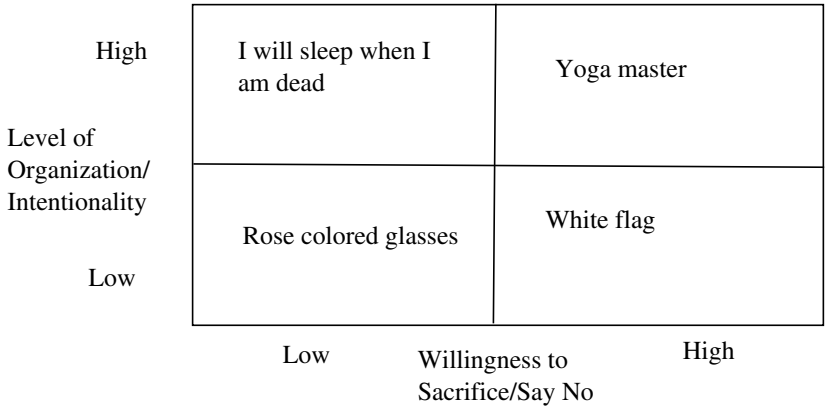

Fig. 8.2 Working mothers' work–life balance personality typology (*Source* Adopted from Brownlee 2015)

- She hates the creation of boundary between work and nonwork domains and sees those who create it as being lazy

Such an individual must recognize that relaxation is part of the strategy to manage work and nonwork challenges. If she can learn to prioritize and say no to less priority jobs, her excellent organizing ability will improve the achievement of work–life integration by reducing stress arising from the work and nonwork interface.

The "Rose-colored glasses" personality has low "level of organization/intentionality" and "willingness to Sacrifice/Say No." This individual takes on all existing responsibilities but has no consistent organizing ability. Such an individual has the following characteristics that create stress:

- Takes on all tasks but is unable to see them to a complete state
- Does not say no to jobs since she has no way to prioritize and organize them
- Does not have a particular order of carrying out responsibilities since there is no priority order developed.
- Is always overwhelmed because she cannot say no to jobs and does not organize.

The individual must be organized consistently and must learn to "say no" to low priority jobs and work on important ones.

The "White flag" personality has a low level of "organization/intentionality" and a high level of "willingness to sacrifice/say no." It appears the individual can prioritize assignments, selecting those to work on and those to "say no" to. The individual's problem, however, is the inability to organize the selected assignments consistently. Hence, the individual is stressed because of the following characteristics:

- Fear of failure in the selected assignments because of the inability to organize them.

Learning how to prioritize and organize will ensure that the selected assignments are brought to completion. This will remove the fear of failure and associated stress.

The "Yoga master" personality has a high level of "organization/intentionality" and "willingness to sacrifice/say no." This individual can prioritize jobs to identify those with low priority and has a high level of organizing which is done consistently such that selected jobs are completed with minimal level of stress. The individual avoids stress through the following characteristics:

- Is highly effective in areas important to her in both the work and nonwork domains
- Can "say no" to jobs of low priority
- Identifies WLI issues and can request help in handling them
- Identifies the boundary between work and nonwork domains

The effectiveness of such individual is from four main things they do effectively: ability to prioritize important assignments, to organize consistently to effectively carry out selected tasks, to "say no" to low priority tasks to avoid overload, and willingness to identify issues that make WLI difficult and proactively seek for a solution.

The conclusion from these typologies is that no matter the level of support offered to working mothers by organizations or other sources, specific personality behaviors have extremely low tendency to achieve WLI due to the tendencies associated with them. Three effective tendencies can be identified namely, the ability to prioritize, organize, and "say no" to low priority tasks. These tendencies can be linked to personal and professional Self-Care behaviors. Working mothers who adopt multiple personal and professional Self-Care behaviors will have low levels of stress and high achievement of work–life integration.

Conclusion

The role of individuals in the multidimensional approach to managing work–life integration dominated the discussions in the chapter. This is

because individuals can be exposed to support from their organization and other components discussed in this book, but their differences will affect how they use the support and the level of success they will achieve. Some individual differences can be inimical to every attempt at achieving work–life integration if not properly understood and analyzed.

Before reviewing individual differences, the chapter reviews the role of Self-Care behaviors in the achievement of WLI. These behaviors are classified as personal and professional behaviors, and jointly help individuals handle personal and professional challenges to stay healthy and effective in role executions. These behaviors are discretionary and will depend on the individual's willingness to identify and adapt them to improve well-being and to manage WLI. The chapter postulates a relationship between individual differences and Self-Care behaviors. This relationship has not been extensively studied in the literature. The chapter proposes that Self-Care behaviors will moderate the relationship between individual differences and work–nonwork interface to improve on the variance of the latter explained by the former.

The chapter reviews personality traits and core self-evaluation (CSE) as individual variables responsible for the ability to adopt Self-Care behaviors. In doing this, the Broaden-and-Build and self-determination theories were used to explain the relationship between personality traits and CSE respectively to work–nonwork interface. The personality traits reviewed include the Big-Five, segregators/integrators, and DiSC personality traits. The conclusion is that the personality traits are not inherently bad or good, but each has strengths and weaknesses which must be identified, leveraged upon, or managed to ensure the well-being and effectiveness of individuals. The chapter did not engage in traits nurture/nature controversies but took the approach that individuals must identify their dominant personality types and how to manage their tendencies to enhance their use of Self-Care behaviors in achieving WLI. The effects of the components of CSE and the composite variable were also discussed and how they enhance the development and use of Self-Care behaviors.

Working mothers were given special attention in the chapter because of obvious factors that make WLI management more challenging for them. The number of working mothers in the work domain has increased recently in the developing world. Despite this, the traditional family

structure in Africa still holds working mothers solely responsible for family chores. Secondly, organizations in Africa are not current in expanding available work–nonwork friendly policies required by working mothers. Four typologies of working mothers' work–life balance personality behaviors were identified. Three of these topologies struggle to achieve WLI, while one is effective. The personality behaviors that struggle to achieve WLI failed to do four things: prioritize, organize, sacrifice, and "say no" to low priority tasks.

This chapter concludes that individual differences play a major role in the achievement of WLI. Individual differences can even become obstacles to how individuals identify and use organizationally provided policies aimed at WLI management. However, individuals are not helpless to their differences. What they must do is identify the tendencies associated with their difference, leverage on their strengths, and work on their weaknesses to enhance their well-being and achieve WLI. It is not the possession of personality difference that makes people fail at WLI management but not recognizing the consequences of such difference and how to maximize it to achieve effectiveness.

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9

Meaning of Life and Successful Life: Work–Life Integration

Introduction

There is a cyclical relationship among the dimensions of life emphasized, sources of the meaning of life, and the definition of successful life (see Fig. 9.1). The management of this cyclical relationship is the foundation of WLI. For example, the dimensions of life you emphasize determine your perception of life and consequently how you define successful life. Depending on the results of an individual's current definition of success and what he gets out of life, further adjustment can be made to emphasize more dimensions of life.

At one point or the other, every individual will have to establish what successful life means to him/her. An individual may choose to establish this going by the perception of others. In this case, he/she will be living the life of others. Individuals may also take personal responsibility in defining this, and as such will be pursuing and living the life, they defined by themselves. Individuals must therefore take responsibility for what they want in life independent of what others want, since values, career ambitions, and life experience determine how success is defined. Having the sole responsibility to define success in life, however, does

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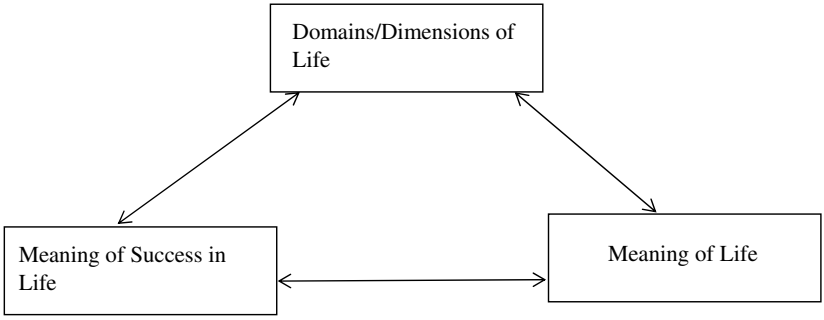

Fig. 9.1 Relationship among dimensions, meaning of life, and successful life (*Source* Author)

not translate to neglecting the life of others. For example, what constitutes success in life should consider the life of your spouse, children, and extended family members (in the African context). No human being is a Hermite who lives an isolated life; we live in community. What a person accepts as criteria for success in life, therefore, determines what he pursues. For example, those who define success in life career-wise will sacrifice other areas of life to pursue career satisfaction alone. Why is the accurate definition of successful life necessary in achieving WLI? The essence of life is to achieve high overall well-being, and well-being is a combination of the satisfaction achieved in each area of life. To achieve work–life integration, individuals must accurately identify the areas of life that define success and manage them to achieve optimum satisfaction in all areas and eventually optimum overall well-being.

O'Connor and Chamberlain (1996) stipulated that success in life is closely linked to the understanding of the meaning of life because empirical studies have reported that lack of meaning in life is responsible for abnormal cognitive behaviors (Yalom 1980), low level of well-being (Reker et al. 1987), substance abuse, depression (Harlow et al. 1986), and correlates highly with neuroticism (Pearson and Sheffield 1974), and anxiety (Yarnell 1972). Hence, the meaning of life has a role to play in the successful functioning of individuals in all areas of life and the eventual integration of the work and life domains.

The wheel of life describes individuals as having roles in the work, family, and other life domains. Overall well-being, therefore, is derived from how individuals successfully integrate the demands arising from these necessary domains. For example, how an individual manages the demands in the work and family domains has a high effect on how he achieves overall well-being and will affect how he derives meaning in life. The chapter begins by exploring how to define the meaning of life. Thereafter, it explores how individuals define success in life considering the various domains they choose to be involved in. The chapter discusses the challenges in the wrong understanding of the meaning of life, what constitutes a successful life, and how these affect the ability to achieve WLI despite positive contributions from the organization and the individual's environment. How the wheel of life is used to define satisfaction level and work on identified gaps in achieving high overall well-being is also discussed.

Meaning of Life and Successful Life

There are three foundational decisions individuals must make to achieve success in life reflected in high overall well-being. These are: what is the meaning of life? (what is the purpose of life?) What are the dimensions or sources that contribute to the meaning of life? And how should successful life be defined? Successfully answering these questions will depend on the fact that humans are a combination of spirit and matter. Hence in answering the questions, one must consider that the entire person is made of both spirit and matter. The entire spectrum of humanity has been captured under dimensions which are sources of both meaningful life and successful life. Achieving balance in life begins by identifying the purpose of life. This is the central motivating reason for life and why an individual is happy to enter each day. It is an identification which when defined guides life decisions, influences behaviors, shapes goal, offers sense of direction, and creates meaning for the existence of the individual. People find purpose in many dimensions of life. However, once defined, purpose will determine the decisions made and the consequences obtained. Every choice made based on the purpose of life has a

consequence which the individual has no control over. For example, an individual can decide that life is made up of work and career only and so tailor his behavior to achieving this. When this decision is made, the end consequence will be the neglect of other life domains which the individual has no control over. To properly identify the purpose of life, the following questions must be satisfactorily answered. Who am I? Where do I belong? And when do I feel fulfilled?

Meaning of Life

Discovering the meaning of life is important because life has a meaning, can be explored, and can help the individual in maximizing the type of life lived. The meaning of life can be found in the communication, understanding, and service given. There are two approaches to considering the meaning of life (Yalom 1980). The first is that meaning exists, is independent of the perception of the individual, and can be discovered outside of the person (O'Connor and Chamberlain 1996). For example, Frankl (1963) stated that meaning can be discovered through social and spiritual values and by emphasizing others rather than self. The second is that meaning is based on a relative view of reality. For example, Tillich (1953) stated that the loss of concern for God is "the decisive event underlying the search for meaning and despair of it" (p. 142). Hence, it is how meaning is constructed by the individual that matters (Battista and Almond 1973). This approach is based on the premise that people's beliefs and values differ and are drivers of their perception of reality which drives how meaning is understood. The latter approach is what is adopted in this chapter of the book because how people understand life will affect their reactions to life events in all domains of life. The decision to define meaning in terms of work only will affect how an individual reacts to events in other aspects of life.

The meaning of life is known to have many dimensions depending on how it is experienced, its source, diversity, and how involved the person is (O'Connor and Chamberlain 1996). People experience meaning in the beliefs they hold, the actions they take, and the resulting feelings. Hence, the components of meaning include cognitive, motivational, and

affective (Reker and Wong 1988). In the cognitive component, people interpret their life experiences and develop their understanding and belief about life. The motivational component has values that dictate the goals pursued in life. It is the pursuit of these goals that gives purpose to life. The affective component houses the feelings of satisfaction and fulfillment people have from life experiences and the achievement of goals.

To establish the source dimension of the meaning of life, the individual must establish the areas of life important to him. It is in these sources (areas of life) that meaning can be constructed and understood. The areas identified by past studies include interpersonal relationships, personal development, creativity, religion, social activities, beliefs (De Vogler-Ebersole and Ebersole 1985; Ebersole and de Paola 1989; Reker and Guppy 1988), and cultural and ethnic background (Yalom 1980). These sources are not mutually exclusive since meaning can be derived from various sources simultaneously (De Vogler-Ebersole and Ebersole 1985). For instance, an individual may choose to define meaning using a combination of work, social relationships, religion, and family domains (areas of life). In arriving at these sources, researchers asked participants to list various domains of life where they experienced meaningfulness or to rate their derivation of meaning from the domains. What constitutes the diversity of meaning in life is derived from the number of sources the individual accepts as sources of meaning in his life. The greater the diversity, the more sources the individual uses. Depth or involvement in meaning differentiates superficial sources and those which are particularly important to the definition of the meaning of life. O'Connor and Chamberlain (1996) and Reker and Wong (1988) recommended four levels of depth in which meaning can be classified namely, self-preoccupation which relates to hedonistic pleasure and comfort, devoting time and energy to realize personal development, service to others, and commitment to a larger society and political cause, and values which go beyond individual gain to embrace cosmic meaning. Individuals have the sole responsibility to determine what levels to place any source of meaning of life, and to place one source above another. Table 9.1 shows the various sources that contribute to the meaning of life as identified by various researchers. The first obvious fact about these studies is the

Table 9.1 A comparison of sources of meaning as reported in relevant previous studies

De Vogler and Ebersole (1980) (College students)	De Vogler and Ebersole (1981) (Adults)	De Vogler and Ebersole (1983) (Adolescents)	Ebersole and de Paola (1987) (Elderly couples)	Reker and Guppy (1988) (Adults) Ebersole
Relationships	Relationships	Relationships	Relationships	Personal relationships
Service	Service	Activities	Service	Altruism
Belief	Belief	School	Belief	Religious activities
Expression	Life work	Growth	Life work	Creative activities
Growth	Growth	Obtaining	Growth	Personal growth
Obtaining	Obtaining	Appearance	Obtaining	Meeting basic needs
Existential/hedonistic	Pleasure	Health	Pleasure	Pleasurable/leisure
Understanding	Health	(Belief, service and pleasure not reported)	Health	Personal achievements
				Legacy
				Enduring values/ideals
				Traditions and culture
				Social/political causes

Source O'Connor and Chamberlain (1996: 463)

freedom people have in deciding the sources important to them. The second is that the sources of meaning of life vary across the developmental stages of individuals. For example, college students have different sources of meaning of life from elderly couples and adults. However, when an individual fixes his/her sources of meaning of life, that action invariably fixes how successful life is defined by the person.

A practical and effective way to define the meaning of life or purpose for life is to develop the book of life (Krishnamurti 1995). The approach stipulates that the meaning of life should begin by defining what epitaph one would like to be written about him when he is dead. It recommends that individuals should fast-forward their lives to the day of their funeral and determine what they would like to be written as their achievement in life. The epitaph represents what an individual would want as the meaning of his/her life. The individual should then work backward to determine the contributions to be made and the values that would drive the contributions in the selected dimensions such that what the individual envisioned as the epitaph would be realized. The contributions must include what the individual wants to do in all selected dimensions of life. For instance, if the individual wants his epitaph to include his achievement in the family, work, and societal domains, then the contributions must be in these domains. If any domain is excluded in the epitaph, the individual may not pursue contribution in such a domain and may not consider such domain in life decisions and behaviors. Three things are obvious from the identification of the meaning of life using the book of life. The first is that it is the individual alone who determines the meaning of life; he/she cannot ask others to do it for him/her. The second is that what an individual wants to be remembered for should determine the epitaph envisioned. The third is that the subscribed meaning of life will determine the individual's values and contributions in life. An individual whose meaning in life includes wealth acquisition as an end may not have ethics and integrity as values to be pursued.

What Constitutes a Successful Life?

A successful life is one that has successfully subscribed to the values and achieved the contributions stated in the book of life. Overall well-being is what determines how far the individual has subscribed to his/her values and established the contributions in all selected domains of life. Overall well-being is optimized when one is healthy in multiple dimensions of life. These dimensions are the same as the sources or dimensions used in defining the meaning of life. Authors have identified eight dimensions which include emotional, social, occupational, financial, environmental, physical, intellectual, and spiritual. Well-being is enhanced in the social dimensions through relationships, respect, and community interactions. These represent how we relate to others, and how we communicate and get along with others within our community. Well-being in the spiritual domain deals with values and the meaning of life. It helps people establish peace and harmony and enhances the ability to discover purpose in life. Well-being in the emotional domain deals with how we handle feelings, emotions, reactions, and cognitive thinking. This is the dimension where people come to terms with their emotions and how they affect internal harmony and external relationships with others. Well-being in the occupational dimension involves the nature of skills, finances, balance, and satisfaction. It is finding fulfillment in jobs and establishing a balance between work and leisure. Well-being in the intellectual domain is enhanced by critical thinking, creativity, and curiosity. This dimension is for having an open mentality that encourages lifelong learning and gathering the experience needed for continuous growth. Well-being in the physical domain is enhancing the physical body through nutritious and healthy habits. It considers overall health and what is required for maintaining it. Here, people take full responsibility for their health and make decisions to live healthily.

The overall well-being is the sum of the well-being achieved in the various domains the individual used in defining the meaning of life and success in life. Any well-being arising from a neglected domain cannot be compensated by satisfaction from an overemphasized domain; when an individual neglects the family domain, the satisfaction lost there cannot be compensated by overinvolvement in the work domain. This is why

the decision of which domains to be emphasized in the meaning of life and successful life should not be made lightly. The goal is to always work toward all the dimensions of life since they cumulatively lead to overall well-being in life. This means that achieving integration across all life domains (high WLI) is important in optimizing overall well-being. The use of the word "optimizing" instead of "maximizing" recognizes the need for tradeoffs in the level of resources allocated to different life domains to optimize effective contribution in each domain. For example, in a traditional family culture where gender role is crucial, balance for working mothers requires constant tradeoffs that allocate resources to the various emphasized domains. Tradeoffs help people avoid overemphasizing a domain to the detriment of other domains, and to achieve balance. When someone neglects the social domain and invests time only in the spiritual domain, balance cannot be achieved by the individual. An unbalanced life cannot appreciate any policy provided for the integration of the various domains of life. The wheel of life is a popular tool that helps individuals optimize the use of resources in each domain to obtain optimal overall well-being.

The Wheel of Life

The wheel of life captures the various dimensions of life that are important to the individual in defining a meaningful and successful life. It begins with identifying the dimensions of life, those important to the individual definition of life, and representing them on the lines in the circle. The second step is to identify the level of well-being currently achieved in each domain on a scale of 0 to 10. The levels are joined to create the individual's current level of overall well-being. The third step is to question the current levels of well-being in each domain to see those which can be improved to enhance overall well-being. Each of these is represented on a scale of 0 to 10. Joining these levels creates the preferred or future desired overall well-being. Step four is to identify the domains with a positive or negative gap, identify the causes of the gaps, and where tradeoffs are needed to fill the gaps. The following are the implications of the development and implementation of the wheel of life:

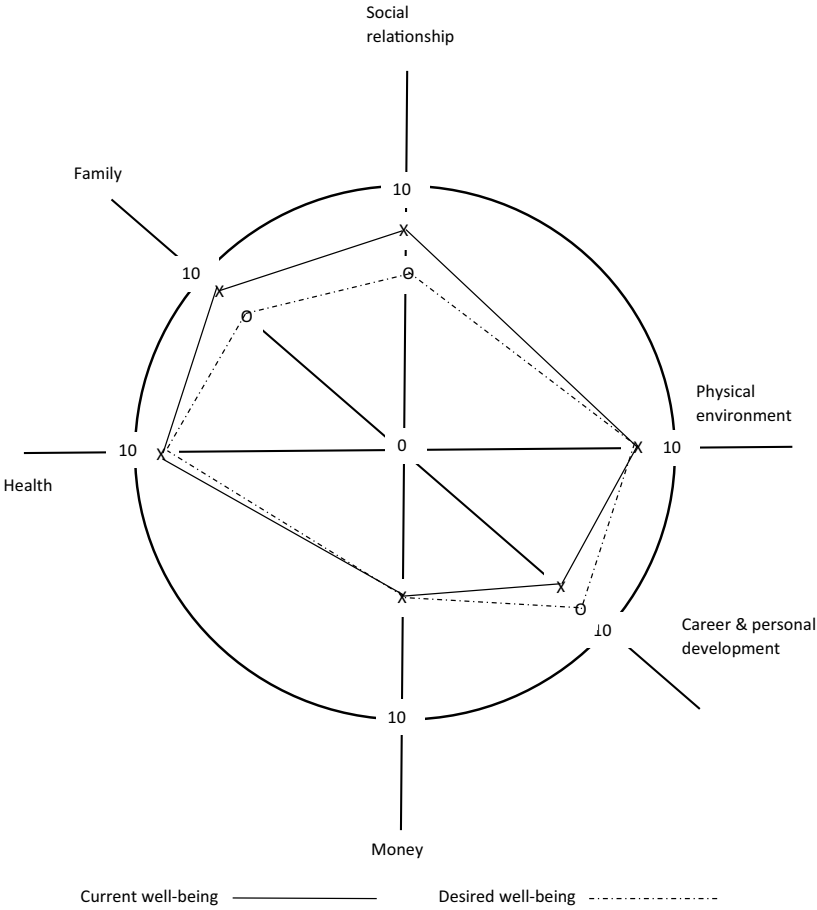

Fig. 9.2 The wheel of life showing current and desired level of well-being and gaps (*Source* Author)

- The individual appreciates that overall well-being in life has many components represented by how he/she defines his/her life.
- Individuals can objectively develop the wheel of life and the level of well-being in each domain of life.
- The identified gaps help the individual to identify the tradeoffs necessary to achieve a balanced life and optimize overall well-being.

- Individuals who neglect any dimension and do not emphasize that dimension in defining their lives will not achieve balance and optimization of overall well-being.

Example

An individual identifies the following dimensions/domains of life as important in his definition of meaning and successful life: physical environment, career/personal growth, money, health, family, and social relationship. This individual excluded spiritual and other domains, and so these domains will not be considered as important in his definition of meaning and successful life. The person will consequently live with the outcomes of excluding these domains. Figure 9.2 and Table 9.2 show how the individual established the current and desired levels of well-being in each domain, and the gap associated with each level. Table 9.3 shows how the individual analyzed the cause of the gaps, actions to be taken, and when they would be done. The wheel of life is not a one-time-fit-all process, but one that is continuously reviewed throughout the person's life. An individual in his early career stages may devote more resources to his career and less to the family. As he moves to middle career and has more family responsibilities, the wheel should be reviewed to ensure that overall well-being is optimized.

Table 9.2 Determining the current and desired well-being in each dimension of life and gaps

Dimensions	Current level of well-being	Desired level of well-being	Gap
Physical environment	8	8	0
Career/personal growth	7	8	1
Money	6	6	0
Health	9	9	0
Family	10	9	−1
Social relationships	8	7	−1

Source Author

Table 9.3 Analysis of gaps and action to resolve

Dimensions	Gap	Causes	Action to resolve	Time
Physical environment	0			
Career/personal growth	1	Inadequate resources for personal development	Create time to enroll for part-time studies online	Now
Money	0	NA	NA	NA
Health	0	NA	NA	NA
Family	−1	Use of too many resources in the family roles	Review roles and identify areas of waste to conserve resources	Now
Social relationships	−1	Has too much time invested in social interactions	Review the interactions to identify what is necessary or not	Now

Source Author

Conclusion

The chapter assumes the existence of various dimensions/domains of life in which individuals should be involved. The meaning of life is defined based on the number of dimensions/domains observed as important to the individual. The more dimensions the individual emphasizes, the more motivated he is to balance the demands of these domains to achieve effective WLI. Those with a narrow definition of the meaning of life emphasize fewer dimensions/domains of life and find it difficult to achieve the needed balance to enhance overall well-being. The chapter is based on the premise that how people react to issues including life events depends on where they derive meaning and how they define success in life. Since life has several dimensions/domains, it implies that how people derive meaning and success in life will depend on the domains they recognize and emphasize. Work–life integration is achieved from how effective people balance roles in the domains of life they recognize and emphasize. This, in turn, will drive how they react to certain policies aimed at achieving WLI. Individuals who do not value family roles will react negatively to policies provided by organizations for balancing work and family responsibilities to achieve WLI. Unless they consider multiple

life domains and emphasize them in defining meaning and success in life, achieving real WLI will be a mirage. For example, if a person deliberately emphasizes one or two domains and excludes others in the definition of meaning and success in life, such a person may work to integrate the two domains and exclude other domains. This will not give the real WLI which enhances and optimizes overall well-being.

The chapter discusses the link between the meaning of life and successful life. It stated that the meaning of life will be reflected in the epitaph written at the burial of any person. Therefore, individuals must fast-forward their lives to the day of their funeral when their epitaphs would be written. The individual should then write what he/she would want to hear about his/her life (Krishnamurti 1995). This epitaph is the summary of the meaning of life and how it was lived. It is a list of what the individual would want to be remembered for after living life to the fullest. The epitaph created will then be used to create what the individual values and the contributions expected in each domain of life. A successful life is one lived according to the stated values and one which makes the desired contributions to the selected domains of life. Thus, individuals who narrowly define the meaning of life by excluding most life domains will achieve scanty contributions to the domains of life and find it difficult to attain WLI. As identified by De Vogler-Ebersole and Ebersole (1985), the dimensions of life are not mutually exclusive and so it is unnecessary to define meaning narrowly using only a few domains. The more diverse the sources used by an individual in defining the meaning of life, the better for the individual. Adopting the four levels of meaning recommended by O'Connor and Chamberlain (1996) and Reker and Wong (1988) will guarantee that sources of meaning of life achieve both diversity and depth at the same time. For example, adopting only hedonistic pleasure and comfort-seeking may lead to tilted allocation of resources to social interaction and extravagant living to the detriment of other excluded domains in the definition of the meaning of life. Past studies have shown individuals who defined meaning using fewer dimensions/domains of life (O'Connor and Chamberlain 1996). Individuals have the choice of the number of domains to use in defining the meaning of life. When this freedom is exercised, the individuals will

live with the consequences of their choices. The meaning of life should be personally defined unless one wants to live the life of others.

The chapter postulates that successful life is being able to live with values and make contributions which lead to the meaning of life defined by the individual. When these domains are narrowly defined, the success arising from such decisions may fall short of what is required to optimize overall well-being. Thus, when the meaning of life is well-defined, those with successful lives will enhance their overall well-being and achieve balance. This means that achieving WLI is dependent on how individuals define the meaning of life and success in life. Those who achieve WLI are better off because they optimize overall well-being by accurately allocating resources to their life domains. The wheel of life was introduced as a means of continuously allocating resources to the dimensions/domains to enhance overall well-being by living the stipulated values and making the contributions reflected in the meaning of life. The wheel of life is not a one-time-fit process since it is regularly reviewed to ensure that targets are met in the contributions made in each domain. Therefore, an individual who does not emphasize the spiritual dimension may after reviewing the consequences of such exclusion include it in a future development of the wheel of life. Reallocation of resources may be necessitated by the changing lifecycle of the individual. For example, early life career stage may necessitate a higher level of resources allocated to career, and when the individual moves to the mid-career stage and has more family responsibility, reallocation of resources may be necessary. Thus, trade-offs are major components of achieving success in life demonstrated by optimal overall well-being. The conclusion from the chapter is that WLI cannot be achieved when an individual's understanding of the meaning of life and successful life is defective. Effectively defining the meaning of life and successful life is a prelude to achieving WLI that enhances overall well-being.

Notes

1. What are the seven dimensions of life? https://shaitubali.com/en/the-path/what-are-the-sevendimensions-of-life/.

2. Creating a healthier life: A step by step guide to wellness. https://store.samhsa.gov/sites/default/files/d7/priv/sma16-4958.pdf.
3. How do the eight dimensions of wellness affect your life? https://www.goiam.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/New-Eight-Dimensions-of-Wellness.pdf.
4. University of Minnesota (What is life purpose) https://www.takingcharge.csh.umn.edu/what-life-purpose.

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10

Understanding the Family Structure in Africa: Role in Work–Life Integration

Introduction

While the family offers companionship, security, and protection to individuals as they battle with evils in the world system, family structure has undergone changes necessitated by increased global interconnectivity. George Murdock defined the family as "a social group characterized by common residence, economic co-operation, and reproduction. It includes adults of both sexes, at least two of whom maintain a socially approved sexual relationship and one or more children, own, or adopted of the sexually co-habiting adults" (Gittins 1993, p. 60). This is a broad definition that covers various forms of the family and has four basic characteristics: common residence, economic cooperation, reproduction, and sexuality. Most researchers do not formally define the family structure used in their studies. However, from the variables operationalized in the questionnaires; one can infer the definition used. Family structure has been operationalized differently in past studies such as nuclear family, and even households which include kin and servants of the householder (Frone et al. 1992; Levin 1993). After a detailed review of the family structures identified in past studies, Rothausen (1999, p. 820) concluded

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that "Whereas the household may be an interesting and important unit of analysis, it is no longer, if it ever was, equivalent to family" and "… the often used definition 'spouse and children' and kin in the household are not equivalent to family." The author's conclusion was because there are diverse families many of which included people related by marriage, biology, or obligation, as well as those related by affection. The author, therefore, concluded that since no clear universal definition of family structure is discernable, it is necessary to incorporate the diversity in the meaning of family structure in research involving the family. Similarly, Miller (2002) recognized that the current discourse of family excludes the role of the extended family, and so, a gap is created in the study of work–family conflict. Following the comment by Miller (2002), diversity in the meaning of family structure should be recognized, especially in studies involving WLI management. This is because the definition of family has an implication on the number of family variables recognized in any study, which in turn will play a significant role in the management of WLI. For instance, in a nuclear family structure, family variables include those related to spouse and children, while in the extended family structure, family variables include spouse, children, and extended family members. The additional family variables are known to affect how individuals manage the work–life interface (Amah 2019).

The essence of this chapter is to review the various definitions of family across nations and to identify the dominant family structure in Africa and how it affects WLI management. Hence, family structure is extensively discussed in the next section followed by a study to identify the effect of the extended family structure on WLI management.

Family Structures

The definition of family varies from one country to another. Authors have also postulated that variations exist within countries (Sharma 2013). However, what is referred to as variation within countries is really a variation in the implementation process of the dominant family structure. For instance, while the extended family structure is prevalent in Nigeria, there are variations as to whether tribes allow the patriarchal

or matriarchal extended family structure. It is also noticeable that what Sharma (2013) stipulated as different family structures are variations in the nuclear family structure. What constitutes the family has caught the attention of sociologists, anthropologists, and researchers in the work–life integration literature. As a result of the diverse nature of interest, the definition of the family has sometimes followed the desire of each group of researchers. For instance, based on sociologists' approach, the family has been categorized using various dimensions such as marriage type, location, authority, kin composite, blended family, and family by choice (Sharma 2013).

Different family patterns exist across the world, and these patterns do not remain static but undergo changes with time. Broadly, what authors identified as family structures represent variations in two main categories of family structure. The two broad categories are family based on marriage and communal structure (Avery 2018; Bottomore 1962; Edwards 2009). The first category has the nuclear family structure and its derivatives, and the second is the extended family structure and its derivatives.

Nuclear Family Structure

The nuclear family is made up of husband, wife, and children. It is formed when individuals are involved in a marriage relationship and such union produces children or not. Two-parent family is the dominant structure across regions with the single-parent structure becoming common, especially in the western world. The number of single-parent families is also increasing in sub-Saharan Africa because of increasing rate of divorce.[1] There are two versions of single-parent family namely, a situation where married couples divorce and live separately, and another where marriage does not take place, but the individuals have children and form families.[2] The single-parent family creates high pressure for the single parent who must shoulder the entire responsibility of the family. In a single-parent family, the use of domestic helps and contract nannies is prevalent.

Avery (2018) offered other versions of nuclear family such as polyamory where consenting adults decide to create marriage-like bonds and polygamy which is a union involving more than two individuals. Although studies have identified these forms of the nuclear family, they are not widely recognized and create issues with some religions. In the pre-colonial era, such forms of nuclear family were not accepted in sub-Saharan Africa. However, with the advent of civilization and globalization, some regions in Africa have accepted the practice. Polygamy is accepted in 85 cultures across the world, in 50 countries of which 25 are in Africa (Henrich et al. 2012; StearsBusiness 2019; Tertilt 2005). Polygamy encourages gender inequality which affects the management of work–life balance by women (Munro et al. 2011; StearsBusiness 2019). Edwards (2009) identified adaptive family as another form of the nuclear family. This is a situation where spouses live with adopted children. The biracial or multiracial family is also another form of the nuclear family. In this type, parents belong to different races. In what is referred to as transnational family, members of the family live in one or more countries and only spend time with other family members for certain periods in a year. This happens when one partner is in another country due to migration and only visits during the year. The common thread running across these family structures is the fact that the family contains only the spouses and their children. As popular as the nuclear family is in the world system, the assumption that it is the only available family structure has been questioned by many authors (Avery 2018; Bottomore 1962; Duncan and Phillips 2008).

The Extended Family Structure

Avery (2018) identified the communal family structure which he referred to as the extended family structure comprising mother, father, children, aunts, uncles, cousins, nephew and nieces, elderlies, and all living in a family unit. That they live as a unit does not mean they live under the same roof. They may be living at different locations, but the strong bond of obligation brings them together. There are two versions of the extended family.[3] The first is the patriarchal type where members of

the family are related through grandfather, father, or uncle. The second is the matriarchal version where the family is related through grandmother, mother, or aunt. However, most extended family structures in sub-Saharan Africa are a hybrid of the two versions. The African version incorporates or subordinates the nuclear family into the extended family. This is different from the Japanese form where the nuclear family is independent but recognizes the extended family and is in close contact with it. In sub-Saharan Africa, the number of children living with extended family members is between 50 and 70% compared to 0–20% in North America. Advantages of the extended family structure include children have more people to take care of them, each member has a responsibility to the family, and members are heavily involved in the financial and care of the elderly and children. For example, Ezewu (1986) stated that extended family members account for 53% support in the education of members in sub-Saharan Africa.

Factors Responsible for Constant Changes in the Family Structure

Although many family structures exist, not all of them have legitimacy in all the regions of the world. Even when they exist, there is variation in the practice of family structure across the world. Thus, it is necessary to always identify the family structures prevalent in the context of the study and how the dominant family structure is practiced in context. Within any region, shifts in dominant family structure have been observed with time (Parsons 1943). For instance, the authors found a shift from the extended family to nuclear family structure driven by industrialization. The overemphasis of industrialization in specialization affected the shift from the communal idea to a specialized nuclear family where the emphasis is on narrowmindedness. Other factors that drive the frequent change in the family structure across and within regions include fewer and late marriages, high divorce rate, nonmarital unions, and high employment of women (Cherlin 2010). The following factors have also contributed to the alteration of the family structure and created challenges in its functioning: international migration, terrorism resulting

in the rising number of internally displaced persons, urbanization, rising number of aging, and globalization. For instance, the number of internally displaced persons in Nigeria increased from 140,000 persons in 2009 to 6 million in 2012 (Nsemba 2016). These are individuals whose families are scattered to various resettlement centers in the Northern part of the country. Hence, the likelihood exists that data on family structure distribution may not capture changes in family structure in the modern world. Pasley and Petren (2015) stated that most data did not reflect the fact that children could be members of multiple families due to divorced parents who have remarried.

Effects of Family Structure and Family Process on Family Functioning

Family structure reflects the composition of the family, while family process reflects the interactions in the family. Family structures affect family socioeconomics, process, and culture.[4] For example, family structure affects the involvement of adults and extended family members in the household income. The level of family satisfaction also varies across family structures. Family affects the development, behavior, and well-being of members of the family (Sharma 2013, p. 306). There is also a link between the extended family structure and fertility (Burch and Gendell 1970; Davis 1955). This is because extended family structure motivates and supports early fertility. High fertility will give rise to large family size with associated demand on the financial, psychological, and emotional resources of family members. Large family size has led to people demanding government intervention in managing the demand of large families. For example, Adam and Brewer (2004) found out that 43% of the people in a survey advocated government intervention for families while 11% did not. Ways of helping families grapple with parental demands include subsidizing childcare costs, tax reduction for parents, and providing extra cash.[5] Studies have identified that differences in children and parents' well-being are accounted for by differences in family structures (Lansford et al. 2001), and specifically attributed to

the diversity in family structure process (Dunn et al. 1998; Stewart et al. 1997). The authors recommended that future studies should explore the relationship among family process, relationship quality, and well-being across family structures. What these studies and postulations point to is that family structure coupled with what goes on therein (process) will affect the well-being of family members. Hence, understanding family structure and family process will aid the management of WLI aimed at enhancing the overall well-being of family members (Lansford et al. 2001).

The extended family structure has additional challenges and benefits to the individuals in the family.[6] For instance, Bullock (2001) posited that raising grandchildren may cause financial stress, cramped living quarters, role restriction, and social isolation in groups. Also, grandparents may derive high life satisfaction from their positive influence on their grandchildren. Recognizing these challenges and benefits has implications in the policy formulation of government and organizations as they attempt to enhance the family satisfaction of individuals. In the area of elder care, research (McNeil and Hunter 2014; Pickard 2013) has shown that pressure from elder care is increasing such that family members cannot cope without help. The authors referred to this stress as "generation strain" which is taken care of by the social system in the western world but is thriving in the developing world including sub-Saharan Africa because of the absence of effective social system. The authors recommended a two-way approach that involves actions from the government and organizations. Szinovacz and Davey (2013) considered alleviating the "generation strain" from geographical proximity (having the elderly in homes) and having alternative caregivers. Ganong et al. (2009) stipulated that family obligation is the main driver of the high family-helping behavior among individuals. Thus, in an extended family structure with strong family obligations, members will have a high tendency to enact helping behaviors and would thus attract high "generation strain." Family exchanges are instrumental in enhancing the well-being of family members, and so family members must be creative in the selection and adoption of the forms of support and how to implement them (Antonucci et al. 2011; Henwood and Wicks 1984).

This shows that despite the changing pattern of family structure influenced by globalization and liberalization, the family is still central to providing support to members (Phillipson et al. 1998).

A Mini Study on the Distinct Nature of Extended Family Resources

Abstract

By defining family in terms of the extended family structure, which is prevalent in Africa, more family variables such as extended family variables are made available to individuals for managing family–work conflict. This assertion has been postulated by exploratory studies and popular press; however, no formal empirical study has been made. The essence of the study is to establish that the additional family variables obtained in the extended family structure are distinct from other family variables in the nuclear family structure. The current Nigerian-based research utilized 200 participants. Results obtained justified the adoption of the extended family structure in Nigeria and that the additional family variables are distinct.

Introduction

The importance of the social and cultural contexts in generating the meanings of family, together with the wide variation in meaning within the same interview, point to the unspoken assumptions that enable people to understand what is being referred to by the term family (Becker and Charles 2006, p. 119). The transformation of work and family is characterized by the increased involvement of dual-income families, single parenting, and workplace diversity (Ajala 2017; International Labor Office 2009). This has led to an increase in work–family conflict with associated negative consequences such as reduction in job satisfaction, organizational commitment, life satisfaction, quality of life, and family satisfaction (Kossek and Lee 2017; Stoeva et al. 2002) increase in

turnover intention, physical health strain, depressive symptoms, alcohol abuse (Kossek and Lee 2017; Zhang et al. 2017) and burnout (Peeters et al. 2005).

Work–family conflict (WFC) occurs when individuals who are simultaneously involved in the work and family domains find it increasingly difficult to be effective in each respective domain (Greenhaus and Beutell 1985). Work–family conflict occurs in two directions namely, work interfering with family (work–family conflict) and family interfering with work (family–work conflict) (Annor 2014; Jaga 2014).

Past studies have identified the antecedents of family–work conflict as marital demand, parental demand, and marital support (Fredriksen-Goldsen and Scharlach 2001; Frone et al. 1994; Lin 2013; Prajogo and Kumalaningrum 2016). These are the only family variables available in a nuclear family structure consisting of spouses and their children (Frone et al. 1992). However, in Africa, the family structure is deeper than the nuclear family structure defined in Western culture (Annor 2014; Fredriksen-Goldsen and Scharlach 2001; Okonkwo et al. 2019). Extended family members in Africa include aunts, nieces, nephews, uncles, grandparents, cousins, in-laws, and other relatives who form a family that functions in unison (Makiwane and Kaunda ND). In the extended family structure prevalent in Africa, additional emotional, financial, physical, social needs of family members are provided by the family unit (Ezewu 1986; Obayan 1995). Since the antecedents of FWC are in the family domain, the extended family structure will have more family variables (demands & supports) than the narrow nuclear structure and will therefore explain more variance in FWC.

In managing FWC, both resources and demands affect the level of FWC. Hence, to properly understand and manage FWC, there is a need to identify as many family resources and demands as possible. The nuclear family structure cannot achieve this due to the limited demands and resources available in it. Consequently, it becomes necessary to incorporate the resources and demands arising from the extended family structure to properly understand FWC in the African context. Other family variables have been covered by past studies (Fredriksen-Goldsen and Scharlach 2001; Frone et al. 1994; Lin 2013; Prajogo and Kumalaningrum 2016). There is, however, a scarcity of empirical

evidence to support the role of extended family members in managing family–work conflict, thus leaving some questions about the nature of extended family variables unanswered (Annor 2014). The questions are:

1. Is the factor representing extended family support (support received from extended family members) different from the factor representing marital support (support received from spouse)?
2. Is the factor representing extended family demand (demand placed on individual by extended family members) different from the factor representing marital (demand from spouse) and parental (demand from children) demands?

The study made valuable contributions by expanding the definition of family from the narrow nuclear family (spouse and children) to the extended family structure which includes aunts, uncles, niece, nephews, grandparents, cousins, in-laws, and other relatives in line with the cultural requirements advocated by (Bassani 2007; Becker and Charles 2006; Miller 2002; Rothausen 1999). This expansion made more family variables available, compared to the few variables implied in the nuclear family structure. The answers to questions 1 and 2 will establish the extended family variables as being different from other family variables already identified by past studies. This will justify the expansion of the definition of the family from the narrow nuclear structure to the all-encompassing extended family structure with more family variables. The results obtained will enable organizations to review their family-friendly policies to accommodate extended family members in line with the suggestions of Hegewish and Gornick (2011).

Context of the Study

Nigeria is in West Africa within the sub-Saharan region of Africa. She is a former British colony with institutional arrangements drawn largely from the western world. According to the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) 2018 Q3 report, among the 115.5 million economically active population, approximately 17.2 million persons work full-time in urban

cities and have a high likelihood of experiencing work–family conflict, even if they worked the normal 40 hours a week. The distribution of employed persons across sectors are information technology = 3%, real estate = 14%, agriculture = 46% and others = 11%. Due to the deregulations in Africa, the contribution of the informal sector in terms of GDP and employment rate has continued to increase. However, according to the Nigerian Bureau of Statistics (2018), the formal sector still accounts for 79 and 62% of employment and GDP, respectively. This means that majority of the workforce is still in the formal sector. The declining value of men's wage coupled with the rise in the number of educated women has caused an increase in the number of dual-earner families (Eremie 2015).

The Nigerian work environment was initially a traditional setting where men were involved in work while women were regarded as full-time caregivers at home (Epie and Ituma 2014). However, globalization, gender mainstreaming, and other factors have led to the increasing participation of women in the formal sector of the economy (Ajala 2017; Ajiboye 2008). There are more women in formal employment in 2018 (45%) than there were decades ago (NBS 2018), and the number in managerial positions is also on the increase (Epie and Ituma 2014). The worsening economic condition has made Nigerians predominantly dual-income families. However, unlike the western world where members of the family share home duties, home duties in Nigeria are still the full responsibility of women despite their increased role in the work domain. Labor laws contain policies which organizations must implement to help employees manage work and family demands (see Nigerian Labor law 2004) but since government enforcement of these laws is weak, organizations avoid these policies to cut cost or only implement them when strong employee unions enforce compliance. Equally ineffective is the process of updating the laws to reflect the changing nature of work in Nigeria.

The extended family is extraordinarily strong in Nigeria and the members who are biologically related trace their origin to common ancestors and genealogical lines (Ezewu 1986). They have common identities and always look out for the good of each other. For instance, Ezewu (1986) stated that extended family members account for 53% support in the education of members.

Methods

Participants and Procedure

Two organizations in the city of Lagos were approached to participate in the study, and both granted the request. Participants were obtained using the phone directory of each organization. Each organization assigned an HR personnel to the researcher. Apart from making the phone directory available, the HRM personnel assigned to the researcher had no access to the questionnaires and no idea of those who participated. Paper questionnaires were sent in sealed envelopes directly to selected participants in each organization. Participants were informed that the purpose of the study was to obtain information from them on certain aspects of their family and work lives. Participants were assured of confidentiality, and the filled questionnaires were returned by participants directly to the researcher through a locked box in each organization. They were told that results would not be displayed in a format that would identify participants. They were also told not to answer any question they wished not to answer.

The questionnaire was in the English language. The first part contained the purpose of the study and instructions, while the second part captured the variables used for the research. The questionnaires were distributed to 500 randomly selected participants in the two organizations. The essence of this stage was to obtain data to validate the distinctiveness of marital, parental, and extended family demands, and to establish the distinctiveness of marital and extended family support. Two hundred questionnaires were returned (40%). The participants were mainly female (70%), between the ages 28–40 years (88%), all married, 75% had children between 1 and 5 years, and 65% had bachelor's degree or higher.

Measures

The questionnaires were in English, the official language in Nigeria. Unless otherwise stated, all variables were measured with Likert's scale of 1 = Not at all to 5 = A great deal.

Marital demand contained four items adapted from the family stress scale in Vinokur et al. (1999), Frone et al. (1992), and Kessler (1985). The items measured the level and intensity of care given to the spouse and the level of conflict in the relationship. An example item for marital demand is "How much responsibility do you have to your spouse?" The Cronbach alpha for marital demand obtained in this study is 0.82.

Extended family demand contained four items developed by modifying the family stress items from the works of Vinokur et al. (1999), Frone et al. (1992), and Kessler (1985). The items in the family stress measure were rephrased to capture extended family demand which was not measured by the study. It measured the level of responsibilities individuals have for extended family members, and tensions in the relationship. An example item for extended family demand is "How much responsibility do you have to your extended family members?" The Cronbach alpha for this measure is 0.75.

Parental demand contained four items and was taken from the parental stress scale from Vinokur et al. (1999), Frone et al. (1992), and Kessler (1985). It measured the parental overload and extent of children's misbehavior. An example item is "How often do you feel that you have too little time to yourself because of your children." Cronbach alpha obtained in this study is 0.82.

Marital support contained four items and was taken from the family social support scale in Carlson and Perrewe (1999), adapted from the work of Etzion (1984). Items were modified to reflect marital support. These items measured the level of support and quality relationship obtained from spouses. An example item for marital support is "How much does your spouse share duties with you?" Cronbach alpha obtained for marital support in this study is 0.80.

Extended family support contained four items accessed by modifying the family social support measure from the work of Carlson and Perrewe (1999), which was an adaptation of the measure in Etzion (1984). The

items were rephrased to capture extended family support which was not measured in the study. An example item for extended family support is "How much does your extended family members have quality relationships with you?" The Cronbach alpha for the extended family support obtained in this study is 0.71.

Analysis

The essence of the study was to establish that extended family demand is distinct from marital demand and parental demand, and that extended family support is distinct from marital support. The data collected in the study were analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 23) and Analysis of Moments of Structures (AMOS 23). SPSS 23 was used for the exploratory factor analysis, while the AMOS 23 was used for the confirmatory analysis which identified the distinctiveness of study variables. Structural Equation Modeling technique is good in confirmatory factor analysis because it accounts for the errors in the indicators used to measure a variable so that only the common variance shared by the indicators is used in the factor analysis. The model fit was gauged using Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Root Mean Standard Error of Approximation (RMSEA). For the GFI and CFI, an effective model must have at least a value of 0.9, while the RMSEA value must fall between 0.5 and 0.8. (Bentler 1990).

Results

Exploratory Factor Analysis

The essence of the EFA is to establish the initial factor structures for the study variables and to determine the loadings of the items that measure each factor. To explore the factorial structure for the family demand and family support variables, all the items that measured these variables were subjected to exploratory factor analysis. Rotation was done with the oblique rotation technique. The Kaiser Meyer-Olkin measure

of .83 and Bartlett's test of sphericity (78) = 1131.92, $p < .000$, verified the sampling and correlation structure adequacy for factor analyses, respectively. Maximum likelihood factor analysis with a cut-off point of .40 and eigenvalues greater than 1 (see Field 2009; Stevens 1992) showed that five factors best fit the data and accounts for 76.3% of the variance. The range of loading of items on their respective factors are marital support (.85–.87), extended family support (.80–.83), marital demand (.73–.78), parental demand (.71–.78), and extended family demand (.84–.86). Four-factor and five-factor solutions are indicated as possible factor solutions based on the scree plot. The Cronbach alpha and split-half reliability for each factor are marital support (.80 & .73), extended family support (.71 & .64), marital demand (.82 & .78), parental demand (.82 & .80), and extended family demand (.75 & .73). These are above acceptable levels (Nunnally 1978; Ursachi et al. 2015).

Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA) for Marital, Parental, and Extended Family Demands

The purpose of this CFA was to establish that the family demand variables (marital, parental, and extended family) are distinct variables. Five separate CFA models involving marital demand, parental demand, and extended family demand were tested. The first model was a single factor model where the items for the three variables loaded on a single factor. The second model contained three factors where items for each variable loaded on their respective factor. Three 2-factor models were tested namely, combining marital and parental, combining marital and extended family, and combining parental and extended family. Results indicated that the 3-factor model with all the demand variables as separate factor had best fit indices ($\chi 2 = 15.34$; df = 10; $\chi 2/df = 1.534$; GFI = .98; CFI = .97; RMSEA = .046, PCLOSE = .502) compared to the poor fit of the 1-factor model ($\chi 2 = 107.55$; df = 13; $\chi 2/df = 8.273$; GFI = .88; CFI = .85; RMSEA = .171, PCLOSE = .000), and the three 2-factor models with fit indices ($\chi 2 = 106.612$; df = 12; $\chi 2/df = 8.885$; GFI = .88; CFI = .85; RMSEA = .179, PCLOSE = .000), $\chi 2 = 24.072$; df = 12; $\chi 2/df = 2.006$; GFI = .88; CFI = .85; RMSEA

= .074, PCLOSE = .119), ($\chi 2 = 54.439$; df = 12; $\chi 2/df = 4.537$; GFI = .89; CFI = .88; RMSEA = .119, PCLOSE = .000) respectively.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses (CFA) for Marital and Extended Family Supports

The purpose of this CFA was to establish that the family support variables (marital, & extended family) are distinct variables. Two separate factor models involving marital and extended family support were tested. The first model contained a single factor where the items for the support variables loaded on a single factor. The second model was a 2-factor model where the items for each support variable loaded on their respective factor. Results indicate that the 2-factor model had better fit indices ($\chi 2 = 6.21$; df = 11; $\chi 2/df = 1.677$; GFI = .99; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .052, PCLOSE = .399) when compared to 1-factor model with fit indices ($\chi 2 = 40.62$; df = 12; $\chi 2/df = 8.123$; GFI = .94; CFI = .88; RMSEA = .169, PCLOSE = .000).

Discussions

The study was undertaken to fill a gap identified by what constitutes family variables in the Nigerian context. Filling this gap is necessary for two reasons. The first is that family variables play a major role in the management of FWC in the absence/inadequacy of organizationally provided family-friendly policies. In addressing these issues, the study established that extended family variables are distinct from other family variables by answering research questions 1 and 2.

As predicted, the results obtained indicated that extended family demand is distinct from all other components of family demand since the three-factor model representing distinct factors of marital demand, extended family demand, and parental demand have better fit indices than other competing models tested. Also, extended family support was found to be distinct from marital support since CFA results indicated that a 2-factor model was better than a 1-factor model. These results demonstrated that participants understood the family in terms of the

spouse, children, aunts, uncles, grandparents, cousins, in-laws, and other relatives as in the extended family structure. The results also confirmed what Annor (2014) and Aryee (2005) postulated while reviewing cross-cultural research in FWC. The study was restricted to establishing the uniqueness of each of the family demand and support variables.

Conclusion

The essence of the chapter is to explore the different meanings of family and the ensuing effects on WLI management. Past studies have concentrated on the nuclear family structure as the predominant structure in the world. However, some authors have questioned this assumption and concluded that there is no universal meaning for the family. This led to recommendations that studies on the work–life interface must contextually recognize the variation of family structure which is necessary because past studies have postulated or established that how the family is understood affects its functioning, socioeconomics, development, behavior, and well-being of its members (Sharma 2013). Some family structures have huge effects on the fertility of the family, and this affects the well-being of family members. This has necessitated the call for government and organizational supports to enable families to cope with the demands arising from family structure.

The chapter posits that family structures can be broadly categorized into the nuclear and extended structures, with other structures appearing to be a variation and modification of these broad categories. For instance, the polygamous and the biracial family structures are aspects of the nuclear family structure which involve more than two people and parents being different racial groups, respectively. These variations have made it difficult to have uniform family structures across countries. Again, in Nigeria, certain tribes practice the patriarchal extended family structure, while others practice the matriarchal family structure or both.

The chapter also identifies that the adoption of family structure across nations is not static but may vary from period to period. This change is driven by certain structural changes in the world such as globalization,

industrialization, fewer and late marriages, and the existence of nonmarital unions in some parts of the world. Of importance is the separation of families due to terrorism and international migration.

The extended family structure prevalent in Africa has the advantage of available resources for family members as they attempt to cope with WLI. However, these resources come with additional challenges involving financial and emotional demands arising from the relationship with extended family members. For instance, while extended family members provide the resources needed to manage WLI, they also impose financial and emotional responsibilities on the recipients of the resources. This calls for organizations to recognize the increase in employee productivity and challenges and develop policies that can help to manage these challenges.

The chapter closes with a mini study which established that indeed extra resources and challenges are created in the extended family and that they are distinct from those in the nuclear family structure. Thus, not properly identifying the family structure in Africa will give a wrong impression of how people cope with work and life demands.

Notes

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11

Revisiting the Gender Ideology: Traditional and Egalitarian Family Role Definition in Africa

Introduction

In the pre-colonial and early colonial era in Africa, work was done within the community and in the vicinity of the family, and despite the interconnectedness of work and family, there was a clear-cut distinction between both domains. In this period, there were two jobs and two people to do them; the man being the stronger was naturally assigned to work while the woman was assigned to the family. Although women sometimes assisted men, their role was distinct, and their contribution was limited to what could be done within the vicinity of the family. Although potentially stressful situations existed in each domain, a clear division of labor made these situations manageable with little adverse effects. In case of conflict, the decision as to what would give way to the other was easily established. For instance, women were expected by tradition to exit any work role that interfered with their assigned family roles.

The situation of work varied slightly during the late pre-industrial era, but the distinction of gender roles was maintained. The early industrial revolution era produced great changes in the organization of work,

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especially after the emergence of the factory system (Wren 1994; Miller 2002). Under the domestic system, families owned the raw materials as well as the processing equipment, and work was done in the home. When families could not keep up with the supply of raw materials, merchants began to do the supply. However, processing the raw materials remained at the family level and distinct gender roles were maintained. Thus, in the pre-colonial and early industrial era in Africa, the traditional gender ideology was practiced; men took charge of the work domain while women were exclusively mandated to handle all family roles.

However, when merchants decided to provide both equipment and raw materials at their chosen locations, the factory system emerged which effectively separated work from family. Factory owners wanted to control, reduce, or eliminate cheating and stealing, and to ensure high quality and as much profit as possible. They, therefore, paid less attention to the problems of workers unless these were threats to production. The factory system thus created two antagonistic groups comprising capital owners and workers. Also, the family and work interface created three roles or jobs—two in the work domain undertaken by men and women, and one in the family performed essentially by women but which could be shared with men in some cultures. Work, therefore, became a means to an end rather than an end in itself. This change in orientation inclined individuals to think and act in particular ways with regard to work and family. During this period, the western world adopted a new gender ideology, the egalitarian ideology where men and women were equally involved in the work and family domains. However, the traditional gender ideology in Africa persisted with the expectation that women should be involved in the work domain and also exclusively handle family roles (Majekodunmi 2017; Mokomane 2014). Hence, more pressure was placed on working mothers to be effective in both domains simultaneously (Patel et al. 2006). This becomes challenging for women who have to work to supplement the family income and at the same time handle the family domain as demanded by the resistant traditional gender ideology.

The chapter, therefore, reviews gender role ideology and why traditional ideology is no longer dominant in the modern world (Bolzendahl and Myers 2004). It reviews the various alternative attitudes rising

from the shift from the traditional gender role attitude. The effects of subscribing to different gender role attitudes were discussed and linked to WLI management. The chapter concludes that preferential action is required on the part of the government and organizations to help women handle the extra responsibilities arising from simultaneous involvements in the work and family domains.

Gender Ideology

The family is more important than any other institution that humans have managed, and this remains a universal fact in cultures across the world. There are however variations in how the family is understood and managed. For instance, in an individualistic culture, the family right takes second place to that of its members (Eberstadt 2019). The role of the family across cultures has changed continuously due to the changing nature of work and increased interconnectivity among cultures. For example, Eberstadt (2019, p. 1), explained that in a collectivist culture in China "family tradition is on an unavoidable collision course with the 21st century China's new demographic realities." The challenges arising from dominant gender ideology which began early in the industrial era have taken a central stage in the twenty-first century (Smyth 2008). This arose from the entry of women into the world of work which was formally reserved for men. Gender roles can be defined as the behaviors, values, and attitudes a society considers appropriate for males and females. The African traditional gender ideology assigned separate roles to men and women; men provided for the family and women took care of both the home and family.

The decisions people make in the family are driven by their dominant gender ideology (Davis and Greenstein 2009). Hence, the various roles played in the family differ depending on whether assent is made to the traditional or egalitarian ideology. The implication of this is that when analyzing the behaviors of individuals, their dominant gender role ideology must be recognized and factored in. For instance, men who subscribe to the traditional ideology will react differently to suggestions to play an active part in family responsibilities than men who subscribe

to the egalitarian role ideology. Thus, gender ideology serves as a lens through which "events are viewed, interpreted, and acted upon" (Davis and Greenstein 2009, p. 100) in the family. Gender ideology is the "support individuals have for division of paid and family roles" (Davis and Greenstein 2009, p. 89) and is based on gender-separate spheres. It is known that different gender ideologies apply in the public sphere (work domain), and in the private sphere (family domain) (see Goldscheider et al. 2011; Qian and Li 2020). For instance, in the public sphere, gender equality is subscribed to by both men and women, while in the private sphere, there is rising support for gender inequality (Qian and Li 2020). However, this chapter emphasizes gender equality in the private sphere with respect to how family responsibilities are shared. This is necessary because of the increased involvement of women in the work domain which places extra stress on them as they attempt to align with societal gender role definition.

Gender-Related Attitude

As a result of increased socialization and integration in the world, men and women subscribe to various gender attitudes despite the gender ideology that they were initially socialized with from birth. While individuals naturally inherit a gender ideology from their ancestors, they may develop attitudes that drive their actual behavior toward other gender ideologies. Since gender equality seems to converge in the work domain, the emphasis in this discussion is on the family domain. Hence, gender-related attitude reflects people's support for the division of responsibilities in the family domain. Past studies have identified three possible attitudes that can be held by people (Brewster and Padavic 2000; Dicke et al. 2019; Mays 2018). These are the traditional, egalitarian, and neotraditional or transitional ideologies. Those who hold the traditional attitude subscribe to the full responsibility of women in the family domain while the men do nothing. In the egalitarian gender attitude, people subscribe to the belief that men and women should share family roles equally, while in the neotraditional or transitional gender attitude, it is believed that men and women can share family responsibilities but not equally

(Moen and Yu 2000; Moen and Sweet 2003). Thus, in the first and third ideologies, gender inequality is allowed, while the second subscribes to gender equality. Women in the neotraditional family often work part-time to bear the burden of a "second shift" in the family. "Second shift" occurs when a woman is involved in paid work on at least an equal basis as her male partner but still takes care of disproportionate levels of domestic work. The role of the man in such a family is participation in the work domain, leaving most of the family responsibilities to the woman. However, men also experience the second shift which arises from holding certain gender attitudes. This second shift occurs when men do some quantity of domestic work and a greater amount of paid work (see Fig. 11.1). In a more socially integrated society where the dominant attitude is egalitarian, the actual sharing of family roles between men and women occurs often.

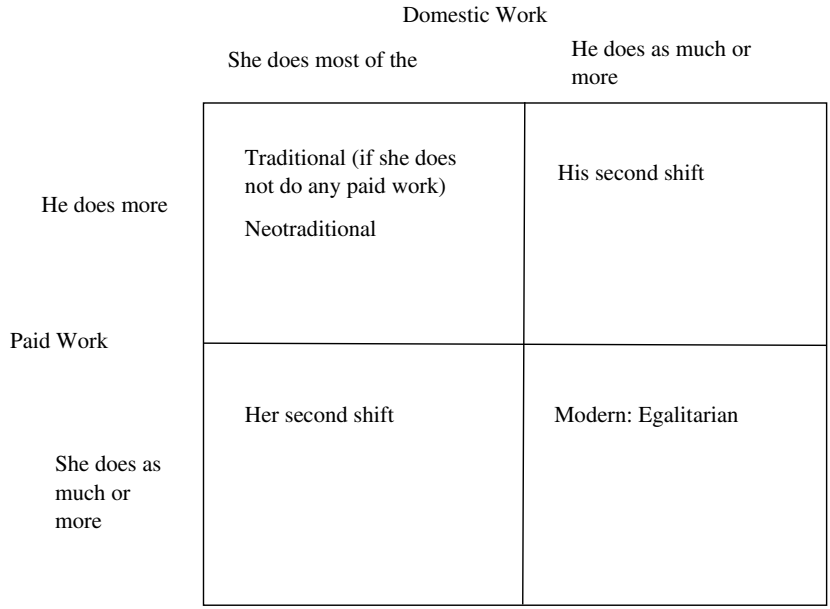

Fig. 11.1 Distribution of gender attitude (*Source* Adapted from World Family Mapping [2015,[1] p. 59])

Qian and Li (2020) identified that men and women hold different gender attitudes despite being raised in the same culture. The dominant gender attitude is located between the extremes of traditional and egalitarian gender attitudes and is labeled as neotraditional or transitional gender attitude. For instance, Tereškinas (2010) found that among Lithuanians, the dominant attitude is the neotraditional or transitional gender attitude. Barriers to achieving a true egalitarian gender attitude include cultural norms, the dominant disposition of the individual, and the belief of the larger society toward gender equality. Some researchers argue that in many cases, the egalitarian family is more an ideal type than a real attitude people can hold (Maume 2006; Thornton and Young-DeMarco 2001). The western world has attempted to define and implement the pure egalitarian belief system with little success (Deutsch 1999). They have also attempted to sell the concept to Africa and other nations with partial success (Valian 1998). Using the equality in opportunity laws, the attempt appeared successful in the work domain but did not create gender equality in the family domain. Past authors have insinuated that this achievement has resulted in the creation of a middle ground gender attitude—neotraditional/transitional—where men and women are involved in the work domain but share family responsibilities, with the woman bearing most of the responsibilities (Moen and Yu 2000; Moen and Sweet 2003). Gender attitude affects the formation, quality, and continuation of family relationships and support for the division of labor (Davis et al. 2007; Lendon and Silverstein 2012; Qian and Sayer 2016), labor entry, and working hours (Dodson and Di Borders 2006; Corrigall and Konrad 2007). Figure 11.1 shows the various adoptable forms of gender attitude.

A gradual reduction of the traditional toward the egalitarian attitude has been observed over time and in some cultures. In these places, a pure egalitarian attitude is not easily achieved. Social changes have led to the emergence of two factors (gender equality policies and acquisition of equal opportunity in the labor market by women) which are responsible for the movement from the traditional to egalitarian gender attitude (Beck and Beck-Gernsheim 1995; Giddens 1992). However, there remains an intensive struggle in gender identity and equality (Chambers 2001). For instance, the traditional gender attitude is highly

resistant to change in Africa due to the social norm that men and women do not have equal rights (Amah 2019; Valian 1998). It is also discovered that the neotraditional/transitional gender attitude has acquired preeminence due to the slow adoption of the egalitarian attitude in cultures across the world.

One reason for the slow movement from the traditional to the egalitarian gender attitude in Africa is the slow adoption of the latter. The dominant African gender ideology sees household chores and childcare as exclusive responsibilities of women (Amah 2019). This system lowers the egalitarian attitude of men and women, leading to the preservation of the traditional gender attitude (Raley et al. 2006). Such an environment compels women to view the society role definition as given and to adjust their equality expectations accordingly. This is contrary to the expectations of working mothers as captured by past studies to the effect that most women desire gender equality. For example, Tereškinas (2010) found that 86% of women think women should not abandon work for family compared to the 14% who agreed to do so. The situation where women's equality expectations are not met will lead to maladjustment and their inability to integrate work and family demands. The situation women found themselves produces cognitive dissonance which is detrimental to the management of stress and achievement of WLI. To further complicate these issues, men in such a society see involvement in family responsibility as optional and goodwill since paid work has been assigned to them by the society. Tables 11.1 and 11.2 show the percentage of gender attitude in the work and family domains across regions. The first

Table 11.1 Gender attitude of men and women in paid work across regions

Gender attitude	South Africa	Asia	US	Western Europe
Reverse tradition (she does more than he)	7	8	14	5
Egalitarian (She and he share)	39	28	28	25
Neotraditional (he does more than she)	22	25	27	46
Traditional (He does all paid work)	32	39	32	24

Source Adapted from World Family Mapping (2015,[1] p. 63)

Table 11.2 Gender attitude of men and women in the family across regions

Gender attitude	South Africa	Asia	US	Western Europe
Reverse tradition (he does more than she)	7	10	8	5
Egalitarian (She and he share domestic work)	25	18	27	20
Neotraditional (She does more than he does)	59	65	65	73
Traditional (She does all domestic work)	10	8	0	2

Source Adapted from World Family Mapping (2015,[1] p. 63)

observation from the tables is that there has been some movement from the traditional to the egalitarian attitude in the family domain across all regions, with South Africa having the least movement (Thomas 1995). The second is that in all the regions, the neotraditional attitude remained high, which favors some level of responsibility sharing but not gender equality in the family. The third is that a percentage of people subscribe to reverse tradition where the man takes on a higher responsibility in domestic work, while the woman takes on a higher responsibility in the work domain. The fourth is that even in the work domain no region has achieved 100% movement to egalitarian gender ideology as expected from equal opportunity work policies.

Outcomes and Antecedents of the Gender Attitude of Individuals

Egalitarian reform in the family has a positive effect on the performance of family members. For instance, Fernandez-Cornejo et al. (2018) found out that when fathers take paternity leave, it increases their involvement in family roles and alleviates the negative effects of women's involvement in the work domain. It also improves children's welfare (Huerta et al. 2013; Pleck 2007) and advances mothers in the workplace due to the movement toward "re-traditionalism" and higher gender-based division of labor in the family (Schober 2011). The desire and actual involvement of men in the family responsibility is a function of their

egalitarian attitude which affects the effectiveness of women in the work and family domains (Davis and Greenstein 2009). Organizational factors which affect the development of egalitarian gender attitude by men include low level of encouragement in paternity involvement and organizations' family-friendly policies (Kaufman 2013). The egalitarian gender attitude is malleable and can be attributed to cultural and structural factors (Lendon and Silverstein 2012). For instance, if society thinks mothers' involvement in the work domain negatively affects child development, the development of egalitarian gender attitude will be hampered (Brewster and Padavic 2000).

Mays (2018) showed that the higher the job satisfaction of women, the higher their egalitarian gender attitude. This implies that women would prefer gender equality in the public and private spheres of life to maintain a high level of satisfaction in each domain. Gender role attitude affects employment and family tradeoffs (Ammons and Edgell 2007), marital quality and marital stability (Davis and Greenstein 2004; Wilcox and Nock 2006), parental involvement with children (Gaunt 2006), marital decision-making (Godwin and Scanzoni 1989), perceived equality in household labor (Braun et al. 2008), and housework patterns (Presser 1994). Traditional gender attitude is negatively related to educational attainment and alignment to nonscientific jobs (Dicke et al. 2019). Gender role attitude affects the desire of men to take on a greater share of household chores and enhances women's perception of fairness in the distribution of household chores (Nordenmark 2004; Nordenmark and Nyman 2003).

Using samples from Pakistan, Zaman et al. (2013) established that there was an unending conflict between an individual's preferred gender attitude and the established societal gender ideology. The authors concluded that societal predetermined gender ideology was more influential and more important than the preference of individuals. This means that in cultures with preassigned gender roles, the desire of individuals to enact their preferred attitude when it runs counter to the pre-assigned attitude will take the backstage (Tereškinas 2010).

It has also been established that living in urban and developed cities enhances the development of the egalitarian gender attitude (Davis and Greenstein 2009). Gender attitude development is also driven by interest

and experience. For instance, if an individual finds the egalitarian belief system beneficial, such a person is likely to adopt the egalitarian belief. Similarly, exposure to ideas and situations that support gender equality will enhance the adoption of the egalitarian gender attitude. Men who through experience have been socialized to believe in gender inequality will not adopt the egalitarian gender attitude to avoid cognitive dissonance. Gender attitude can be intergenerationally transmitted such that children whose parents hold the attitude will likely be socialized into such belief systems (Sutfin et al. 2008).

Exposure-based causes of gender role attitude include religious beliefs, living in an environment with fundamentalists, participation in labor force, and education (Davis and Greenstein 2009). Religion has also been questioned as a possible determinant of gender attitude (Denton 2004). This relationship can be explained using the exposure-based determinant of gender role attitude. Three religious activities namely, "religious affiliation, worship service attendance, and Biblical literalism" (Whitehead 2012, p. 141) provide exposure to individuals that predispose them to certain gender role attitudes. It is possible to infer an individual's preferred gender role attitude by studying his place of worship and the religious activities subscribed to by the group. Though the link between religion and gender attitude is complex, past studies have established that high commitment to religious beliefs can reinforce the traditional gender attitude and discourage the egalitarian gender attitude (Hertel and Hughes 1987). Whitehead (2012) established that those who subscribe to the ideology that God is a man would be aligned to the traditional gender role attitude. Individuals who are exposed to a high level of fundamentalist beliefs are also likely to develop a preference for the traditional attitude than the egalitarian attitude (Baker et al. 2009; Moore and Vanneman 2003). Education exposes individuals to gender equality principles and will thus enhance preference for the egalitarian gender role attitude and movement away from traditional gender role attitude (Bolzendahl and Myers 2004; Cunningham 2005). Participation in the labor force by both young women and men increases their exposure to gender equality which drives the development of the egalitarian gender role attitude in the family (Bolzendahl and Myers 2004; Cunningham et al. 2005).

Conclusion

The chapter positions gender attitude as a necessary variable in the management of WLI. This is due to the many negative consequences of the traditional and neotraditional gender ideologies (Dicke et al. 2019; Nordenmark 2004; Nordenmark and Nyman 2003) which exacerbate work–life conflict and make WLI difficult. Alternatively, the egalitarian gender ideology has many positive consequences (Ammons and Edgell 2007; Braun et al. 2008; Davis and Greenstein 2004; Godwin and Scanzoni 1989; Gaunt 2006; Wilcox and Nock 2006) which can enhance the management of work–life interface and WLI. The chapter identifies that while nations can hold a dominant gender ideology attitude, individuals within the territory may also hold different gender ideology attitudes. The dominant national or regional gender ideology and the specific gender ideology help individuals interact in complex ways to determine their reactions to gender equality principles. The chapter concludes that there are three gender ideological attitudes that nations and individuals can hold depending on their belief in gender equality. These are the traditional, egalitarian, neotraditional, or transitional gender role attitudes. The oldest attitude subscribed to by most regions in the past is the traditional gender role attitude. In Africa, this corresponds to a period when work and family were divided along gender lines, with men in the more strenuous work roles and women in family roles. However, the traditional gender ideology is no longer the dominant gender ideology in most nations. Social and economic factors have driven the movement to the more acceptable egalitarian gender ideology. As indicated by World Family Mapping (2015)[1] however, the adoption of the egalitarian gender ideology is not universal, and no region has completely migrated to the egalitarian gender ideology. Figure 11.2 shows the two extremes of gender ideology in a continuum with a central ideology which varies depending on how far a nation is from the two extremes. The two extremes represent gender inequality and gender equality, respectively. In the gender inequality belief system, there is gender role distinction, while in the gender equality system, men and women are involved in the work domain and share family responsibilities equally. There is a middle

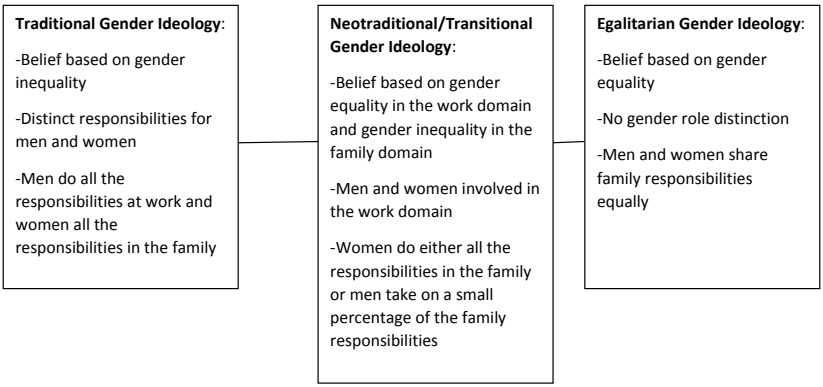

Fig. 11.2 The gender ideology continuum

ideology that reflects various combinations of the involvement of men and women in the family domain.

In this mid-way, men and women are allowed in the work domain while they share family roles but not on equal terms as recommended by the egalitarian gender ideology. This gave rise to what is referred to as "his second shift" and "her second shift" (see Fig. 11.1). Nations that are drifting closer to the egalitarian ideology will allocate more family responsibilities to men but never up to that of women.

Although there has been a considerable shift from the traditional ideology to the egalitarian ideology, the move is not equal in all regions, and the African region seems to have made the least progress (see Table 11.1). This agrees with the postulation of Ejumudo (2013) that gender equality has relatively been achieved in other regions of the world except in sub-Saharan African. Commenting on gender inequality in Nigeria, Obiukwu (2019) stated that in the country, gender bias is keeping women down and preventing the economy from growing to its potential due to the low contribution of women who form almost half of the entire population. The situation in Nigeria and most African countries is not likely to change soon to conform with the United Nations Millennium Development Goals because the patriarchal norms, attitudes and practices "is still ingrained in men and it is demonstrated both consciously and unconsciously, despite the general drive for a meaningful

change in gender relations through policy initiatives and actions as well as sundry international conventions and accords to which Nigeria is a signatory" (Ejumudo 2013, p. 63). Most other regions seem stagnated in the neotraditional/transitional gender ideology in the family domain (see Table 11.1). From the definition of this gender ideology (see Fig. 11.2), it means that women are placed under much pressure due to the disproportionate level of responsibility they take on in the family domain despite their involvement in the work domain like their male counterparts. Thus, women will be unable to achieve WLI unless considerable help comes from extended family members, the organization, and the nation. Some women, however, resort to the use of commercial house helps with negative consequences (Amah 2019).

Though nations have dominant gender ideologies, individuals within a nation may subscribe to different gender ideologies. Past studies have shown that when couples hold the egalitarian ideology, they are willing to share family responsibilities equally (Fernandez-Cornejo et al. 2018). In this way, the women will have less pressure arising from the family. How the dominant regional gender ideology interacts with an individual's gender ideology attitude to enhance WLI is complex and may end up exacerbating the work–life conflict of women even when they hold the egalitarian gender belief (Zaman et al. 2013). This is because the preferred gender ideology attitude of an individual takes backstage when it conflicts with the strong and dominant regional gender ideology (Tereškinas 2010). There are situations in which the attempt to resolve cognitive dissonance prevents men from enacting their preferred gender ideology attitude when it is contrary to the gender ideology they have been socialized to accept. Cognitive dissonance is the psychological discomfort that occurs when an individual holds two inconsistent cognitions (Festinger 1957). For instance, in Africa, men are socialized to assume the father figure which is seen as superior to other figures. When such a person is exposed to an environment that encourages the egalitarian gender ideology, the person will develop cognitive dissonance which must be resolved. Most times, the resolution is in favor of the dominant gender ideology. Thus, gender ideology may be a major impediment in the achievement of WLI and this fact must be factored in helping employees to manage their WLI. If gender ideology

is not considered in the provision of policies for WLI management, resources may be wasted. Gender ideology is malleable, and many social, individual, and organizational factors can help employees to effectively develop the egalitarian gender ideology.

Note

1. World Family Mapping. 2015. Mapping family change and child wellbeing. http://www.socialtrendsinstitute.org/upload/2015_WorldFamilyMap_SocialTrendsInstitute_english.pdf.

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12

Understanding the Multidimensional and Multifunctional Approach in Managing Work–Life

Introduction

Chapter 1 emphasizes the need to consider the management of WLI from a multidimensional perspective based on the realization that family-friendly policies are not the only way to achieve WLI (Foucreault et al. 2018). Most studies view the concept of WLI from the angle of family-friendly policies and family resources only (see. Bloom et al. 2009; Bloom and Reenan 2006; Blyton et al., 2006; Kaiser et al. 2011; Mokomane 2014; Powell et al. 2019; Poelman and Caligiuri 2008; Sjöberg 2008). The current book, however, conceptualizes that the achievement of WLI depends on factors from three perspectives namely: organizational, individual, and family and cultural perspectives. Specific factors within these perspectives were reviewed and how they affect WLI achievement was identified (see Fig. 12.1 below). This chapter describes the other chapters in the book that address specific factors in the multidimensional approach to managing work–life integration.

Chapter 2 reviews the meaning of two terms "work–life integration" and "work–life balance" which have been taken as interchangeable by some researchers (Akinyele et al. 2016; Dresdale 2016; Grady and

O. E. Amah and M. Ogah, *Work-life Integration in Africa*,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-69113-4_12

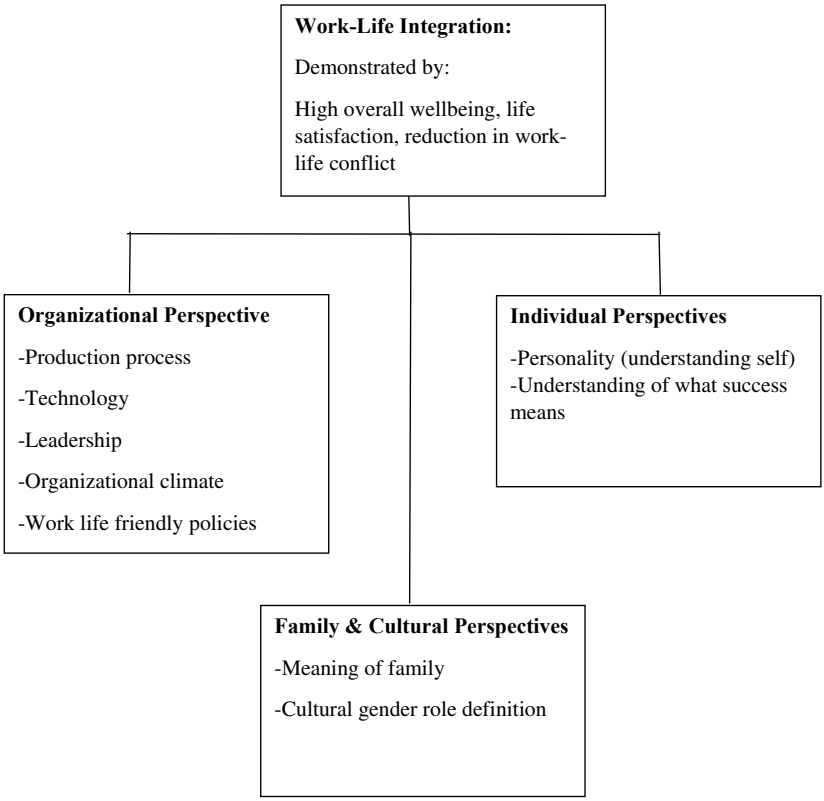

Fig. 12.1 Perspectives that determine work–life integration (*Source* Author)

McCarthy 2008). In doing this, the chapter identifies two other understandings of the relationship between the two terms. The first rejects WLB as a concept, insinuating that it is a western concept useful only in the western context and irrelevant in others (Abubaker and Bagley 2016; Atsumi 2007). The third group of researchers believes that the two constructs, WLI and WLB are distinct due to the difference in the meaning of the words "balance" and integration," the former emphasizing equality and the latter connoting resource management and allocation in achieving high overall well-being (Clark 2000; Frame and

Hartog 2003; Reiter 2007). Hence, WLI was defined as "achieving satisfying experience in all life domains and to do so resources must be well distributed across domains" (Kirchmeyer 2000, p. 50).

Chapter 3 focuses on productivity process as an integral aspect of work–life integration; what constitutes the elements of productivity at individual and organizational levels. Among others, the relationship subsisting between productivity process and WLI was explored as the basis for a creative and integrated process flow both for individuals and organizations as units for building a healthy society. The chapter also discusses the role of productivity procedure, elements of inputs, and optimal output flow. The components of an ideal and practical productivity procedure and productivity quotient at the individual and organizational levels were explored—identification of value-add component of work–life integration and its relationship with productivity.

Chapter 4 focuses on the impact of technology on WLI. Discussions include how the evolving nature of technology has impacted WLI as a multifaceted construct in the twenty-first century. It also addresses how this relationship has metamorphosed into varied outcomes of self-esteem, competing for demands of family and society. The chapter addresses the following: how technology has engendered a technology-enabled work ecosystem, the seamless integration of other life components, and how technology is an intrinsic part of the operations structure. The chapter identifies that information and its flow provide the glue that holds the structure—physical or virtual—together and facilitates infrastructural decisions. It insinuates that the implementation of a new information system or the introduction of a revolutionary new technology can transform the competitive or working environment and will influence how people manage WLI.

Chapter 5 traces the trend in the history of work–life friendly policies. It identifies that in the history of human involvement with work and other domains, the need for family-friendly policies did not exist since little spillover of events subsisted between the work and nonwork domains due to clear role differentiation and accountability for role performance in the domains. In the industrial revolution era, coupled with the increased participation of women in the work domain, there was an increase in the level of work–life conflict, necessitating the need

for work–life friendly policies. Africa is in a worse state owing to the resistant traditional family structure which assigns family roles exclusively to women even when they are involved in the work domain. The chapter reports that the first set of work–life policies were introduced by law and were inadequate to cater for the demand of a diverse workforce; more so, implementation was ineffective, leading to nonuniformity in implementation across organizations in the public and private sector. Hence, organizations introduced discretionary policies aimed at supplementing those stated by the law. Furthermore, organizational climate and leadership behaviors created barriers to the effectiveness of the policies. For instance, some organizations selectively implemented the policies to different categories of employees. Those labeled as insiders were given more leverage in the use of the policies, and more policies were made available to them. It was stated that the actions of organizational leaders were responsible for this failure. To understand the differences in response to work–life policies, organizations were categorized into four distinct groups, each exhibiting different attitudes to the number of allowed policies and level of support offered. The integrators who provided a high number of policies and a high level of support obtained greater productivity from their employees and their employees had the highest well-being.

Chapter 6 states that employees face two challenges, namely, high level of stress, and slow organizational response in form of policies to aid WLI management. It identifies that organizations provide various policies with the hope of helping employees manage WLI and enhancing organizational productivity. In doing this, however, some organizations overemphasized the policies established by law and did not go the extra mile to establish discretionary ones. The policies established by the organizations were categorized into those which enhance hard factors such as productivity increase, financial performance, turnover, absenteeism, and recruitment and retention, and those which enhance soft factors such as employee morale, attitudes, and commitment (the latter factors being mediators of the relationship between work–life policies and WLI management). Providing policies is only one side of the equation, the other being the provision of an environment that encourages usage of the policies. When organizations have policies and favorable

climates, they obtain highly effective employees with high well-being. Such a situation is achieved by the collaboration between the organization (in setting up the policies) and employees (in using the policies). The main contribution of this chapter is the study on the effectiveness of policies established by organizations in Lagos, Nigeria. Results indicate that when the two factors needed for the effectiveness of work–life policies are jointly unavailable, organizations will not derive the benefits expected from investment in the policies. This was attributed to the roles of organizational leaders who do not encourage policy usage by their employees. Two such climates are lack of managerial support and career consequences of using the policies. These climates render useless the huge investment organizations make in providing work–life friendly policies.

Chapter 7 highlights the role that leadership mindset and behavior play in the creation of a work climate that either encourages or hinders the achievement of WLI. It demonstrates that leadership behavior is the physical aspect of leadership recognized in any organization, but the real drivers are leadership motive and mindset. Leadership trainings must therefore incorporate these two to properly achieve change in leadership behavior. The chapter recognizes employees' and leaders' emotional intelligence as critical factors in the effectiveness of individuals in organizations with increasing interdependence. Hence, WLI management is linked to individuals' emotional intelligence. Employees' EI has a direct effect on how they manage WLI, while leaders' emotional intelligence affects employees' EI and is responsible for the creation of an environment that either supports or deters employees' efforts at achieving WLI. A study in Nigeria identified that the climate created by organizational leaders invalidated investment in work–life policies since it did not support policy usage, thereby resulting in high work–life conflict and low life satisfaction of employees. A major development of the chapter is the categorization of leadership behavior into four typologies based on leadership mindset and motive and establishing the typology that effectively creates the positive climate.

Chapter 8 discusses personality differences and how they play out in WLI management. Self-Care behaviors were recognized as a major link in the relationship between personality differences and the work–nonwork

interface. Results from past empirical studies that did not include Self-Care behaviors showed that only a small amount of the variance in the work–nonwork interface was explained. The chapter advocates that Self-Care behaviors affect the work–nonwork interface directly, and act as moderators of the relationship between personality differences and the interface such that individuals who utilize Self-Care behaviors will have a better fit with their work–nonwork interface, improved well-being, and achieve WLI. The individual differences studied include behaviors associated with being a segregator or integrator, the Big-Five personality trait, core self-evaluation, DiSC, and the specific personality behavior of working mothers. The conclusion was that though some personality differences tend to exacerbate the effects of work–nonwork conflict (even when family-friendly policies are available), such personality differences can still achieve WLI if the individuals adopt Self-Care behaviors to compensate for the negative tendencies. For example, integrators have the tendency to take work home which will exacerbate the tendency to manage life responsibilities. What is then required is for such individuals to identify and recognize these tendencies and proactively work to mitigate the negative effects using Self-Care behaviors.

Chapter 9 highlights how the meaning of life, successful life, the book of life, and the wheel of life collectively enhance the management of WLI, stating that what constitutes the meaning of life will affect an individual's definition of a successful life, and ultimately affect WLI. For example, those who emphasize narrow domains of life will poorly define the meaning of life, have a poor understanding of successful life, and will struggle to achieve WLI regardless of the number of policies offered by their organization. The chapter stipulates that the meaning of life is individually recognized and that those who do not take responsibility for this will live the life of others or the larger society. Similarly, what constitutes successful life is also individually defined, as no one can define for another what successful life means. Individuals are free to judge the meaning of life and successful life, but each person will live with the consequence of his/her definition. For instance, those who comprehend life as not including the spiritual domain will understand success outside spiritual achievements. However, such an individual will live with the consequence of the lapses in his definition. Developing the

book of life was recommended as a way of understanding the meaning of life. A successful life is gauged by overall well-being which is the cumulative sum of the levels of well-being in each domain of life. This makes it necessary to emphasize numerous domains since the loss in well-being arising from neglected domains cannot be compensated by the well-being derived in overemphasized domains. For instance, one who underemphasizes family and utilizes all his/her resources in the work domain cannot compensate for the loss in well-being in the family with that of the work domain. The individual will end up with lower overall well-being than when he/she emphasizes both domains. The chapter concludes by recommending the wheel of life as a tool for establishing levels of well-being and continuously optimizing these levels throughout the life of an individual.

Chapter 10 advocates that every study must recognize how the family is understood in context. The assumption by some western studies that the nuclear family structure is universal was challenged since authors from other regions have insinuated that no universal definition of the family structure will apply to all nations of the world (Miller 2002; Rothausen 1999). It further establishes the two broad categorizations of family structure: the nuclear and extended family structures, stating that all other structures are modifications of these two. To manage the WLI of employees, the understanding of family in the employee's context is necessary since it will drive the establishment of policies that align with the demands of the resulting family structure. For instance, the nuclear family structure will involve responsibilities for parents and children, while the extended family structure will involve additional responsibilities arising from involvement with extended family members. Hence, policies to effectively manage issues in the two-family structures must vary. The concluding mini study established that the extended family structure leads to additional resources and demands on employees, hence, proper coordination is required to derive the benefits of the structure and minimize the effects of the challenges.

Chapter 11 identifies gender ideology as a critical factor in WLI management. This is because the gender ideologies held by regions and individuals may have negative or positive consequences on WLI management. The chapter identifies three gender ideologies that can be held:

traditional, egalitarian, and neotraditional/transitional. The traditional ideology has negative consequences on WLI management in the modern world where work is no longer dominated by the male gender. The neotraditional/transitional ideology also has negative consequences on WLI management, but these are ameliorated when men are willing to share a substantial portion of family responsibility with women. The egalitarian ideology that subscribes to gender equality offers the best avenue for WLI management since both men and women involved in the work domain share family responsibilities equally. However, reviewing the shift by most regions from the traditional to the egalitarian ideology, past authors have insinuated that the latter is utopic (Mapping 2015[1]). Despite the distinct effects of regional dominant gender ideology and individuals' preferred gender ideology, the two constructs interact in a complex way and the results obtained are often complicated by cognitive dissonance. A major conclusion is that although regions have drifted from the predominant traditional gender ideology based on gender inequality, the movement is at a mid-point ideology which is not as detrimental as the traditional gender ideology but is far from the desired egalitarian gender ideology. This means that the dominant gender ideology is still detrimental to women's effectiveness in the work and family domains. More so, more progress has been made by the western world than Africa. Gender ideology must therefore be managed to enhance WLI, particularly for women.

Developing a Multidimensional Model of Work–Life Integration

To understand the complex nature of considering WLI from a multidimensional perspective, a multidimensional model comprising of all the variables discussed in this book is developed and discussed. Figure 12.2 shows the WLI model developed from the discussions in the book chapters. The model took a system view in which inputs, process, and output are associated with the model. The system view recognizes that many variables constitute input to the management of work–life interface and WLI. However, many of these variables have not been accounted

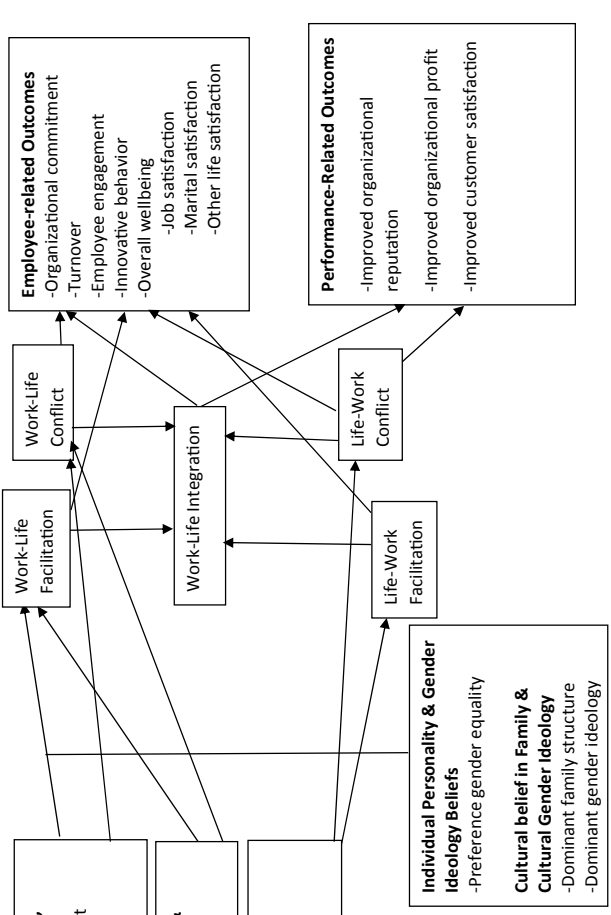

Fig. 12.2 System view of a proposed model of work–life integration (*Source* Author)

for in existing research on the work–life interface. For instance, the model shows that the WLI has the potential to mediate the relationship between variables in the organization, individual, and family (inputs), and outcomes of WLI.

Input Variables

Organizational structure, process, policies, leadership, and technology constitute components of the broad organizational component of the model. These components can be further subdivided into hard aspects (structures, processes, policies, and technology) and soft aspects (leadership and organizational climates created by leaders). Policies include work–life friendly policies aimed at helping individuals cope with the demands of work. In organizational behavior, the hard aspects are created by leadership behaviors and preferences. Hence, leadership becomes the main driver of an organization's contribution to WLI management.

Moderating and Mediating Variables

Distinct personality and gender ideology preferences constitute the contribution of an individual in the management of WLI. This component contains the different personality differences of individuals and their preferred gender ideology. The cultural belief in the family and the cultural gender ideology constitute the contribution of national culture to WLI management. This component captures the dominant family structure and gender ideology held by the nation. These are ingrained in individuals during socialization and may be resistant to change even when it is beneficial to both individuals and organizations.

The Process Variables

In an input-output model, inputs are "processed" in the intermediate processes to derive the expected outcome. This portion contains both distal and antecedent variables which give rise to outputs in the model. The distal variables consist of the four components of the work–life interface, namely, work–life facilitation, work–life conflict, life–work facilitation, and life–work conflict. These constitute the immediate outcome of the input portion of the model and are antecedents of the WLI. The model postulates that the immediate antecedent of the output of the model is work–life integration. Most studies terminate at the level of the effects of the four components of the work–life interface on outputs, and do not consider the role of four components of the work–life interface on work–life integration (see Frone 2003; Amah 2019; Graves et al. 2007; Hammer et al. 2005; Rantanen et al. 2005). The studies also do not account for the relationship between WLI and the outcomes variables in the model.

The Output Variables

These consist of employee-related outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover, employee engagement, innovative behavior, marital satisfaction, and overall well-being. Employees with these outcomes tend to project the organization positively, thereby leading to organizational-related outcomes which include improved reputation, improved profit, and improved customer satisfaction. All these will affect the organizations' bottom line and help enhance their human resources management strategy, especially recruitment.

The developed multidimensional model is complex and must be tested in segments to understand the relationships among the variables. The complexity of the model lies in the fact that it includes the scarcity model and the enrichment model (Frone et al. 1992; Greenhaus and Powell 2006). The complexity of the model leads to some methodological, conceptual, and measurement challenges which are discussed in the

next chapter. The model by Hill et al. (2004) included a variable work–family fit in their model as a direct antecedent of outcome variables and thus came very close to the model developed in this chapter. However, there are three main differences, namely, their model utilized the scarcity model and not the enrichment model, their model contained variables in the work and family domains and did not include variables in other life components, and finally, their model did not consider the cultural and family system variation captured in this model. The model by Lu et al. (2015) included the scarcity and enrichment model but did not account for variables in other life components as well as cultural and family system variation. In order to establish the causal process at work in the relationship between work and family ten Brummelhius and Bakker (2012) developed the work–home resources model. The authors categorized resources into contextual and personal resources and postulated that contextual resources and demands in the work and home domains affect outcomes in each domain through their effects on personal resources. There are two issues associated with this model. The first is that it did not consider the resources and demands associated with the multidimensional factors considered in the book. The second is that resources may not always be advantageous and so there is the need to understand when and how they are effective (Bakker and de Vries 2021; Veldhoven et al. 2020). This means that any comprehensive model must consider resources and demands in the multidimensional perspectives advocated in this book.

Note

1. World Family Mapping. 2015. Mapping family change and child wellbeing. http://www.socialtrendsinstitute.org/upload/2015_WorldFamilyMap_SocialTrendsInstitute_english.pdf.

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13

Future Directions of Work–Life Integration Research in Africa

Summary of the Trends in Work–Life Interface Study

Past studies have reviewed the trends in work, family, and gender role ideology research, and available models that represented the work–family interface and have insinuated that certain gaps need to be filled to locate an accurate model for explaining events in the work–life interface (Bauman 2001; Beck 2000; van der Lippe et al. 2006). Studies involving the work–family interface were originally based on the role theory and the scarcity model (Edwards and Rothbard 2000; Kahn et al. 1964) with conflicts assumed to be the result of multiple involvements in the work and family domains. It was generally believed that involvement in one domain made it difficult to be effective in another domain (Tennant and Sperry 2003). Frone et al. (1992) proposed the early work–family interface model in which a multidimensional conflict was proposed with work–family conflict and family–work conflict as components. Work variables were postulated as antecedents of work–family conflict, while family variables were postulated as antecedents of

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family–work conflict. The two components of the interface were stipulated as having reciprocal relationships through which events from one domain spilled over to other domains (Ahmad 2008; Ashforth et al. 2000; William and Alliger 1994). The models reported outcomes such as psychological distress (Frone et al. 1997), and alcohol use (Frone 2003). Owing to the inconsistent results obtained by past studies, individual differences were introduced as possible moderators of the relationship (Rantanen et al. 2005). Individual differences represented at this phase of the studies were those that are central to individuals and gender role orientation (Ahmad 2008; Harris and Firestone 1998).

This thinking dominated the understanding of the relationship between family and work in the early period of work and family domain studies. This was necessitated by the increased participation of women in the work domain despite their sole responsibilities as home keepers (Jackson et al. 2003). Hence, the emphasis was on helping women manage additional responsibilities arising from their new role in the work domain (Higgins et al. 2000). Other factors that made these studies popular were the realization that the work and family interface affect individual well-being and has other negative consequences (Karatepe and Tekinkus 2006).

As a result of the introduction of positive psychology in work–family interface studies (Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi 2000), the overemphasis on the scarcity model was challenged. Role theory points to enrichment obtained from involvement in multiple domains, while the broaden-and-build theory explains how this enrichment provides benefits transferred between the work and family domains (Carlson et al. 2014; Fredrickson 1998; Greenhaus and Powell 2006). This thinking gave rise to the enrichment model where it was believed that "experiences gained in one domain can improve effectiveness in another domain" (Greenhaus and Powell 2006, p. 73). This further gave rise to the multidimensional and bi-directional work–family facilitation and family–work facilitation. For example, skills such as self-efficacy developed in the work domain can improve performance in the family domain. Measures of work–family facilitation and family–work facilitation have been developed and relationships established between the constructs and some outcome variables such as decreased psychological

strain (Graves et al. 2007), and employee self-esteem (Grzywacz and Butler 2005). Numerous studies have independently explored the role of work–family conflict and family–work conflict (Amah 2019; Grzywacz and Marks 2000), and the independent model of work–family facilitation and family–work facilitation has also been postulated and studied (Hammer et al. 2005; Grzywacz 2000), but it is not as much as that of the conflict model (Demerouti and Geurts 2004).

Work–family research from this era focused on both directions of influence and type of effects. The direction is from work to family, and the effect is either conflict or facilitation. Hence, Frone (2003), Innstrand et al. (2008), and Proost et al. (2010) presented the four-fold taxonomy of the work–family interface resulting from the consideration of the scarcity and enrichment hypothesis. The four-fold taxonomy include work–family conflict, work–family facilitation, family–work conflict, and family–work facilitation.

Both the antecedents and outcomes of work–family conflicts and work–family facilitations have received considerable interest in past studies (Bakker et al. 2011; Baral and Bhargava 2011; Boyar and Mosley 2007; Eldor et al. 2016; Ouweneel et al. 2012). Antecedents of enrichment have been traced to both contextual and personal differences variables. Contextual variables are in the context of work and family such as leadership behavior, family-friendly policies and characteristics of work and family (Lapierre et al. 2017), personal differences include personality types and individual perceptions of events in the work and family domains (Lapierre et al. 2017; Wayne et al. 2007), core self-evaluation (Boyar and Mosley 2007; McNall et al. 2011), and individual outcomes variables such as health and well-being, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover (Crain and Hammer 2013; Kinnunen et al. 2013; McNall et al. 2010), and family and life satisfaction (Crain and Hammer 2013).

Studies have also recognized that work–family conflict and facilitation are distinct and must be recognized to properly articulate the reactions of individuals to events in the work and family domains (Demerouti et al. 2013; Schenewark and Dixon 2012). Although it has been suggested that the enrichment model has better outcomes than the conflict model (Demerouti and Geurts 2004), elsewhere in the work-interface literature,

studies have stipulated that both constructs will combine to establish the integration of work and family (Frone 2003; Grzywacz et al. 2008). This implies that a model that contains the two constructs will more accurately determine the well-being of individuals (which is a measure of the individual's ability to integrate work and family demands) (Rantanen et al. 2011). What seems to be understudied is the combination of the four constructs in a model to understand the dynamics between them and their effects on the work–family interface (Bellavia and Frone 2005; Greenhaus and Powell 2006). The approach taken by this book is that a better definition of the dynamics in the work-life interface can be obtained when the scarcity and enrichment models are jointly studied. The absence of a model that captures the role of the conflict and facilitation constructs is a gap in early work–family interface studies. According to Marks and MacDermid (1996) and Valcour (2007), balance can only be achieved by considering the four taxonomies that represent the work–family interface.

Another development in the study of the work–life interface is the shift to studying specific groups of individuals (Begall and Mills 2011; Yu and Kuo 2017; Zhou et al. 2018). For example, Yu and Kuo (2017) studied the work–family interface for single parents and parenthood intentions, while Amah (2019), Janssen et al. (2004), McGinnis (2003), Wang et al. (2004) studied for married women with children at home. These studies identified specific variables that affected the management of WLI for each group of individuals.

A third development in the work–life interface studies is the realization of the variations in the strength and nature of the relationships in the work–life interface model arising from cultural differences. This development challenged the belief held in western cultures that results obtained from work–life interface studies are applicable around the world (Cheng and Kalleberg 1996; Yu and Kuo 2017). However, the cultural variation in the results across cultures has been inconsistent. For instance, while Hill et al. (2004) did not establish any differences across 48 countries, Yu and Kuo (2017) did find some. Thus, cross-cultural study is an area that will add more value to future work–family interface research. After a thorough review of the nature of research in the work–life interface, Heraty et al. (2008, p. 209) concluded that "the literature on the

work-family interface is complex, and theory in the field is uncertain and under-developed." This means that much is still required to properly understand the concept of the work–life interface.

A major change in the work–life interface research is the shift of the family system from the traditional to the egalitarian and the neotraditional system (Hill and Henderson 2004; Elloy and Mackie 2002; Murray 2002). In the traditional system, clear gender role separations were given with the women being solely responsible for the family domain. During the industrial revolution, however, the nature of work changed, and women became involved in the work domain alongside their family responsibilities. To help them manage this demand, the concept of the work–family interface became popular. Men, however, were not affected because gender role definition allocated only work roles to them. With the shift from the traditional to the egalitarian and neotraditional systems, gender equality was arrogated, and the demands of work and family became a concern for all genders. More so, it was realized that apart from the work domain, men were also involved in other life domains. So, these shifts led to the realization that the family does not capture the entire life domain of a people; the family is simply an aspect of it. Other aspects of life that individuals can involve in are, social relationships, spiritual, and self-development. Hence, the emphasis shifted from the work–family interface to the work–life interface (Carlson et al. 2009). The work–family interface is a sub-set of the work–life interface since the family is part of the life domain. There is, therefore, the need to develop a new work–life interface model that will account for the four taxonomies that encompass the work and life domains. In doing this, the model must recognize the various changes that occurred in the era of the work–family interface and incorporate them into the developed model. The model must also account for the role of the various forms of individual differences that will affect the overall integration of the work and life domains (Byron 2005; Michel et al. 2011). The book identified the variables associated with work and life domains and developed the model in Fig. 12.2. For example, the availability of technology gave rise to the blurring of the work–life interface and created a new definition of "where, when and how work is done" (Cascio 2003).

Suggestions on How to Test the Developed Model of Work–Life Integration

A major issue that could hinder the testing of the model is the development of appropriate measures for the variables in the model. For example, there is a need to conceptualize and establish measures for leadership mindset, organizational process, technology, gender ideology, and family structure. Some past studies have attempted to measure the components of the new work–life interface with current measures in the work–family interface by swapping "family" for "life" in the measured items. This approach has however been criticized (see Carlson et al. 2006; MacDermid 2005), and future studies need to validate that swapping the words will adequately capture the various components of life. Hence, the first step in testing the model is developing separate measures of each variable in the model and validating the same (MacDermid 2005). A second area is the development of theoretical arguments that would be the foundation of the various relationships in the model. Although various theories have been used in the past, there is a need to validate their usefulness in the current WLI model. As stated by Heraty et al. (2008), theoretical developments in the work-family interface are underdeveloped, let alone the new area of work–life interface.

Work–life integration is a measure of how effectively individuals integrate the demands from the work and life domains and it has been used as a surrogate for well-being in some studies (Offer and Schneider 2008). For example, work–life integration was accessed as the average of four items with "I feel confident about my ability to handle work-related matters." The study implied that well-being is the same as work-life integration. Scale development and validation would establish the discriminant validity of the two constructs and their positions as antecedents and outcome variables, respectively. The authors of the book thus subscribe to the notion that well-being is the outcome of work–life integration instead of being its surrogate (see Crain and Hammer 2013; McNall et al. 2010).

Quantitative methodology has dominated research in the work–family interface for past decades (see Amah 2019; Grzywacz and Buffer 2005; Rantanen et al. 2005). However, there is a need to consider a

mixed-method approach that includes both quantitative and qualitative methodologies (Beigi and Shirmohammadi 2017). In establishing relationships and explaining the same in the developed model, the use of a mixed-method approach is valuable. For example, the difference between national gender ideology and individual gender attitude can be measured quantitatively, and a better understanding of how they interact can be obtained through qualitative study that seeks to understand an individual's preference in any situation.

Conclusion

The chapter traces the development of the study on the work–family interface, stating that research in this area was initially dominated by the scarcity model which postulates that conflict arises from involvement in multiple roles. The study of work and family was necessitated due to the increasing participation of women in the work domain despite their cultural gender role in the family domain. A further development was the realization of the multidirectional nature of the conflict that gave rise to the terms "work–family conflict" and "family–work conflict." The advent of positive psychology questioned the idea of the scarcity model since benefits may arise from multiple role involvement. This era ushered in the enrichment hypothesis where skills obtained in one domain may be useful in another. This brought in the concept of various interfaces. And the work–family interface came to have four taxonomies: work–family conflict, work–family facilitation, family–work conflict, and family–work facilitation.

The second shift in the study of the work–family interface was the shift from the traditional to the egalitarian and neotraditional gender role ideologies. This era brought in certain levels of gender equality where family/work roles were shared by men and women. It was this era that ushered in the concept of the work–life interface in place of the narrow work–family interface. The chapter concludes by viewing the issues to be resolved before the testing of the recommended work–life integration model recommended. The development of measures for the variables in the model was considered the major hurdle. The chapter does not

support the idea of swapping words to conceptualize new variables and states that proper validation is required to confirm this approach.

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