
The Role of Work-Family Enrichment in Work-Life Balance & Career Success: A Comparison of German & Indian Managers

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Abstract

The issue of work-life balance is becoming increasingly important for employers and employees globally. The clearer becomes our understanding about this issue; the better it will be for an effective and positive integration of these dynamic domains of our lives. Work-family enrichment is a positive way of integrating work and family and it helps to achieve work-life balance. In this Indo-German study, work-life balance, work-family enrichment, work-family culture and career success are analysed on a cross-cultural level using quantitative as well as qualitative methods. The findings uncovered the similarities and differences that lie between Germany & India; which give insights into (a) the enriching experiences related to work-family (b) career success and (c) work-life balance related aspects of German and Indian managers. A few gender differences were observed when the data for both countries was analysed collectively. The results partially support a relationship between work-life balance & career success as well as a relationship between work-family enrichment/family-work enrichment & career success.

Weltweit wird Work-life Balance immer wichtiger, sowohl für Arbeitgeber als auch für Arbeitnehmer. Je klarer unser Verständnis für das Thema und die Einflussfaktoren wird; desto besser kann eine effektive und symbiotische Integration dieser dynamischen Lebensbereiche gelingen. Work-family enrichment ist bisher ein wenig erforschter positiver Ansatz zur Integration von Arbeit und Familie. Work-life Balance, Work-family enrichment, Work-family culture und beruflicher Erfolg werden auf interkultureller Ebene mithilfe von quantitativen auch qualitativen Methoden analysiert. Die Untersuchungsergebnisse ermöglichen einen Einblick in Ähnlichkeiten und Unterschiede des Zugangs zum Thema work-life Balance zwischen Deutschland & Indien. Die Ergebnisse zeigen die bereichernden Erfahrungen der deutschen und indischen Managers im Zusammenhang mit verschiedenen Aspekten der Integration von Beruf und Familie, von beruflichem Erfolg und Work-life Balance. Einige geschlechtsspezifische Unterschiede konnten bei der Analyse, der gemeinsamen Daten für beide Länder festgestellt werden. Die Ergebnisse unterstützen die Beziehung zwischen Work-life Balance und beruflichem Erfolg zum Teil und auch zwischen Work-family/Family-work enrichment und beruflichem Erfolg.

Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is divided into six chapters. Wherever applicable every chapter is outlined with the goals at the beginning of the chapter and a summary at the end of the chapter. The first chapter introduces the topic of research, presenting briefly the history and how work-life balance research has been conducted in the USA, Europe, Asia and then specifically in Germany and India. This chapter also presents some organizational and family outcomes of work-life interface and career related aspects. The second chapter reviews the extensive literature on work-life interface and career success. This chapter attempts to define, conceptualize and present the various aspects of work-life interface and career success. At the end, a justification is provided for choosing the positive side (enrichment) of work-life interface instead of the negative side (conflict). This is followed by the rationale for conducting research and the rationale for a cross-cultural comparison. The second chapter ends with the aim and the design of the research.

The third chapter addresses the theories that are relevant to the research along with providing a justification of basing the current research on the mentioned theories and ends with the relevant hypotheses and research questions. The fourth chapter discusses the methodology of quantitative and qualitative sections and also provides a detailed description of the sample and data collection procedures. The fifth chapter is divided into two parts namely 5a and 5b referring to the two methods i.e. quantitative and qualitative respectively and includes the results; which are discussed and interpreted using empirical studies. The sixth chapter along with integrating the results from quantitative and qualitative methods, it also interprets the integrated results with the mixed methods approach. The last section of the sixth chapter includes detailed conclusions, remarkable results followed by contributions, limitations, future directions and practical implications of the research.

CHAPTER 1

1. Introduction

Until the beginning of the twenty-first century, work-life balance did not get much attention and was perceived as less challenging as compared to the current perception because of two suppositions. First, mostly employment limited itself to a male full-time worker. Second, it was a trend that women were involved in more unpaid work such as nurturing, caring and domestic work (Crompton, 1999). These sort of fixed gender roles were viewed, moreover, as a solution to balance work and life, that is work be the responsibility of a man; whereas family, caring be the responsibility of a woman. The notion of work-life balance underwent a drastic change when the number of women workers and dual-earner couples increased in various employment sectors (Voydanoff, 1987, Lambert, 1990; Burke & Greenglass, 1987). The increased participation of the women employees changed the traditional work-life balance pattern mentioned above by Crompton (1999). Men participated more in the family responsibilities and shouldered higher domestic and child rearing responsibilities (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). As the work and family roles for the men and the women became flexible, this naturally influenced the way they balanced work and family.

The individuals, who strive for the quality of work life and its linkages to the quality of non-work life, have been apprehensive about work-life balance. Work-life balance has been receiving generous consideration and has been a matter of concern for both employees and employers for many years (Guest, 2002). The US Department of Labour (1999) predicted that balancing work and life would receive increased importance in the coming years and would prove to be vital in catching attention of the highly experienced workers, and furthermore, in retaining these skilled workers. Crompton & Lyonette (2006) have described the work-life balance phenomenon in Europe. According to them, de-industrialization and prevalence of the service industry have left the European nations no choice, but to go beyond the traditional male bread-winner model. Unemployment has increased along with the fear of permanent long-term unemployment. As a result, many low-level

service jobs are a reality and are often not well paid giving precedence to dual-earning. It is now a fact that many European nations are promoting women's employment in the labour market. Esping-Andersen (1999) and Esping-Andersen et al. (2002) also emphasize the women workers' role in meeting the economic needs of the family, as their incomes will help to fight the poverty of their families and add to the welfare costs. Hence, work-life balance is a priority in policy making in Europe (Crompton & Lyonette, 2006). The goal of understanding and examining various aspects of work-life balance has been mostly accomplished by the Western Europe and the Anglo Saxon countries (Chandra, 2012) followed by the Eastern European countries (Shaffer, Joplin and Hsu, 2011) . The Asian countries have recently started focusing on work-life research (e.g. Hassan, 2010; Cooke & Jing, 2009; Verma et al., 2009 and Bhatnagar & Rajadhyaksha, 2001).

The negative side of work-family is operationalized as work-family conflict and positive side is operationalized as enrichment or facilitation (Frone, 2003). From the organizations' point of view, the positive or negative relationship between work and non-work may lead to several outcomes that prove to be detrimental or beneficial to the organization. A positive association between work-family balance and work-related outcome job satisfaction has been reported (Carlson et al., 2009). Allen et al. (2000) found that work-family enrichment and work related outcomes such as job satisfaction, affective commitment to the organization; turn-over intentions are positively related. Lower levels of work-family conflict lead to higher organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Kossek & Ozeki, 1999, Allen et al., 2000 and Tiedje et al., 1990). Lyness & Judiesch (2008) found out that employees, who were rated higher in balance between work and life, were rated higher in career advancement potential. Higher work-family facilitation leads to higher organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Ayree, Srinivas & Tan, 2005). A negative relation between work and family seen as conflict can influence an individual's emotional and physical health leading to detrimental effects for organizations such as absenteeism and declining productivity (Cooper & Williams, 1994). Such a work-family conflict involves role conflict that has serious damaging outcomes for companies such as burnout (Leiter, 1990; Bacharach, Bamberger & Conley, 1991) and stress (Wallace, 1997; Cooper, Dewe & O'Driscoll, 2001 and Boles, Johnston & Hair, 1997).

From the families' point of view, the positive or negative relationship between work and non-work may lead to certain outcomes. Higher work-family balance leads to higher family satisfaction, marital satisfaction and higher family performance (Allen et al., 2000 and Frone, Yardley & Markel, 1997). King, Botsford & Huffman (2009) found out that employees who experience positive spillover from home to work are the people, who most probably feel successful at work. The negative outcomes for family that is lower quality of family life because of work-family conflict have been reported by Higgins, Duxbury & Irving (1992). The presence of work-family conflict results in poor marital adjustment (Blood & Wolfe, 1960).

Gareis et al. (2009) have reported that research on work-family balance has been dominated by the conflict approach for more than 20 years; which considers work and family as separate domains that compete with each other for time and attention related resources (Barnett, 1998). There is emerging evidence highlighting the importance of the positive side of the work-life interface through enrichment approach; which is defined as resources and experiences gained in one role improve role performance and quality of life in another role (Carlson et al., 2006). If work-family enrichment is promoted by organizations, it will prove to be beneficial to the organizations (Carlson, Grzywacz & Zivnuska, 2009). Looking at the limited examination of positive relation between work and family as compared to work-family conflict; the prime focus of this two-country study will be on the enrichment perspective of the work-family interface. The work-family interface has been given a lot of attention in the English speaking countries as mentioned earlier. A comparison between nations apart from the English speaking nations seems the need of the hour and will be achieved through this Indo-German study. Considering the studies mentioned above establishing the relation between work-life balance or positive work-family interface and organizational outcomes, there is a need to examine the relationship between positive work-family interface and career success that is career satisfaction and career advancement because these organizational outcomes have not received much attention. Therefore, the goal of this Indo-German study is to investigate the relationship between work-life balance, work-family enrichment, career satisfaction and career advancement.

CHAPTER 2

2. Literature Review

Goals of the chapter: To present the most relevant literature on work-life interface and career success. This chapter aims to define, conceptualize and present the various aspects of work-life interface and career success. At the end of this chapter, a justification is provided for choosing the positive side (enrichment) of work-life interface instead of the negative side (conflict). This is followed by the rationale for the research and rationale for a cross-cultural comparison. The second chapter ends with the aim and the design of the research.

2.1. What is work-life balance?

Conceptualizing work-life balance and work-family balance.

Before defining work-life balance, it is worth mentioning how “work” and “life” are conceived for the current study; which is in accordance with the established definitions. “Work” in a straightforward way is conceived as paid employment and “life” is viewed as activities outside work (Guest, 2002, p. 262). Rothausen (1999) conceives that “a realistic family would include all others, who meet certain needs or functions, formerly thought to be met by the family”, she further points out that “this is a functional or effective definition, rather than a traditional or legal definition.” (p. 820). Work-life balance is defined by Kirchmeyer (2000) as “achieving satisfying experiences in all the life domains and to do so requires personal resources such as energy, time, and commitment be well distributed across domains” (p. 81). Work-life balance is a much broader concept in comparison to work-family balance in the sense, that it encompasses multiple roles outside family life e.g. community, leisure and religious roles, that an individual engages in (Frone, 2003). Work-life balance is often replaced by work-family balance. Initially the focus of the linkages between work and family roles was; moreover, concentrated on the women and the stress they have to deal with, while managing work and family. Gradually, new notions regarding the linkages

between work and family surfaced (Gregory & Milner, 2009). The initial focus of work-family interface was conflict, and then it moved to balance and now the focus is on integration (Burke, 2004). According to Frone (2003), work-family balance is a condition; where there is least conflict and substantial facilitation between work and family spheres. Another definition is proposed by Voydanoff (2005) “a global assessment that work resources meet family demands, and family resources meet work demands such that participation is effective in both domains” (p. 825).

An alternative definition is recommended by Grzywacz & Carlson (2007). According to them, work-family balance is an “accomplishment of role-related expectations, that are negotiated and shared between the individual and his/her role-related partners in work and family domains” (p. 458); This definition goes beyond the psychological domain; which is the base of the definitions presented earlier and shifts to the social domain; thus, making the work-family experience observable and also suggesting that balance can be achieved even though the conflicting experiences between work and family are present. This specific definition of balance also suggests that balance does not necessarily depend on effectiveness or performance; this seems imperative, as it is not expected that an individual must excel in work and family domains (Carlson et al., 2009). Thus, the last definition is believed to be more inclusive of various factors of work-family as compared to earlier definitions in the work-family literature.

Work-life balance is becoming increasingly challenging and this challenge is mostly viewed in the context of striking a balance between work and family (Jones, Burke & Westman, 2006). In the literature of work-family interface, it is a reality that work-life balance and work-family balance are hardly ever clearly defined, but together they are viewed as the self reports of an individual's understanding and a perspective of balance between two roles (Jones et al., 2006). Frone (2003, p. 144) also confirms that “often the term ‘non-work’ is synonymously used for ‘family’”. In their conclusive remarks on work-life balance, Jones et al. (2006) have argued that work-life balance is actually a multifaceted issue and too often the primary focus of the research is ‘work-family’. They have expressed the need to involve other areas of life beyond family life. The explanation provided above is considered important because for the current two-country study the terms ‘work-life balance’ and ‘work-family balance’ are seen as

complementing each other and the terms will be used interchangeably based upon their relevance to the specific chapter in the thesis.

2.2. What is the significance of work-life balance?

The need for having a balance.

The research focusing on the association between work and family has been documented since 1930s (Marshall, 1992 a, b). The work cultures now-a-days have undergone quite a few changes giving rise to the issue of work-life interface. These changes in work-cultures may lead to an imbalance between work life and non-work life. There is a change in the work culture as a result of increased pressures at work, advances in the information technology such as extensive use of internet and constant need of being in touch, information overload, and pressure of delivering quality customer service. Such changing work demands influence the non-work life negatively that is working long hours, working intensively and working in tight deadlines to meet the demands causing imbalance between work life and non-work life (Guest, 2002). The changes in the work-cultures have affected the vacations, which are also called as recovery experiences (experiences during the leisure time); which play an important role in unwinding oneself from work (Geurts & Sonnentag, 2006). The vacations are getting shorter or have lost importance when weighed against work (Rao & Indla, 2010). According to Guest (2002), long working hours, time pressures at work may result in higher stress levels for the individual and also increase the weekend and evening work leading to less quality time with the family members. The changing work cultures in Europe show that there is a growth in the intensity of work (intensity is determined through working with a high speed and within strict deadlines) and the UK stands first followed by Ireland, France and some other European nations. In the case of Germany, there was no rise in the intensity of work. In the case of India, (Rao & Indla, 2010) observed that very often life (that is non-work life) has been taken over by work and there is a need to deal with the work-life imbalance resulting thereof.

Along with the work-cultures, the demographic and the structural changes in the family also need to be taken into account; while understanding the need for having a balance. In the western industrial society, there is an increase in the

number of childless singles, single-parent families, and single-earner families, along with increased demands of child care, elder care and higher participation of women population in the labour market (Ferber, O'Farrell & Allen, 1991; Guest, 2002; Bond, Galinsky & Swanberg, 1998). In the Indian context too, changes in the family structure are evident. The traditional joint and extended families are disappearing and their place is taken by the nuclear families (Rajadhyaksha, 2004). A nuclear family is a small unit including spouse and children only; whereas a traditional joint family is, where family members from 3-4 generations live together. All the changes mentioned above in the work and life spheres have significant effects on how work and family life relate to each other. Some examples of types of families and their effect on work-life balance are outlined below.

The work-life balance related needs of the dual-earner couples seem to be different than the singles. The chances of single parents or single individuals having a strong social support at work (Casper, Herst & Swanberg, 2003) are less because most often the singles are socially excluded. This may affect the singles' work-family balance, as the employee benefits or work-family benefit programs (e.g. supportive supervisors and flexible work-time) are mainly offered to the married employees with children. The childless singles might not benefit much from the standard work-life programs offered to employees with families (Young, 1996). This may affect the work-life balance of the singles negatively because the suitable supportive work-family benefits; which ease out the balance process are not made available to them. The main difference between single families and dual-earners with dependent children is seen in the household responsibilities involving housework, childcare (Pederson et al., 2011); which may directly influence the time spent by single-parents and dual-earner couples on household chores. Thus, different types of families may perceive the need for work-life balance differently.

The explanation provided above shows that work-life balance is a necessity, if one wants to stay away from the ill-effects of work-family conflict such as high stress leading to physical and emotional exhaustion and deteriorating the quality of family life or non-work life. As noted earlier, having a balance means having satisfactory experiences in all the domains of life; which may ultimately lead to physical and emotional well-being. The research in the field of work-life

interface has pointed out some indicators of work-life balance. The indicators are high self esteem, psychological well-being, satisfaction as mentioned earlier and mainly living a harmonious life. These indicators illustrate successful balancing between work and family roles (Clarke, Koch & Hill, 2004; Marks & MacDermid, 1996; and Clark, 2000).

2.3. How are work and family related? The Traditional approaches.

There is vast research literature on the relationship between work-life mostly termed as work-family. Edwards & Rothbard (2000), Zedeck & Mosier (1990) and O'Driscoll (1996) have reviewed this literature and have contributed to the understanding of this dynamic association of work and family. These researchers have noted that there are five main approaches also known as linking mechanisms (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000) to elucidate the relationship between work and family. The last two approaches have individual contributors.

i) Spillover.

The spillover approach proposes that the experiences in one role affect the experiences in second role. The behaviour, mood, skills and values from one role can spillover to the second role. Spillover may occur in two conditions. First, when there is a similarity between work and any other domain (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000) e.g. an individual is satisfied with the quality of work done on a particular day; this results in satisfactory experiences at home. Second, spillover occurs as a result of transference (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000) e.g. stress at workplace spills over to the family domain and the individual displays irritable mood in the family. Thus, spillover can be both positive and negative.

ii) Congruence.

The congruence approach is somewhat similar to spillover. Congruence can be achieved through a positive linkage between work and family experiences; wherein congruence is a result of a third factor that influences both work life and family life (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000). For example a negative influence of a third variable on work and family relationship, that is negative affect as a personality characteristic (Frone, Russell and Cooper, 1995). Similarly, positive work-family culture in the organization may affect both work life (e.g. flexibility with

working time) and family life (ample leaves and child care facilities at work) positively; thus, congruence between work and family is possible.

iii) Compensation.

The compensation approach refers to an attempt of making up for shortcomings or deficits in one role through higher involvement in another role (Edwards & Rothbard 2000; Zedeck, 1992 and Lambert 1990). These deficiencies could be the demands or satisfactions that can be fulfilled in another role (Guest, 2002). For example an individual is highly engaged in the work life because of some negative experiences in the non-work life. The sense of doing something worthwhile and gaining positive energy in non-work life is achieved through higher engagement at workplace.

iv) Segmentation.

The segmentation approach posits that work and family are two distinctive domains and there is no relationship between the two domains, indicating that work and family are separate spheres; which may not influence each other (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000, Zedeck, 1992, and Zedeck & Moiser, 1990). The early conceptions of this approach proposed a natural separation of work and family domains because both the roles involve distinct meaning, tasks and behaviours; therefore, maintain a physical and a temporal separation (Blood & Wolfe, 1960). But as the research developed a new perspective regarding segmentation approach emerged. This separation is recently conceived as a boundary between work and non-work; which is thought to be impermeable (Nippert-Eng, 1995). Segmentation is also viewed as an active psychological process that may be used as managing a boundary between work and family (Kossek, Noe & DeMarr, 1999 and Rothbard, Phillips & Dumas, 2005).

v) Integration.

The integration approach hypothesizes that work and family domains can be integrated and they are very closely associated as if woven together; therefore, it is impossible to differentiate between the two domains. This approach is also called as identity approach (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000).

vi) Work-family border theory.

In the light of segmentation being conceived as boundary between work and non-work, another theory that partly shares the notion is the work-family border theory. The difference between the border theory and the segmentation approach is that in the border theory, Clark (2000) argues, that individuals cross this border between work and non-work daily and they move in and out of the border; whereas the classical conception of the segmentation approach was that the boundary of work and family is impermeable. The work-family border theory postulates that such a border is permeable and that work and family can indeed influence each other (Guest, 2002).

vii) Role conflict versus role accumulation.

Sieber (1974) defines a role according to that of Merton (1957) and Gross, Ward & McEachern (1958) as a “pattern of expectations which apply to a particular social position and which normally persist independently of the personalities occupying the position” (p. 569). Tiedje et al. (1990) have suggested a typology on role involvement and they have founded their typology on role conflict (Goode, 1960) and role enhancement or role accumulation theory (Marks, 1977 and Sieber, 1974). Role conflict occurs when an individual engages in multiple roles with unlimited demands causing role strain and role conflict because the demands and expectations the individual has to fulfil are scarce and limited (Goode, 1960). On the contrary, the role enhancement or role accumulation theory suggests that there are four basic types of benefits or rewards for engaging in more than one role: role-privileges; security; resources for status enhancement & role performance; enrichment of the personality & ego gratification (Sieber, 1974).

The traditional approaches to work-life balance have been put forward for the purpose of understanding the mechanisms; which operate within the relationship of work and non-work and it was empirically found that all these linkages exist and many a times, these mechanisms are into action simultaneously (Lambert, 1990). Frone (2003) suggests that these approaches although insightful, do not prove to be sufficient to understand the work-life interface completely. The contemporary approaches to work-life interface are recommended that may help in further understanding the work-family balance issue.

2.4. How are work and family related? The Contemporary approaches.

i) Identity theory.

An individual's identity is closely associated with the role he/she plays (Stryker & Serpe, 1982). It was found that a closer identification with the family role lead to higher investment of time in the family and a closer identification with the work role resulted in higher time investment at workplace (Rothbard & Edwards, 2003). Dumas (2003) also examined the link between identification with work and family roles. She examined two types of groups, one who identified with both roles equally and second who identified unequally with both the roles. She found that the participants who identify equally with work and non-work roles encountered a higher work-family conflict, as they integrated these two roles; whereas the participants who segmented work and family roles encountered less work-family conflict.

ii) Overall appraisal approach & components approach.

According to Grzywacz & Carlson (2007), the modern perspectives of work-life interface can be divided into overall appraisal approach and components approach. The views of these researchers regarding work-life balance can be categorized into these two approaches. "Overall appraisal is conceived as an individual's general assessment concerning the entirety of his or her life situation" (Rantanen et al., 2011, p. 29). This approach tries to understand the work-life interface on a global level and considers the "whole" view. Consistent with this approach is the conceptualization of work-family balance by Voydanoff (2005); who defines work-family balance as "a global assessment that work resources meet family demands, and family resources meet work demands such that participation is effective in both domains" (p. 825). Whereas, the components approach regards work-life balance as being multi-faceted and these facets pave the way for balance defining it (Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007). Consistent with this approach is the definition of work-family balance proposed by Greenhaus, Collins & Shaw (2003), where work-family balance refers to time balance, involvement balance and satisfaction balance between the two domains.

iii) Conflict versus facilitation.

Frone (2003) proposes that work-family conflict and work-family facilitation as two components of work-family balance. Work-family conflict is defined by Greenhaus & Beutell (1985) as “a form of inter-role conflict; in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in one role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in another role” (p.77). The conflict is bi-directional meaning a negative interdependency may exist in work to family or family to work direction. Work-family facilitation represents “the extent to which participation in one role is made easier by virtue of the experiences, skills, and opportunities gained or developed in another role”. Much of the research has focused on work-family conflict; the facilitation perspective is less researched as compared to conflict perspective (Frone, 2003). Frone (2003) has put forth a four-fold taxonomy of work-family balance; which defined work-family balance as “low levels of inter-role conflict and high levels of inter-role facilitation” (p. 145). It is theorized that work-family balance can be achieved following two directions namely from work to family domain and family to work domain. To have a complete understanding of the work-family balance the four components that is work-family conflict, family-work conflict, work-family facilitation, family-work facilitation have to be measured.

iv) Conflict versus enrichment.

The conflict approach reflects the negative interdependencies of work and family; whereas the positive interdependencies of work and family are sought in the enrichment approach; which has been receiving attention lately. Greenhaus & Parasuraman (1999) and Grzywacz & Marks (2000) have endorsed the fact that a greater body of research should aim at investigating the positive side of work-family balance that is work-family enrichment. There are various constructs that are used in the literature to define the positive interdependencies of work-family interface. The first construct is “*enrichment*” (Rothbard, 2001; Kirchmeyer, 1992a) which is also the main focus of the current Indo-German study. The second positive linkage is known as “*facilitation*” (Wayne, Musisca, & Fleeson, 2004; Frone, 2003 and Tompson & Werner, 1997); which is going to be useful in understanding the work-family and work-life phenomenon for the current study.

The third positive construct is “*enhancement*” (Tiedje et al., 1990; Ruderman et al., 2002) and the fourth construct is “*positive spillover*” (Crouter, 1984b; Kirchmeyer, 1992b, 1993, 1995; Stephens, Franks, & Atienza, 1997; Grzywacz, 2000; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000a,b; Sumer & Knight, 2001, Grzywacz, Almeida & McDonald, 2002; Hammer et al., 2002; and Hanson, Colton, & Hammer, 2003; Voydanoff, 2001). Work-family enrichment is defined as “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role. Work-family enrichment occurs when work experiences improve the quality of family life; whereas family-work enrichment occurs when family experiences improve the quality of work life” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 73).

v) Balance, conflict & enrichment: are they empirically separate?

The recent approach towards work-family interface is now making a conceptual distinction between work-family balance, work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. There is a need for enough empirical examination of this fact (Greenhaus & Allen, in press). Balance is a more global view than the conflict and enrichment experiences (Carlson et al., 2009). Conflict and enrichment seem to happen on an individual level and are believed to be linking mechanisms between work and family (Marks & Macdermid, 1996). These mechanisms specify the extent to which they will affect work and family either negatively (conflict) or positively (enrichment) (Carlson et al., 2009). This approach was confirmed by Carlson et al. (2009) suggesting that in their study, balance explained more variance beyond conflict and enrichment for five work and family outcomes they tested, showing that balance is theoretically different than conflict and enrichment.

vi) Work-family fit.

Voydanoff (2005) has done some notable work in describing the linkage between work and family, as being a result of an interaction between work demands and family resources. She bases her conceptual model on the person-environment fit theory and occupational stress. The person-environment fit theory posits that a misfit between person and environment leads to stress, that arises from both the sides rather than only from one side (Edwards, Caplan & Harrison, 1998). Voydanoff’s notion is also supported by the ecological systems theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1989) and the boundary theory (Ashforth, Kreiner & Fugate,

2000). The ecological systems theory views work and family as microsystems; wherein various interactions, processes take place between work and family; which comprises of a mesosystem. The boundary theory as it was noted earlier under border theory (see 2.3.vi.), hypothesizes that the boundary between work and family domains is flexible and individuals keep crossing these borders and therefore, work and family influence each other. Voydanoff (2005) also argues that “work-family fit and balance are cognitive appraisals; which is a process that helps in deciding how an experience will affect the wellbeing (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) of the effects of work and family domains on each other” (p. 822).

Voydanoff (2005) proposes that work demands-family resources fit is a result of work demands and family resources and family demands-work resources fit is a result of family demands and work resources. She further argues that fit can be of two types namely demands-abilities and needs-supplies. Work-family fit can be a reality, when an individual possesses the abilities to meet the environmental demands. The individual also has psychological or physical/biological needs; which can be fulfilled by the resources available in the environment leading to needs-resources fit.

vii) Typology of work-life balance.

Rantanen (2008) has put forward a four dimensional typology of work-life balance. Figure 1 demonstrates the typology. As seen in the figure, four types of work-life balance are proposed. Rantanen et al. (2011) tested this typology on the Finnish and Estonian managers and found empirical support to the typology. They suggest that the individuals, who balance work and life, are believed to belong to beneficial, harmful, active or passive types. This typology is believed to be applicable to both work-family and family-work directions. ‘Beneficial balance’ means the absence of work-life conflict and simultaneous presence of work-life enhancement that improves psychological functioning and wellbeing. ‘Harmful balance’ is exactly opposite of beneficial balance meaning that the absence of work-life enhancement and presence of work-life conflict intimidates the psychological functioning and wellbeing. The engagement is work role and family role is represented by ‘active balance’ and ‘passive balance’. ‘Active balance’ means that role engagement is a result of a choice of the individual and/or the

necessity for the individual to highly engage in the role. 'Passive balance' reflects low engagement in role as a result of simultaneous absence of work-family conflict and work-family enhancement.

Work-nonwork enhancement experienced	Work-nonwork conflict experienced		
	Yes	No	
Yes	Active Balance - high resources - high demands	Beneficial Balance - high resources - low demands	Psychological functioning differentiating factor
	Harmful Balance - low resources - high demands	Passive Balance - low resources - low demands	
No			Role engagement differentiating factor

Figure 1. Typology of Work-life Balance. Adapted from Rantanen et al. (2011), p. 33.

2.5. How to analyse work-life balance? Determinants & consequences.

Guest (2002) has suggested a model that covers most of the determinants and consequences of work and non-work spheres. This model (Table 1) is presented from the view of work and organizational psychology; which may prove beneficial in analysing the complex and dynamic relationship between work and non-work. The model broadly includes the nature, causes and consequences of work and non-work domains. To describe the non-work domain, the term home is used in the model. Some additional factors or examples from other studies apart from those mentioned by Guest (2002) are included in the following section to explain the model for a better understanding of the analysis of wok-life balance.

Table 1

Nature, causes and consequences of work-life balance. Adapted from Guest (2002) p. 265.

Determinants	Nature of the balance	Consequences/impact
<i>Organizational factors</i>	<i>Subjective indicators</i>	
Demands of work	Balance equal - emphasis	Work satisfaction
Culture of work	home and work	Life satisfaction
Demands of family	Balance - home central	Mental health/well-being
Culture of family	Balance - work central	Stress/illness
<i>Individual factors</i>	<i>Spillover and/or interference</i>	<i>Behaviour/performance</i>
Work orientation	from work to home	at work
Personality	<i>Spillover and/or interference</i>	<i>Behaviour/performance</i>
Energy	from home to work	at home
Personal control & coping		
Gender	<i>Objective indicators</i>	Impact on others at home
Age	Hours of work	Impact on others at work
Life and career stage	Free time	
	Family roles	

2.5.1. Determinants of work-life balance.

The determinants have been classified into organizational and individual factors. The organizational and individual factors are further classified into work demands-culture of work and family-demands-culture of home respectively. Additional categories of determinants namely social and cultural factors that were not accounted in the Guest (2002) model of analysis of work-life balance are also explained as they may have an influence of the work-life balance of individuals.

i) Organizational factors.

According to Guest (2002) in the work context, the demands may be high or low e.g. expectation of long working hours and over-time. The work culture reflects

the organizational culture and the support it provides to the employees to strike a balance, this may include the family-friendly policies or actual work-life balance initiatives. In the context of home or non-work demands, the demands refer to the commitments and responsibilities outside work domain such as family responsibilities, leisure activities or social work. These demands may be high or low depending on the family related aspects or marital status of an individual. The home or non-work culture encompasses the expectations from the home environment regarding the involvement in home role such as child rearing, household responsibilities, elder care, cooking, catering to the needs of the partner/spouse etc.

ii) Individual factors.

In the personal context, the relevance of work-life balance for an individual is primarily dependent on the orientation to work and also on how significant is the work or home role to the individual. The relevance is the most, when work and/or home is central to the individual's psychological being. The personality type of an individual can also influence how one views work-life balance. For example conscientiousness - one of the personality traits (means having characteristics such as organization, efficiency, responsibility etc.) was found to be positively associated with job performance (Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Barrick & Mount, 1991). It is a necessity to take into account the energy levels of the individual, especially when the demands from the work culture or home culture are high. The energy levels may also be associated with the locus of control (whether the person has an internal or external locus of control), personal control and the potential of coping with difficult situations. (Guest, 2002)

Gender is an important individual factor that may influence how women and men differ in their perception of work-life balance and also the centrality of the work and the family roles in their lives (Guest, 2002). Lyness & Thompson (2000) postulate, that the male and the female executives follow a different path to climb the corporate ladder. They have discussed barriers and facilitators for career advancement in their study and found that the women have more barriers in their careers than the men. Research focusing on gender differences shows that having a spouse and children provide positive conditions for the men's advancement but

negative ones for the women (Ragins & Sundstorm, 1989). Thus, the process of combining work and family seems to be different for the women and the men. Age, life stage and career stage seem to be influential individual factors as well. Levinson's life stage theory (1978, 1986) is an excellent example that incorporates all the three aspects that is age group, life stage and career stage. This approach also helps to consider the possibility that work and family domains place challenges to individuals in different ways at different stages of their lives. A total of 9 stages have been postulated by Levinson; which elucidate the interactions between work and family and how an individual may function as a result of these work-family challenges at different life stages.

iii) Social factors.

Although Guest (2002) has not explicitly mentioned about the social factors, there should not be a disagreement that social factors may influence the work-life balance of individuals. As mentioned in the individual factors, gender is an important predictor of work-life balance. Being a woman or a man is closely associated with the social gender roles. In the context of a society, the typical masculine roles endorse instrumentality involving competence along with independence (Vaux, 1988); while Bem (1974) posits that the typical feminine roles endorse expressiveness involving warmth and support. Eagly's (1987), social role theory posits that divergent social roles and specific societal expectations from men and women lead to gender differences. From this point of view, it is clear that men and women perceive their work and family roles differently. An example would be from a study carried out by Andrews & Bailyn (1993); where they suggest that women would probably combine work and family; on the contrary, men would mentally separate these domains. Wayne et al. (2007) proposed that men and women differ in the way they utilize the resources in both the domains to integrate work and family. Therefore, the gender roles nested in the social roles have an impact on the work-life balance in a different way for the men and the women. It should be noted that there is also a body of research regarding fading of the gender differences (Baruch-Feldman et al., 2002). In some instances, men's and women's roles overlap each other as men have been reported to be increasingly involved in household responsibilities and child rearing

(Thomas & Ganster, 1995). Recently, gender equality is encouraged and men have become more open to exercise feminine values (Konrad & Harris, 2002).

iv) Cultural factors.

Along with gender differences and gender equality, another aspect that can have an impact on work-life interface is the culture. Culture as defined by Hofstede (2001, p. 9) is “the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another”. Another definition proposed by Triandis (1995, p. 4) is that culture includes “shared beliefs, attitudes, norms, roles, and behaviours”. The societal norms, national norms and guidelines in relation to work and family can affect the family and work values of individuals. This ultimately outlines the actual meaning an individual derives from work and family and also the performance in the work and family role (Ashforth et al., 2000). There is a need for incorporating the cultural aspect in studying the work-family interface. There are three main categories of studies that make an effort to include “culture” in the examination of work-family interface (Powell, Francesco & Ling, 2009):

1. ***Culture-as-nation studies***: These studies compare work-family interface across two or more countries, but do not clearly target culture as a measurable construct.
2. ***Culture-as-referent studies***: These studies design their examinations based on defined concepts of culture, base their hypotheses and interpretations in the context of culture being studied. Such studies actually do not measure culture as a variable or make cross-national comparisons. The experiences of participants belonging to one culture are contrasted with experiences from another culture.
3. ***Culture-as-dimensions studies***: Such studies measure the cultural construct by putting forth a theory and testing this theory regarding the influence of cultural factors of work-family interface. It is suggested that this category of studies show the highest potential as compared to first two categories to understand the cultural influence on work-family interface. Four types of cultural dimensions have been proposed to be having an impact on work-family interface. The four dimensions of culture are

individualism-collectivism, humane orientation, specificity-diffusion and gender egalitarianism; they will be explained briefly. Out of the four, the most researched dimension is individualism and collectivism; which is also used as a base for explaining some cultural differences for the current two-country study.

- I. **Individualism-collectivism** dimension focuses on the level of closeness one has with the others in the group; if one relates to others closely then he/she may be considered as collectivist and if one is loosely connected and highly endorses independence, then he/she may be considered individualist (Powell, et al., 2009).
- II. **Humane orientation** is defined by (House & Javidan, 2004) as “the degree to which individuals in organizations or societies encourage and reward other individuals for being fair, altruistic, friendly, generous, caring and kind to others” (p. 12).
- III. **Specificity-diffusion** dimension according to (Hampden-Turner & Trompenaars, 2000) focuses on how conceptualizations regarding ‘particularity or wholeness’ are used by a culture to describe diverse constructs. Hoecklin (1995) has given some examples of nations such as Australia, the United Kingdom and Switzerland falling into the category of specificity and the category of diffusion includes nations such as Spain, Venezuela and China.
- IV. **Gender egalitarianism** is defined by (House & Javidan, 2004) as “the degree to which an organization or a society minimizes gender role differences while promoting gender equality” (p.12). This cultural dimension highlights the societal norms concerning women’s and men’s roles.

Coming back to the model of work-life balance analysis Guest (2002); where the nature of balance is emphasized (Table 1). The nature of balance has been classified in two broad categories namely subjective and objective categories. The type of balance namely spillover versus interference (equivalent to the facilitation/enrichment approach versus conflict approach) is well described earlier in the literature review section (see 2.3.1.iii. and 2.3.1.iv.). The subjective

indicators of work-life balance are the subjective notions about work and family. There are three possible ways of perceiving the salience of work and family roles. Firstly, the salience of the work and family roles is perceived as equal by the individual; secondly, either role precedes the other and thirdly, either role is prioritized over the other (work comes first or family comes first). The type of balance shows whether managing work and family leads to a spillover (see in lit. review section 2.3.i.) or it leads to an interference/conflict (see in lit. review section 2.3.1.iv). The objective indicators are the number of hours of work and free-time in non-work domain along with the roles that an individual plays outside the work domain, moreover, in the family and/or in the community.

2.5.2. Consequences of work-life balance.

Guest (2002) proposes that the consequences (see Table 1) of achieving a work-life balance can lead to personal satisfaction in both the domains and can take forms of work satisfaction or life satisfaction. The overall satisfaction with work and life can lead to a healthy mental state and well being. Dissatisfactory experiences with work and family may lead to stress and illnesses and hamper the overall well-being of an individual. A balance between work and life can augment the behaviour and performance at workplace and in the family and an imbalance can deteriorate the performance and aggravate the negative behaviour. Furthermore, having or not having a balance can have an impact on the significant others at work (colleagues, peers) and in the family (partner/spouse, children, friends).

There are other studies that have reported the various work outcomes or family outcomes associated with work-family balance. Allen et al. (2000) found that higher work-family balance was positively associated with marital and family satisfaction and also found that individuals with a higher balance are more satisfied with their marital and family relations. Frone et al. (1997) reported that higher work-family balance leads to better performance in family life. Regarding work related outcomes, it is documented that higher employee commitment to the organizations and satisfaction with job are a result of lower work-family conflict level (Allen et al., 2000 and Tiedje et al., 1990). Work-family conflict and its relationship with job/life satisfaction were analysed. It was found that there is a

negative relation between conflict and job/life satisfaction (Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). A meta-analysis on work-family interface (Baltes et al., 1999) shows that flexible and compressed work schedules are negatively related to absenteeism and positively related to productivity, work schedule satisfaction and job satisfaction.

King et al. (2009) found out that employees, who experience positive spillover from home to work, are the people who most probably feel successful at work. Lyness & Judiesch (2008) also suggests that there is a positive association between work-life balance and career advancement potential. They found out that managers who are rated higher on balancing their work and life have higher ratings for a potential advancement in career. Peus & Traut-Mattausch (2008) found out that work-family balance was an important factor for German women's career advancement. Consistent with these findings are the findings from an Indian study on success factors for female and male managers (Shah, 2010); wherein work-life balance was found to be one of the four most important success factors for career advancement in the Indian context.

2.6. How are work-life balance and career success related? What does it mean to be successful in career?

2.6.1. Positive links between work-family and career success.

A group of studies suggest that a flexible and supportive environment at workplace is positively linked with family related behaviours and outcomes (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997; Haas, 1999; Parasuraman et al., 1996; Voydanoff, 2001). Another group of studies link job content (job scope, discretion, or complexity) with a positive environment at home, marriage, child rearing practices, and child outcomes (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Grimm-Thomas & Perry-Jenkins, 1994; Haas, 1999; Perry-Jenkins, Repetti & Crouter, 2000; and Voydanoff, 2001).

Researchers observing relationships of work satisfaction with family satisfaction, positive parenting, or positive child outcomes suggest that there is a positive influence of work-related affect on family life (Barling, 1986; Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Stewart & Barling, 1996). There is also evidence for positive relationships between social support received from the family and career success, career development and work satisfaction

(Adams, King & King, 1996; Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Frone et al., 1997; and Voydanoff, 2001).

The linkage of work-family balance and career success is influenced by gender differences; which have been accounted especially for work and family enrichment. For men, marriage and presence of children is seen positively related to career success indicators namely: income, advancement and satisfaction (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Jacobs, 1992; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Landau & Arthur, 1992; Melamed, 1996; Pfeffer & Ross, 1982; and Schnerer & Reitman, 1993). In case of women, Rothbard (2001) found out that psychological engagement in family domain is positively related with work engagement. The empirical positive linkages of work-life balance & career success presented so far serve as a strong foundation for a further examination of these linkages in the Indo-German context.

2.6.2. What is career success? Conceptualizing and predicting career success.

Considering the literature presented so far, an empirical relation between work-life balance/work-family balance and various work related outcomes is well established. Some studies have reported a positive association between work-family interface and job satisfaction. The relation between work-life balance and career advancement also exists. To understand the aim of the current two-country study, it is prudent to fully understand the fundamentals of career success that are relevant to the current study, as career satisfaction and career advancement fall in the broader concept of career success.

2.6.2.1. Defining career success.

Career success has since long marked its important place in the academic research (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1994) and is a subject of interest in the literature (Mercer, 1994) for career scholars and practitioners (Hughes, 1958; Robbins, 2003; Parsons, 1909; and Ziglar, 1997). An apparent rationale for career success being important not only for the employees but also for the employers is that, in due course, organizational success is a result of personal success of each employee (Judge et al., 1999). The traditional notion of career being a linear path

or upward hierarchical growth or experiencing security in a single organization has now changed to a horizontal and lateral movement (Eddleston, Baldrige & Veiga 2004; Cappelli, 1992). Following the new trends in organizations such as downsizing and outsourcing (Evans, Gunz & Jalland, 1997), the traditional definition of success in career through hierarchical promotions is no longer relevant in some cases (Helsin, 2005). The changing and recent notions of careers bring with them diverse opportunities, positions to be held in different professions; which promise to cater to the intrinsic satisfaction along with satiating the personal needs of career seekers (Ackah & Heaton, 2004).

Career success is defined “in terms of positive psychological and work-related outcomes accumulated as a result of one’s work experiences” (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001, p. 2). It is operationalized; firstly, through objective career success (Gutteridge, 1973) that is evaluations by significant others and its indicators are pay or salary, number of promotions (Judge et al., 1999), occupational status (Nicholson, 2000). Career success is secondly operationalized through subjective career success referring to individual’s concept or judgement of achievements in career (Judge et al., 1995) or individual’s response to his/her career experiences (Hughes, 1937, 1958). Some notable work regarding conceptualizations of career success has been done by Sturges (1999). Through the qualitative interviews with English managers, she identified four main categories of conceptualizations expressed by managers at different ages. The four categories are:

1. *The Climbers* – This type of managers’ concept of career success was closest to the traditional concept of career success that is advancement through promotions and increase in the level of salary, social and organizational status.
2. *The Experts* – This type of managers’ career success was to become increasingly competent in their work area and to perform well according to their self expectation. Getting a positive feedback, recognition from peers or supervisors were sources of success.
3. *The Influencers* – This type of managers described career success as their work having a positive influence on the organization. Their hierarchical position was central to their concept of success. They believed in somehow leaving a positive impression of their work.

4. *The Self-Realizers* – This type of managers internalized the concept of career success. The achievement or success was meant for themselves rather than for the others. This concept was the closest to personal fulfilment.

2.6.2.2 Criteria for objective and subjective career success.

According to Helsin (2005), on a global level, the objective criteria of career success (traditionally measured through salary and promotions) are both contaminated, deficient and need to be improved. The contamination of criteria is a result of numerous factors, which lie beyond the control of the individual. Factors such as power distance, difference in taxation systems, and the economic and social stratification differ across nations (Hollenbeck & McCall, 2003); which may impact the objectivity of success. The objective criteria are believed to be deficient as they do not address to all the aspects of success; meaning that attaining a salary or promotions are not the only indicators of success (Campbell et al., 1970). Success in a career may vary according to the differences in the professions. For the academicians, success may be attributed to learning or achievements made by their students; while in case of vehicle drivers, it may be important that they drove well without committing an accident (Helsin, 2005).

Regarding measuring subjective criteria for success (measured through career or job satisfaction), (Helsin, 2005) has suggested improvements. The standardized scales measuring career satisfaction base their measurement on advancement (Greenhaus, Parasuraman & Wayne, 1990) and/or hierarchical success (Peluchette & Jeanquart, 2000); which may not prove to be suitable in the changing scenario of organizations with prevalence of contract jobs (Inkson, Heising & Rousseau, 2001) or with employees who are satisfied with a plateaued career graph (Slocum et al., 1985). According to Helsin (2005), achievements in the career leading to subjective career success may depend upon the benchmarks against which they are evaluated. It is proposed that these benchmarks can be self-referent or other-referent. '*Self-referent*' means that the individual compares the subjective success experiences with his/her own aspirations and standards.

'*Other-referent*' means that the individual compares the subjective success experiences with the accomplishments or expectations of the others.

2.6.2.3 *Predicting career success*

A meta-analysis of predictors of objective and subjective career success (Ng et al., 2005) summarizes various variables (predictors) of career success in four broad categories:

1. *Human Capital* - According to Becker (1964), human capital encompasses an individual's personal, educational and professional experiences that are instrumental in developing one's career (Wayne et al., 1999; Judge et al., 1995). Some of the predictors in this category include job involvement, number of hours worked, organizational/job tenure, willingness to transfer, work experience and social capital or social contacts (Ng et al., 2005).
2. *Organizational Sponsorship* - According to Ng et al. (2005), sponsorship refers to the special efforts or the initiative taken by the organizations for the individuals; thus, smoothening the career progress of its employees. Some predictors of career success in this category are career sponsorship (Dreher & Ash, 1990) that is role of the seniors in easing the process of success in career, supervisor support, training and development opportunities provided by the organization (Ng et al., 2005).
3. *Socio-demographic predictors* - According to Ng et al. (2005), these predictors are age, marital status, gender and race.
4. *Stable individual differences* - According to Ng et al. (2005), these are the dispositional characteristics that are reflected in an individual's personality. The Big Five personality factors (Costa & McCrae, 1985; Mount & Barrick, 1995) viz. Neuroticism, Conscientiousness, Extroversion, Agreeableness, and Openness to Experience may influence the career success. Seibert & Kraimer (2001) have examined the relationship between the Five-Factor personality model and career success and found that a positive relation between salary, promotions and job satisfaction and extroversion exists; while career satisfaction was negatively related to neuroticism. A negative relation was found between career satisfaction and agreeableness along with salary level and openness.

2.7. Organizational work-family culture and its relevance.

Work-family culture is defined as “shared assumptions, beliefs, values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the employees’ integration of work-family” (Thompson, Beauvais & Lyness, 1999, p. 394). It consists of three dimensions viz. managerial support, organizational time demand and career consequences (negative).

2.7.1. Managerial support refers to the understanding of the seniors and the management towards workers’ family responsibilities. Employees who perceive their organizational culture to be supportive have lower chances of experiencing work-family conflict (Thomas & Ganster, 1995).

2.7.2. Organizational time demand refers to the expectations of the supervisors and the employer that for their employees, work should precede family duties. It also includes the number of hours one should work, how time is used for work, and if employees are encouraged to take work home (Schriber & Gutek, 1987; Bailyn 1993).

2.7.3. Career consequences refer to the negative consequences that employees have to face for dedicating time to their family and/or using the work-family benefits; which are available in the organization. It may happen that employees are evaluated negatively for their work performance or perceived by the employer as less committed to the organization because they use work-family benefits (Perlow, 1995).

Thompson et al. (1999) found that a favourable work-family culture is perceived positively by the employees, resulting in more utilization of work-family benefits. They also found that accessibility of work-family benefits to employees and the perception of supportive work-family culture by employees are positively related to affective commitment and negatively related to work-family conflict and turnover intentions. A positive relation between organizational work-family culture and job satisfaction was established by a Finnish study (Mauno, Kinnunen & Feldt, 2012). Other set of American studies examined the relation of work-family culture and personal outcomes such as well-being and work-family conflict (Allen, 2001; Grandey, Cordeiro & Michael, 2007 and Casper et al., 2004). Another Indian study (Baral & Bhargava, 2010) examined the relationship between work-family culture

and work-family enrichment, but failed to find support for this relation. Nevertheless, work-family culture in this study was found to be positively related with job satisfaction and affective commitment. Beham, Drobnič & Präg (2011) examined work-family culture in the German context. Wiese (2004) also examined the relationship between supportive organizational culture, well-being and job satisfaction. The current study will increase the knowledge base of the work-family culture in German and Indian organizations.

2.8. Work-life interface and career success in Germany and India.

The goal of understanding and examining various aspects of work-life balance has been mostly accomplished by the Western Europe and the Anglo Saxon countries (Chandra, 2012) followed by the Eastern European countries (Shaffer et al., 2011). Gradually, researchers from other nations have recognized the need of examining the work-family domains (Poelmans, O'Driscoll & Beham, 2005). The Asian countries have recently started focusing on the work-life interface (e.g. Hassan, 2010; Cooke & Jing, 2009; Verma et al., 2009 and Bhatnagar & Rajadhyaksha, 2001). There is a recommendation from the work-family enrichment theorists Greenhaus & Powell (2006), that specifically the work-family enrichment phenomena be examined in other countries apart from the USA. In Germany (e.g. Beham & Drobnič, 2010; Beham, Präg & Drobnič, 2012; Hoser, 2010 and Peus & Traut-Mattausch, 2008) and in India (e.g. Ayree et al., 2005; Baral & Bhargava, 2011; Bhatnagar & Rajadhyaksha, 2001; Rajadhyaksha & Bhatnagar, 2000 and Srivastava, Srivastava & Srivastava, 2009) there are a few studies focusing on work-family and work-life aspects.

According to the researcher's knowledge, there is only one German study (Beham et al., 2011) and one Indian study (Baral & Bhargava, 2010) that examine enrichment but only work to family direction. Furthermore, the concept of career success and its association with work-life interface has not received much attention in Germany as well as in India. Career success will be measured in the current study through career satisfaction and career advancement. In Germany, no other study was found to directly examine the relationship between work-life interface and career satisfaction; although the positive relationship between work-family balance and career advancement was tested in a cross-cultural German-American study (Peus & Traut-Mattausch, 2008). In the case of India, job

satisfaction and work-life interface have been tested (Ayree et al., 2005; Baral & Bhargava, 2010) but the relationship between career advancement and work-life interface is not established in any other study. Therefore, comparing work-life balance and career success in Germany and India is justified.

2.8.1. Work-life Interface in Germany

As presented earlier (see 2.8.), the work-life interface has received some attention in Germany. On the work level, the role of strong labour unions in Germany and the positive effect of collective agreements have given the employees in the German organizations, a relative strong control over the working conditions and a sense of high job security (Beham & Drobnič, 2010). Across Europe work time flexibility, annual paid leaves and averaging of weekly work hours have been promoted as per the 1993 EU Directive (Berg et al., 2004). In the West Germany, the weekly work hours were reported to be 38.5 in the year 1995 for a five-day week; maximum work for 8 hours on a day as reported by (Bell & Freeman, 2001, p. 184, Table 1.) Additionally, across Europe full-time workers are entitled to more or less five weeks annual leave (Drobnič, 2000). It is a fact that Germany has laws that are designed to support especially the working parents in balancing work and non-work domains. Germany provides financial benefits to parents with dependent children (Peus & Traut-Mattausch, 2008). Consistent with this fact, German companies provide a variety of child care benefits (Straub, 2007). The child allowances are independent of the income of the family and range between 154 € to 179 € monthly, depending upon the number of children. Along with the child allowance, there are tax benefits to the parents as against single childless individuals (Peus & Traut-Mattausch, 2008).

On the family level too, in the Western industrial society, there is an increase in the number of childless singles, single-parent families, single-earner families and dual-earner families along with the increased demands of child care, elder care and higher participation of women population in labour market (Ferber, O'Farrell & Allen, 1991; Guest, 2002; Bond, and Galinsky & Swanberg, 1998). Some specific changes regarding family structures or union types have been recently reported in Germany. It seems that in Germany cohabitation is quite popular. This type of relationship is seen increasing speedily in all the western

countries (Kiernan, 2002; Cherlin, 2004). The percentage of German individuals being married and having children is decreasing (Ostner, 2001). The Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth in Germany also reports this fact, that the number of marriages in Germany is decreasing and non-married partnerships is steeply increasing (Engstler & Menning, 2004). Such a change in union type may have an influence on work-life interface. It has also been reported that married couples and cohabitants differ mainly in the way the housework is divided. Davis et al. (2007) argue that men are more involved in housework in cohabitation as compared to married men. It means that cohabiting German couples may find integrating work and life easier than married couples as the male partner is seen increasingly involved in the household responsibilities in the case of cohabitants. On the other hand, there is research that also shows that work-life balance could be more difficult for cohabiting couples, as they have less access to the social support such as parent-in laws, friends and relatives helping them in child care, if they have children (Eggebeen, 2005).

Kasearu (2009) studied the effect of union type on work-family conflict for five European countries and Germany being one of them, they found that the traditional male breadwinner households (23.6%) were more common among married couples in the German sample; whereas female breadwinner households (8.5%) among cohabiting couples. This can be related to the equal or unequal responsibility and amount of work in the household chores and child care. It means that amount and responsibility of house work and child care could be distributed more equally in cohabitating couples as compared to married couples, because in the cohabitation union type, there is no legal or social expectation or obligation; which renders more options for cohabitants to bargain for equal distribution and amount of unpaid work (Baxter, 2005). Another type of union is being childless and single. Single employees without children seem to perceive organizational support differently than the managers who have families. Singles perceive less work opportunities and less access to work-life related benefits (Casper, Weltman & Kwesiga 2007). Work-life balance may be higher for such a status as it has been reported by Tausig & Fenwick (2001).

As Hall & Soskice (2001) pointed out, Germany portrays a social partnership between its state, organizations and employees; where social benefits

in the social system are availed by high reductions in the tax. It is hypothetically easy for working mothers to adjust to the working needs; where the maternity protection law plays a significant role. Such a law protects expectant mothers from being discharged from their work duties from the period of early months of pregnancy to the fourth month after the birth and also encourages e.g. a parental leave up to three years. Single parents are also included in the realm of this law and they are allowed to take up to 20 days in a year for each child or 50 days in case of many children (Peus & Traut-Mattausch, 2008). The findings regarding increased paternity leaves show that, German men have started engaging in family care. Compared to other European countries such as the Netherlands, Denmark, Ireland, the UK, Sweden and Spain, Germany is a medium performer with respect to work-life balance practices in organizations (Straub, 2007).

Germany is a corporatist or conservative welfare state (Esping-Andersen, 1990; Streeck & Yamamura, 2003). The male breadwinner model is supported by the German welfare state meaning that the paid work is the prime responsibility of the men and the family is the prime responsibility of the women (Blossfeld & Drobnič, 2001). This implies that, if German women choose to follow the traditional gender role assignments and still wish to pursue their goal of paid working, they have to depend on part-time work, which is seen very common in Germany (Drobnič, 2000). Consistent with this finding is that of Hoser (2012); who reports a trend of growing working women in the German organizations since 1950s; despite the traditional gender roles; therefore working part-time seems to be an obvious solution. Additionally, Straub (2007) reports that there is a considerably high amount of German female university graduates; despite this fact, women are seen less in many of the executive positions in German organizations; which is also attributed to the traditional gender roles. A longitudinal German study (Abele, 2005) on work-life balance shows that men's personal goals namely parenthood, goals in child care and work-life goals were less oriented towards work-life balance as compared to women's personal goals. The study also found that women's personal goals predicted parenthood but did not predict men's parenthood.

Child care facilities is also a matter of concern considering the social welfare state in Germany and its traditional notion of male and female social roles

because child care is considered as the main responsibility of the parents; wherein fathers would be working and mothers taking care of the family and children. This implies that, there are only few public child care centres or only few private affordable child care facilities (Straub, 2007) and in the light of this finding, Hoser (2012) through her qualitative exploration found out that, grandmothers are the most common; moreover, the only available option for child caring in Germany. Another study (Krüger & Baldus, 1999) confirms this reality as well. Insufficient and expensive day-care facilities places, combined with half-day school schedules through the 10th grade, indirectly support a work structure that effectively “takes for granted that women are at home” (p. 373). Recently, the German social welfare state has refocused on the issues regarding family policies that help in balancing work and life. This effort of refocusing is a result of the concern over low birth rate (Klammer & Letablier, 2007). The improvements in family policies began in 1998-2000 with increasing the monetary benefits for families (Schatzenstaller, 2002) and followed by improved options to integrate parental leave with part-time work along with encouraging mothers to re-enter career as soon as possible by providing incentives. Furthermore, the Pension Reform 2001 promoted the pension rights of part-time working mothers (Klammer & Letablier, 2007).

Considering the facts presented so far regarding the work-life interface in Germany, the question arises how satisfied are the German employees regarding the work-life balance situation in Germany? And how do they balance these two domains in spite of some hurdles they might encounter? Along with the findings of the current Indo-German study, some noteworthy research findings based on German sample should be considered in answering these above posed questions. A recent study (Beham & Drobnič, 2010) on 716 German office workers about the work-family balance satisfaction levels shows that social support received at work and job control lead to satisfaction with work-family balance; whereas perceived high organizational time expectations, psychological job demands and job insecurity affected satisfaction with work-family balance negatively. Work overload, working in tight deadlines, working long hours frequently lead to dissatisfaction and hamper the work and life integration. On the positive side, having a sense of control over place of work and time of work, flexibility with work schedules contribute to the satisfaction with balancing work and family. One more

German study (Jacobshagen et al., 2005) on work-family balance for the top level managers examined the mediating role of conflict in stressors and strain.

Another German study tested the demands-resources approach on work-family interface (Voydanoff, 2005) and found out that work-family conflict or interference was a result of high work demands rather than low work resources (Beham et al., 2011). Job demands according to Demerouti et al. (2001) are defined as “physical, social, or organizational aspects of a job that require sustained physical or mental effort, and are therefore associated with certain physiological and psychological costs”. Job resources are “aspects of one's job that are either functional in achieving work goals, reduce costs associated with job demands, or stimulate personal growth and development” (p. 501). When work-family enrichment was tested (Beham et al., 2011), they found that enrichment was a result of activation of work resources rather than low work demands. This study asserts the proposition that if the organizations in Germany aim to facilitate the work-life balance process of their employees they should not only reduce the work demands but also create a family supportive culture by firstly, decreasing the conflict that may arise while integrating work and family and secondly, by encouraging work-family enrichment (Beham et al., 2011).

The influence of societal values and legal framework on work-life balance abilities of German managers were tested in a cross-cultural study comparing Germany and the USA (Peus & Traut-Mattausch, 2008). This study found out that societal values have a stronger influence than legal framework on German female managers. Not having dependent children was considered to be a success factor according to some German female participants of this study. The deficit of the German laws, that aim to support the women in balancing work and life, are actually working against them because they are not well-suited to the work domain and having children as a part of the family domain. The laws that allow many benefits to the expectant mothers and working parents may refrain the organizations from hiring women, because later on women would avail these benefits and claim the rights (Peus & Traut-Mattausch, 2008). Nitzsche et al. (2013) have conducted a study on 509 German employees regarding work-home interaction, work-life balance culture in organizations and its influence on emotional exhaustion. They confirm that a favourable work-life culture in

organizations is perceived to be negatively related to emotional exhaustion and negative work-home interaction and is associated positively with emotional exhaustion.

2.8.2. Work-life balance and career success in Germany

A career development theoretical model has been proposed, that analyses the objective and subjective career success along with life satisfaction and well-being. Two sub-models are proposed, one consists of life planning in career and private life and the second one addresses the gender's dual impact on various career processes (Abele, 2002). Taking a look at the facts about work-life interface in Germany, its relation with career advancement is also established in the literature. Work-life balance was mentioned as one of the barriers in career advancement by 87% of German female managers (Peus & Traut-Mattausch, 2008). Straub (2007) found out that work-life balance practices such as additional pay for maternity and paternity leave, flexitime and the existence of a code of conduct show significant relationships with advancement of women managers. Only additional pay for maternity and paternity leave was associated positively with advancement; whereas all the other practices were significantly negatively associated with career advancement. The probable explanations are that even today the work related suppositions are male biased and that career advancement models fail to include women, as the models are still designed to suit males (Lewis, 2001; Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). No other study was found to study the linkages between career satisfaction and work-life interface directly in the German context. Wiese (2004) examined the relationship between supportive organizational culture, well-being and job satisfaction. The current Indo-German study may prove to be helpful in gaining insight into this aspect.

2.8.3. Strategies used to balance work and life in Germany

In order to understand how German employees balance their work and life domains, some strategies they use, that have emerged from the research literature on work-life interface in Germany are presented here. Wierda-Boer et al. (2009) compared the strategies for five European countries and Germany was one of them. They found that in Germany, the complementary-traditional strategy was used to manage work and life. In complementary-traditional strategy, one partner

(man) engages more in paid work; while the other partner (woman) engages in unpaid work. Thus, women are seen highly engaged in family and child care responsibilities in Germany. Peus & Traut-Mattausch (2008) reported external strategies, German female managers use to balance work and family that is they depend on other family members for child care. To combine career and family, many German managers had to go on a career break before or after child birth; which they perceived to be not well-suited for a full-time job. Another study on work-life balance for men and women in highly qualified jobs in Germany shows that integration, segmentation and de-bordering are some strategies that professionals use to balance work and non-work lives (Hoff et al., 2005). The strategies presented above give some idea about how work-life balance is achieved in the German context. The current Indo-German study will be insightful in this regard as well. Some more strategies for work-life balance are expected to emerge from the current study.

2.8.4. Work-life Interface in India

In the Indian context, the interest in work-life interface gained momentum with the women's increased participation in paid work, as it is the case for Germany and greater Europe. Work-life interface research has been a priority in India only recently and it is believed that the research trend takes more time to be absorbed in the society especially for the Indian society, as compared to the developed economy like Germany. The reason for this is that the Indian society has more gendered distribution of work and family roles (Bhalla & Kaur, 2011). There is a consistent increase in the women's participation in the labour force in India leading to increased number of dual-earner couples and nuclear families; therefore, an increase in the demands of Indian employees to balance work and lives (Sekaran, 1992, Bharat, 2003; Komarraju, 1997; Ramu, 1989). Jain (1992) notes that the Indian women's role in the Indian society underwent a change in 1970s; during that time Indian women started becoming more conscious about their personal needs, demands of equality, their status at work and in the family. In the 1980s, there was a considerable increase in women's participation in work forces showing more than 40% growth. Indian women entered the work force in huge numbers during the 1980s and the numbers were constantly increasing until 2000s (Census of India, 2001). As reported earlier in the case of Germany, India

has also not escaped the changes in the work context, demographics and the after effects of such changes on work-life balance.

In case of the work related changes, there is a similarity between Germany and India with regard to the impact of globalization on work-life roles, constant innovation related to technology that allows employees to work 24x7 crossing the work and life borders rapidly; furthermore, it changes the work characteristics (Chandra, 2012). The rapid changes in the work characteristics have a negative impact on family time (Rao & Indla, 2010). The Factories Act 1948 prescribes the working hours for an adult worker to not exceed 48 hours in a week (a week in India is considered as a six-day week) and 9 hours a day; furthermore, working time for female workers and adolescents is restricted from 19.00 hours to 06.00 hours (Baral & Bhargava, 2011). Many employees work on Sundays showing a change in work schedule. India shows the highest number of worked hours that is 2400 hours in a year, as compared to other nine nations (Chandra, 2012, p. 1051). This fact shows that Indian employees seem to be hard working but this may be achieved at the cost of their healthy work-life balance.

Rao & Indla (2010) have commented on the concept of “ideal worker” in the Indian context that needs to be modified. According to this concept, it is in the best interest of an employee to work long hours, try to give more than what is expected out of him/her, and fulfil the employer’s/client’s expectations at all costs. It is highly likely that a person who does not go on long vacations and is contactable beyond office hours is perceived as an ideal worker (Rao & Indla, 2010). Baral & Bhargava (2011) reported four types of leaves that are available for employees under the Factories Act, 1948; Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946 and the Employee State Insurance Act, 1948. The four types of leaves are ‘earned leave’ (mostly easily taken by employees); ‘casual leave’ (for family related purposes); ‘sick leave’ (with a medical practitioner’s certificate) and lastly ‘compensatory leave’ (taken as a compensation for extra work hours). If there are more than 30 female employees in a work unit, under the Factories Act, 1948 (Section 40) the work unit must have crèches so that the children of these female employees are taken care of (Baral & Bhargava, 2011).

The paternity leave is not so common in Indian organizations (Chandra, 2012); nevertheless the female employees in India are entitled to a maternity leave of 12 weeks before or after the child birth under the Maternity Benefit Act, 1961. Under this Act the female employees are entitled to a fully paid maternity leave (Chandra, 2012); which is calculated according to her daily wages for the period of the leave. Under the Employee State Insurance Act, 1948, if the employees are insured by the employer, a cash benefit is granted to the female employees or male employees (for their wives) to cover the medical expenses that arise due of the pregnancy that is pre-mature birth or miscarriage etc. (Baral & Bhargava, 2011). Research affirms that work-life balance programs offered in the Indian organizations are lesser than those offered in the western countries (Buddhapriya, 2009; Poster, 2005). It should be noted that the initiatives (family-friendly policies) mentioned so far and facilities such as flexibility with working time, work from home and family counselling are designed to facilitate the work-life balance process but unfortunately, these initiatives are mostly functional in the new emerging software and service organizations in India. There is an overall impression of the Indian employees that for the widespread utilization of such benefits, policies and work-family programs, organizations are recommended to create a more family-friendly culture (Baral & Bhargava, 2011).

It is important to also take into account the demographic changes in the Indian family system. The early notions of the traditional Indian family viewed a family in hierarchies. The hierarchy applies to age, sex and ordinal position of each member of the family (Chitnis, 1988). The status of a man in the traditional Indian family is that of a “head” of the house; which comes with the power of decision-making. In today’s context, the husbands, who have grown up in a traditional Indian family (3-4 generations living together under one roof), will view the status of their wives differently than the ones, who grew up in a nuclear family (a small family unit comprising of husband, wife and their children only). As compared to husbands from the nuclear families, the ones grown up in the traditional families may find it probably difficult to allow decision making by their wives; and likewise have traditional expectations from their wives, that is, the wives perform family duties and not engage extensively in paid work (Ross, 1977).

As mentioned earlier, the traditional families dominate the family structure in India, but nuclear families are more common in urban India (Roy, 2000). The extended families are slowly vanishing (Patel, 2005). The so called new families differ to the older notion of families in three aspects according to Bharat (2003). Firstly, the new families depict family relations in a more egalitarian form. Secondly, the new families endorse equal distribution of household labour and thirdly, new families are more equal in the decision-making and gender free perceptions. In spite of the new families' concept, the traditional male bread winner model; which is also applicable in Germany, is also a reality in the Indian context. Thus, Indian women are seen playing a dual role in shouldering domestic responsibilities and seeking careers (Bharat, 1992; Ramu, 1989). It is a reality today in India, that the Indian familial relations are embedded in both traditional and modern gender role expectations (Ayree et al., 2005). Institutional support is rather weak in the Indian context, as family members especially, parents, in-laws other relatives are seen as sources of support in child care. Other source of help in domestic chores and child care is that of paid domestic help; which is quite cheap in India, as compared to Germany. The role of spouse in child care mostly depends on the spouse's perceptions towards work and family roles and is considered only if other sources are not functional (Rajadhyaksha, 2004).

The views regarding career priorities and social gender roles are also relevant in understanding the work-life balance interface in the Indian context. The salience of work-life balance may be different for Indian men and women as the husband's career has a priority against the wife's career (Chandra, 2012). An important aspect of work-family balance is the distribution of domestic duties and for the Indian women it is very difficult to not engage in the household labour as she is adequately traditionally socialized for two purposes; firstly, to become a wife and secondly, to become a mother (Ross, 1977). On this note, Nath (2000) describes the role of an Indian wife as "being devoted, obedient, subordinate and dutiful" towards her family (p. 45). The traditional picture of an Indian woman has not changed completely; on the other hand, a study on professional middle class Indian women shows that education, income and occupation of parents have played an important role in women securing positions in workforce. There is no doubt that being a professional woman has positive repercussions on a woman's

“self”; that is recognition from significant others in the family and her social circle, self confidence, and high self-esteem (Liddle & Joshi, 1987). Gender differences regarding perceptions of work-life balance for Indian male and female employees (Doble & Supriya, 2006) shows that 95% of women against 83% of men believed that part-time work would improve their balance. 92% of women against 74% of men asserted the fact that their companies should provide child-care facilities to improve work-life balance. The literature on the Indian situation of work-life interface presented so far addresses the various social, legal, economical and cultural aspects of work-life interface.

2.8.5. Work-life interface and career success in India

As noted earlier, career success will be measured in the current study through career satisfaction and career advancement. Work-family balance and work related outcomes have been studied (Ayree et al., 2005) and the findings show that work-family facilitation was positively related to job satisfaction. This implies that the positive transfer of work experiences to family experiences may improve performance and eventually lead to job satisfaction. Baral & Bhargava (2010) also tested the relationship between work-life balance programs and job satisfaction but reported a non-significant relationship. Srivastava et al. (2009) have also examined the relationship between work-family facilitation and job satisfaction in their study; wherein they found that 92% of the Indian participants responded that job satisfaction was an influential facilitator for a positive family life. No other study was found to have examined the relation between career advancement and work-life interface in the Indian context. The current Indo-German study aims to explore this relationship.

2.8.6. Strategies used to balance work and life in India

Mostly two common strategies are used by Indian employees to integrate their work and family lives. One of the strategies is to outsource the domestic work to a paid help. Secondly, there is a heavy reliance on parents and in-laws for help (Chandra, 2012). Another observation that can also be considered as a strategy in the Indian context is that there is less segmentation of work and family roles (Rajadhyaksha, 2012). This implies that many a times for private family functions like wedding ceremony and festival celebrations, colleagues or even senior

supervisors are invited. Additionally, festival celebrations take place in the office premises; which is not that apparent in the western developed countries. This may be a way of balancing work and life by blurring the work-family borders.

2.9. Choosing enrichment approach over conflict approach.

As explained in detail at the beginning of the literature review chapter about the conflict versus facilitation (see 2.3.1.iii.) and conflict versus enrichment (2.3.1.iv.) approaches to work-life interface; it is believed that a stronger empirical background and an investigation of the positive interdependencies of work and family will prove to complement the research focusing on negative side that is the conflict approach and will deepen the understanding of work-life interface (Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). The positive side of the work-family interface as compared to the conflict approach is conceptually and empirically underdeveloped (Frone, 2003). The conflict perspective has dominated the work-family literature for more than 20 years; nevertheless the research focusing on the positive approach towards work-life domains is gradually gaining momentum (Barnett, 1998; Fu & Shaffer, 2001; Noor, 2002; Grzywacz, 2002; Hill, 2005). The conflict approach and its negative influence on the well-being of employees has received some attention in the German context (e.g., Jacobshagen et al., 2005; Wiese, 2004; Brauchli et al., 2012; and Rabl & Kühlmann); however the positive approach towards the work-family interface calls for more attention in Germany (Beham et al., 2011) as well as in India (e.g., Bhargava & Baral, 2009; Baral & Bhargava, 2010).

Considering the scarce empirical literature on a global level focusing on the positive aspects of work and family; and also considering the limited literature especially in Germany and India, basing this cross-cultural research on the positive side of the work-life interface over the negative side is thus justified. To fully understand the work-life interface, considering only the negative side would not suffice, therefore the positive side must also be considered and examined. The recent notion of work-family enrichment is considered to be worth investigating in the German and the Indian context, as it portrays how work domain and family domain are positively associated with each other and how individuals can benefit from this positive interdependency. As pointed out earlier, these two domains may have a positive effect bi-directionally that is from work to family and from family to

work. If both the directions are considered for the investigation, then it may be useful to the organizations not only to rework on the negative characteristics related to work but also to promote the positive aspects of work and family, such as providing a supportive work-family culture through managerial support and suitable work-family programs. An advantage of the current study lies in the insights gained from the examination of work-life balance and career success. Career success is important for the individuals as well as the organizations and if a positive association between work-life balance and career success is discovered, it would serve as an important reason for the organizations to care about the work-life balance of their employees and to take appropriate steps towards achieving the goal of providing them with a healthy and a positive work-family environment.

2.10. Rationale for conducting research.

The opportunity of conducting a qualitative research for my master thesis triggered the idea for carrying out this doctoral research. The master thesis “Comparison of success factors for Indian female and male managers: An exploratory study” was conducted in India and the purpose of the study was to uncover factors that led to the success of women as well as men business leaders in India and also to find out which success factors led to the career advancement for both the sexes in personal, situational and societal dimensions. Barriers faced by Indian female and Indian male managers in their career advancement were also explored.

The qualitative semi-structured interviews were used to obtain information about the managers’ career planning, career implementation, personal factors for success and personal strategies. 15 male and 15 female managers, representing diverse industries in India were personally interviewed. All the thirty interviews were digitally audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim. Gender differences emerged from the factors that led to success and the barriers the managers encountered. “Work-life balance” was an important success factor according to the Indian managers. The gender differences related to work-life balance in this Indian study showed that the male managers; in general, thought that it was important to balance work and family but did not attach more importance to this factor as the female managers did. In balancing work and family, the female and the male

managers attached equal importance to the support they received from their spouses. It would be worth investigating the relationship between work-life balance and career advancement of managers on a deeper level considering these few findings.

As this aspect was not the sole focus of the master thesis, this extremely important area remains unexplored to a large extent. Comparing the findings from this master thesis to the western studies, especially the research on German female managers' success factors (von Véver, 2009); in which the German female managers attached most importance to success factors namely "performance", "career planning" and "mentors"; whereas the Indian study shows that the Indian managers attached most importance to different success factors such as "learning", "self awareness" and "performance". The German female managers' research (Von Véver, 2009) also showed that work-life balance was seen as a barrier in career advancement; whereas the Indian managers did not see work-life balance as a barrier in career advancement. There is substantial empirical research on the influence of employment on family life and the influence of family life on employment (Marshall, 1992a; 1992b). Thus, the differences in the aspects of work-life balance and career success for India and Germany are expected (career advancement is the objective aspect and career satisfaction is the subjective aspect of success). Therefore, the main goal of this research is to examine the role of work-family enrichment in career success and work-life balance for German and Indian managers. An examination on a cross-cultural level would provide a broader perspective, as these two cultures are different, yet may reveal some similarities. This may naturally affect the organizational cultures and would mirror a broader array of factors affecting the work-life balance and their influences on work-family/family-work enrichment. Thus, a further goal is to find out if this aspect proves to be important in career success of managers.

2.11. Rationale for conducting a cross-cultural comparison.

Culture as defined by Hofstede (2001, p. 9) is "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another". Another definition proposed by Triandis (1995, p. 4) is that culture includes "shared beliefs, attitudes, norms, roles, and behaviours". Powell et al. (2009) have reported that the influences of culture on the work lives and the family

lives of individuals have not received enough attention in major literature reviews. They recommend the need for a culture-sensitive approach towards work-family interface. The question arises - why is it important to explore the work-family interface on a cross-cultural level? One explanation is that both developed and developing countries have a concern for balancing work and family. And this is a result of globalization; which has encouraged the organizations to go beyond borders, to employ emigrant individuals and to use multi-cultural teams in companies (Ling & Powell, 2001). In an organization, having employees who belong to different nations, races, cultures; relying on cross-cultural comparisons may prove to be beneficial. Additionally, such research provides valuable information about what works well and what doesn't in a specific culture.

The second reasonable explanation is that the cross-cultural research helps us to consider the differences between the nations and these differences, when interpreted may reflect a largely unexplored aspect of the research; which could have never come to the surface, if we considered only single-nation research (Kohn, 1987). Taking into consideration these explanations, comparing two nations would also help the nations, whose cultural context is being studied; to utilize the gained insight for their own good. To clarify this point, e.g. Indian managers can learn about the best practices in Germany and try to incorporate (after alteration) from the German organizational culture, whatever is suitable in their Indian organizations. Kohn (1987) also suggests that cross-national research is worthy of consideration, as it deepens our understanding of the phenomena being studied and such a research can enlarge our knowledge base, as our understanding can be retested and further developed.

The advantage of cross-cultural research as explained above will broaden our understanding of work-life balance, the enriching experiences of work-family/family work and its relationship with career success in Germany and India. A systematic comparison of the German and the Indian managers can lead to strengths and limitations of the cultural context and how the strengths and limitations play a role in shaping the work-life interface. There is a recommendation from the work-family enrichment theorists Greenhaus & Powell (2006) that the enrichment phenomena be examined in other countries apart from the USA. The goal of examining work-family interface has been predominantly

achieved by the US studies and the studies with an American sample (Shaffer et al., 2011). Gradually, researchers from the other nations have recognized the need of examining the work-family domains (Poelmans et al., 2005) and this two-country study will be a contribution to the research conducted on work-family/work-life domains outside the USA.

The aim of comparing Germany and India seems quite sensible and attainable as the researcher of this doctoral thesis is a native Indian and became fairly familiar with the German culture through learning German language in India and also by living in Germany for more than 5 years. Furthermore, in the Indian context and in the German context there is not enough research on work-family enrichment, its role in career success of managers and the aspects of work-life balance as addressed in the current study; which is the need of the hour. Shaffer et al. (2011) reviewed 219 research articles focusing on the work-family interface that consisted samples outside the USA dated between years 1986-2010 and found that there are only 10 studies that focused on comparing any two countries. They also found only 1 study in Germany and 3 studies in India researching work-family balance (p. 233-234). Although in Germany (e.g. Beham & Drobnič, 2010; Abele, 2005; Beham et al., 2012; Hoser, 2010 and Peus & Traut-Mattausch, 2008) and in India (e.g. Ayree et al., 2005; Baral & Bhargava, 2011; Bhatnagar & Rajadhyaksha, 2001; Rajadhyaksha & Bhatnagar, 2000 and Srivastava et al., 2009) there are a few studies focusing on work-family and work-life aspects. As noted earlier, there is only one German (Beham et al., 2011) and one Indian study (Baral & Bhargava, 2010) examining enrichment process; although measuring only one direction i.e. work-family enrichment. This doctoral research is the first study to compare Germany and India in the context of work-life interface and career success and to provide unique findings from German and Indian organizations.

On an organizational level, if it can be empirically demonstrated that there is a positive relation between work-life balance and career success; and also between work-family enrichment/family-work enrichment and career success, then organizations in India and Germany can be encouraged to take more initiatives in supporting the employees to manage their work-family/work-life. Due to globalization of business, many German organizations have their subsidiaries in

other parts of the world and also in India or many Indian professionals are being hired by German companies. The findings from this research can be of great interest to such individuals and organizations. The German and the Indian employees can better understand the work-family/life phenomena nested in specific cultural context. On an individual level, it would be worth knowing if work-life balance and enrichment process play any role in career success, then such a positive connection can be made visible to others. Furthermore, it would mean that for an individual to succeed in career having a balance in work life and family life would be important. Individuals can be provided professional help like coaching and counselling, who are in need of assistance in managing their work and life.

Examining the role of work-life balance in career success of managers and examining if the enrichment theory (Kirschmeyer, 1992a; Rothbard, 2001) of work-life balance has a role to play in career success of managers would be the main goal of this two-country study. Furthermore, if it is found that work-family enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) and career advancement are positively related; this would create opportunities for work-family enrichment based training for managers to balance their work and families in a positive way rather than considering these two domains only as conflicts (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Looking at the scarce examination of work-family/family-work enrichment and its relation with career success in Germany and in India, this doctoral research will contribute uniquely by exploring and analysing managers' work-life and career related experiences. This research should ultimately help in knowing, which strategies work best in both countries and also to develop newer strategies for a better balance through enriching work-family/family-work experiences.

2.12. Aim of the research.

The aim of the doctoral research was to explore the various factors related to work-life balance, work-family enrichment and career success of German and Indian managers. This aim was achieved through a comparative quantitative research using an online survey consisting of a compilation of four psychological tests along with a comparative qualitative research consisting of semi-structured personal interviews. For the purpose of exploration, it was necessary to analyse the bi-directional work-family relationship and find out how work related factors have enriching effects on family related factors and vice-versa. Work-life interface

is often seen as a conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) but the focus of this doctoral research was on the positive effects of work on family and vice-versa. Work-family enrichment represents how work and family benefit each other (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Therefore, the path of work-family enrichment was followed to determine the relationship between work and family.

The exploration also included analysing the career success of managers. Career success was operationalized by distinguishing it into objective (career advancement) (Hughes, 1937, 1958) and subjective career (career satisfaction) (Heslin, 2005). Organizational work-family culture was also taken into consideration, as it may have a direct influence on how managers deal with the work-family interface (Thompson et al., 1999). The aim was also to discover if there is any relationship between work-life balance and career success and between work-family enrichment and career success. This cross-national comparison would uncover the relationship between work and life in the context of career success. Furthermore, the research would uncover the similarities and differences that lie within the two countries; which can give an insight into the enriching experiences related to work-family and career success and work-life balance related aspects of German and Indian managers. Finally, this research aims to find out if work-family enrichment based training would help managers to balance the two important domains namely work and life.

2.13. Design of the research.

The research was conducted using quantitative and qualitative methods. The quantitative method resulted in establishing relationship between the aspects of work-family enrichment, career success, and organizational work-family culture. The qualitative method helped to uncover various factors that influence the relationships between the dimensions being studied. A sequential mixed method approach was applied throughout and also while integrating the findings from both the methods.

The data collection was carried out sequentially that is the quantitative data was collected initially through an online survey. This online survey was a combination of four statistically valid and reliable scales measuring the dimensions being examined (see Appendix D). The data collection was followed by some

statistical analyses such as independent t-test and correlation; which reflected the differences and the direction of the relationships, respectively. The quantitative analyses addressed specific relationships between work-family enrichment and career success, between work-family enrichment and organizational work-family culture, between career advancement and career satisfaction and also between organizational work-family culture and career success along with gender differences wherever applicable. Such statistical analyses shaped the formulation of questions in the qualitative semi-structured interviews.

In the second part of the research, personal semi-structured interviews were conducted and the qualitative data analysis was carried out. The interviews encompassed broader aspects of work-life balance. The construct of work-life balance was explored only through interviews as it is quite a complex construct and a single psychological test or a combination of tests may not uncover the aspects of work-life balance in depth; which can be uncovered ably through interviews. The interviews also revealed some aspects of work-family enrichment, family-work enrichment, organizational work-family culture, career success, family dynamics and gender differences wherever applicable.

After the quantitative and qualitative analyses were carried out; the findings from both methods were integrated. The sequential mixed analysis is one of the recommended ways of enhancing the interpretative power of quantitative results with the support of qualitative data. It is conceived as “multiple approaches to data collection, analysis, and inference are employed in a sequence of phases” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, p. 149-150). The relationships that were established in the quantitative part were understood in greater detail through a qualitative exploration. The relationships that were not established in quantitative part; were addressed through the open-ended interview questions and the qualitative data analysis revealed, if these relationships received some support from responses of interviewees. Combining the two methods in one study proved to be beneficial as the two different methods lead to two different aspects of the same phenomenon.

Summary of the Chapter

The chapter introduced the topic of the doctoral research followed by the literature review that provided a strong base of the empirical studies embedded in varied cultures including the specific countries in question i.e. Germany and India. This chapter gave a good overview of the vast topic work-life balance and its traditional as well as contemporary approaches. The concept of career success was also presented and the studies examining its relation with work-life interface in Germany and India were reported. After a detailed presentation of positive and negative approaches towards the work and family domains, the justification of choosing the positive side of work-life balance for the current study was provided. Furthermore, the chapter provided a rationale for conducting the research by explaining the importance and relevance of the topic along with the importance of cross-cultural research and the reasons why this approach was chosen for the current study. Lastly, the aims of the research and the design of the research were presented.

CHAPTER 3

3. Theoretical Foundations

Goals of the chapter: The chapter addresses four theories that are relevant to the current research along with providing a justification of basing the current research on the mentioned theories. The definitions of constructs or dimensions as they will be called throughout the thesis are also separately presented. This chapter ends with relevant hypotheses and research questions of the current study.

To understand the work-life interface many researchers have developed theories that try to conceptualise the different facets of the work-life interface. From the pool of established theories that address the issue of work-life interface, a few suitable theories were selected that provide some explanations for the findings that emerge from this two-country study. The following theories serve as a strong foundation for the current research.

3.1. Work-family enrichment theory.

Greenhaus & Powell (2006) define work-family enrichment as “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role”. Marks (1977) and Sieber (1974) proposed that the advantages of engaging in multiple roles are likely to prevail over the disadvantages also called as an expansionist hypothesis (Barnett & Baruch, 1985). Many researchers believe in a more reasonable perspective that recognizes the positive effects of uniting work and family roles (Barnett, 1998; Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). Another worthy work in this area has been done by Grzywacz (2002) where he postulated the theory of the positive interdependencies between work and family roles.

Greenhaus & Powell (2006) in their research have discovered a set of nineteen studies using self-report scales for measuring work-family enrichment. Work-family conflict as well as work-family enrichment was assessed by fifteen of the nineteen studies. Interestingly, for every study from these nineteen studies the

average enrichment score was overall considerably higher than the average conflict score. This finding implies that employees do perceive an enriching relationship between work and family.

3.1.1. Theoretical model of work-family enrichment.

The work-family enrichment model was developed by Greenhaus & Powell (2006) in an effort to understand the enrichment processes that link work to family and family to work. The researchers firmly believe that the concept of enrichment is bi-directional. They present a model to examine the positive relationship between work and family domain.

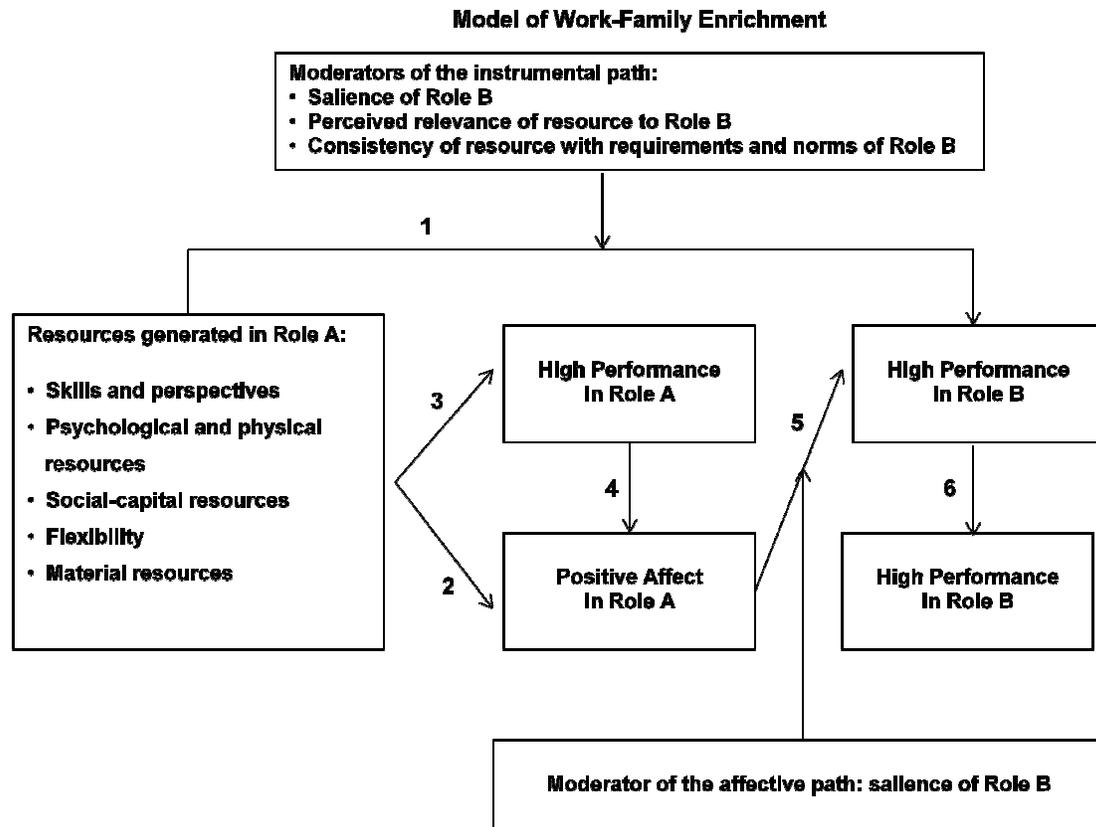


Figure 2. Model of Work-Family Enrichment. Adapted from Greenhaus & Powell (2006), p.79.

The model demonstrates how experiences in Role A can improve the quality of life in Role B. As the enrichment can occur bi-directionally, Role A and Role B refer to either work or family. The quality of life is defined by Greenhaus & Powell (2006) as “consisting of two components: high performance and positive

affect". The researchers propose that the resources generated in Role A promote high performance and positive affect in Role B. The researchers further conceive that this promotion of high performance and positive affect from Role A to Role B is moderated by the salience of Role B, the perceived relevance of the resource to Role B and the consistency of the resource with the requirements and norms of Role B. A resource is conceived by the researchers as "an asset that can be utilized when a problem needs to be solved or used to cope with a challenging situation". A fundamental part in enrichment process is the resource generation (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Grzywacz, 2002).

The theory suggests that there are five types of resources that can be generated in a role.

1. **Skills & perspectives:** Skills refer to a broad set of task-related cognitive and interpersonal skills, multi-tasking skills, coping skills, experiences and wisdom drawn from role experiences (Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998; Holman & Wall, 2002; McCauley, Ruderman, Ohlott, & Morrow, 1994; Ruderman et al., 2002). Perspectives refer to the ways of perceiving and handling situations e.g. respecting individual differences (Ruderman et al., 2002).
2. **Psychological & physical resources:** refer to the positive self evaluations such as self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) and self esteem (Brockner, 1988). These resources also include personal hardiness (Blaney & Ganellen, 1990; Kobasa, 1979), positive emotions like optimism and hope (Seligman, 1991, 2002) and physical health.
3. **Social capital resources:** refer to "the influence & information gathered from interpersonal relationships at work and at family that are instrumental in achieving goals" (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 80).
4. **Flexibility:** is defined as "discretion to determine the timing, pace and location at which role requirements are met" (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 80).
5. **Material resources:** refer to "money and gifts gained from work and family roles" (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 80).

Greenhaus & Powell (2006) suggest that there is interdependence within many of the resources that are generated by the role experiences. Therefore, the acquirement of one resource can lead to the triggering of the acquirement of the other resources. The model furthermore stipulates two paths by which the promotion of high performance and positive affect from Role A to Role B occurs. The two paths are:

1. **Instrumental path:** a transfer of resource occurs directly from Role A to Role B resulting into an enhanced performance. This path is referred to as the instrumental path (Hanson et al., 2003) as the application of a resource has a direct instrumental effect on performance in another role. Ruderman et al., (2002) through their study prove how a number of qualities that female managers develop from their personal lives namely interpersonal skills, multitasking skills, respect for individual differences can improve their managerial effectiveness.
2. **Affective path:** “resource generated in Role A promotes positive affect within Role A which produces a high performance and positive affect in Role B”. Thus this path is named as the affective path (Hanson et al., 2003). The affective path consists of positive affect including positive moods and positive emotions gained from the role experiences. The affective path operates in two ways. Firstly, some resources can have direct effects on positive affect in Role A (Figure 2, arrow 2). An example is the psychological resources such as self-esteem, optimism and hope originating from a role can activate positive mood, positive emotions or satisfactions in that role (Isen & Baron, 1991) leading to improved performance in Role B. Secondly, the resources generated in Role A can promote a high performance in Role A (Figure 2, arrow 3) and result in enhanced positive affect in that role (Figure 2, arrow 4). Thus, causing an indirect effect and leading to improved performance in Role B. An example of this indirect effect is self-esteem derived from work (Korman, 1976), skill development (McCall, Bombardo & Morrison, 1988) and social resources (Seibert, Kraimer & Liden, 2001) result in advancement of job performance and success or inherited material resources can be supportive to family travel (Judge et al., 2001).

The model also depicts the role of moderators for each path. In case of the instrumental path there are three moderators. Firstly, high salience of Role B to the individual will result in high performance in Role B. The amount of time and emotional investment in a role solely depends on how salient the role is to the individual (Burke & Reitzes, 1991; Lobel, 1991; Lobel & St. Clair, 1992; Stryker & Serpe, 1994). Secondly, the credibility of the source can determine the perceived relevance of a skill or information acquired in Role A to a situation in Role B. Thirdly, compatibility of the resource generated in Role A with actual demands of Role B can influence the attainment of high performance in Role B. Therefore, the consistency with the norms of Role B plays an important role. In case of the affective path, the only moderator is the salience of Role B.

The purpose of the current two-country research was to focus on the positive side of the work-life balance. And work-family enrichment seems to play a significant role in the work-life balance. Therefore, it was decided to base the research on the theory of work-family enrichment.

3.2. Role accumulation theory.

Sieber (1974) defines a role according to that of Merton (1957) and Gross et al. (1958) as “pattern of expectations which apply to a particular social position and which normally persist independently of the personalities occupying the position” (p. 569). The benefits of role accumulation lead to gratification by outweighing any stress that may arise by involving oneself in multiple roles. Sieber (1974) proposes four types of rewards that can be gained by an individual from role accumulation: role-privileges; security; resources for status enhancement & role performance; enrichment of the personality & ego gratification.

3.2.1. Role privileges.

Every role brings along with it certain rights as well as duties. There are some built-in rights, which can be called inherent rights. The other rights arise from the daily interaction with the role partners, which are called as emergent rights. Inherent rights serve as a stimulus for the recruitment to roles and also as a stimulus for the continuance of role performance. The emergent rights serve the

more specific function of assuring role compliance, particularly when the demands of the role are increased. Thus, it can be generalised that the more the number of roles (important is that the roles are not inherently offensive), the more the number of privileges that can be enjoyed by an individual.

3.2.2. Security.

Involving in more multiple roles can work as a buffer for overall status security. Such involvement works as a buffer against failure of instrumental and expressive domains of an action. An individual with a wide range of role partners is capable of compensating the failure in any social environment or any relationship by gaining support from other relationships. For an individual these alternate relationships are a source of compensatory affection, moral support, and even assistance for regeneration of efforts in the original role. Thus there are psychological and social benefits involved in the buffer that is created by engaging in multiple roles.

3.2.3. Resources for status enhancement and role performance.

Role partners manage to give a variety of perquisites or benefits. Some examples of such 'non-institutional by-products of social relationships' as mentioned by Sieber are introductions or recommendations given to the third party that may be instrumental in one's career advancement, a good credit rating, freebies, clothing, and a variety of similar gifts. These benefits can be reinvested in other roles. Another advantage of these role accumulations is that it enhances one's power base in society. Furthermore, the reinvestment of the benefits in another role compensates the ego for any stress or burden that may arise by engaging in multiple roles. Finally, this leads to an individual being more valuable to his/her role partners.

3.2.4. Personality enrichment and ego gratification.

It is believed that role accumulation may enrich the personality and augment one's self-conception. One who engages in multiple roles and has good contacts with his/her peers becomes tolerant of differences in viewpoints, gets exposure to many sources of information, is flexible in altering oneself to the demands of varied role-partners etc. Evidence to the fact that role accumulation

has a positive effect on personality is provided by Cummings and ElSalmi (1970). They studied the effect of role-set diversity on managers. They found that managers with multiple roles perceive smaller need fulfilment deficiencies than managers with less diverse roles. The higher level needs such as self-actualization, information and autonomy are a result of this relationship between role-diversity and fulfilment. Individuals who live multiple roles have a tendency to be self-critical (Sarbin and Allen, 1968). Multiple roles may lead to distress but it may be converted into social prestige, resulting into some amount of psychic compensation.

One of the purposes of the current two-country research was to find out if a positive transfer from work to family domain and vice versa occurs for the current sample. It was also a goal of the research to find out if managers who engage in work and non-work roles in a balanced way succeed in their careers. Hence, this role accumulation theory will prove as a foundation for this research purpose.

3.3. Ecological systems theory.

Work-family experience is a result of a combination of process, person, context and time characteristics (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 1986, 1999; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998; Bronfenbrenner & Ceci, 1994). Bronfenbrenner (1989) postulates that microsystems may have an influence on the individual and that work domain and family domain are such microsystems. The roles, activities related to work-family domains and the inter-relationships of the individual are included in such a microsystem. A mesosystem consists of the interactions and connections between work and family microsystems. The ecological systems theory further proposes that an individual's work-family experience is affected by every characteristic in an additive or probably interactive way. Consistent with the ecological theory (Barnett, 1996 and Bronfenbrenner, 1986), the ecological systems theory highlights the importance of an adequate person-environment fit. The ecological theory additionally proposes the fact that there are a variety of factors that outline the work-family experience of an individual. The theory itself has no boundaries such as positive or negative spillover (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000).

There is a belief that ecological systems theory helps in understanding how work and family interact in a positive way. The development of an individual is a consequence of constant interactions between the individual and the environment the individual functions in (Bronfenbrenner & Ceci, 1994). Furthermore, a stronger relationship is seen between ecological systems theory and positive interaction of work and family; the systems theory puts forward the notion that an individual's "resources" are used to interact with the environment, which are the key source of work-family facilitation (Wayne et al. 2007). Along with the resources the theory also highlights the importance of "demands"; which are the characteristics of the individual that demand specific responses from the environment (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998). The theory supports the notion of positive interaction between work and family domains; where engaging in one role leads to enrichment or growth in the another role because the base of the ecological systems theory is that an individual has a natural inclination to grow and develop himself/herself by using the resources from the environment. This growth or development is dependent on the environmental resources and individual demands (Wayne et al., 2007).

3.4. Work-family facilitation theory.

Grzywacz et al. (2007, p. 562) define work-family facilitation as "the extent to which an individual's engagement in one social system (e.g. work or family) contributes to the growth in another social system (e.g. family or work)". Work is regarded as a social group consisting of two or more persons sharing an organizational affiliation such as members of a profession or department. Work group may also consist of persons belonging to a vocation or any other means of livelihood.

On the other hand, family is also regarded as a social group consisting of persons connected by common ancestry, adoption or marriage or any other social or legal unions. Grzywacz et al. (2007) posit that facilitation process is bi-directional. In their theory of work-family facilitation, they have explicitly defined the conceptual elements and their interrelations as shown in Figure 3. A summary to the elements is as follows:

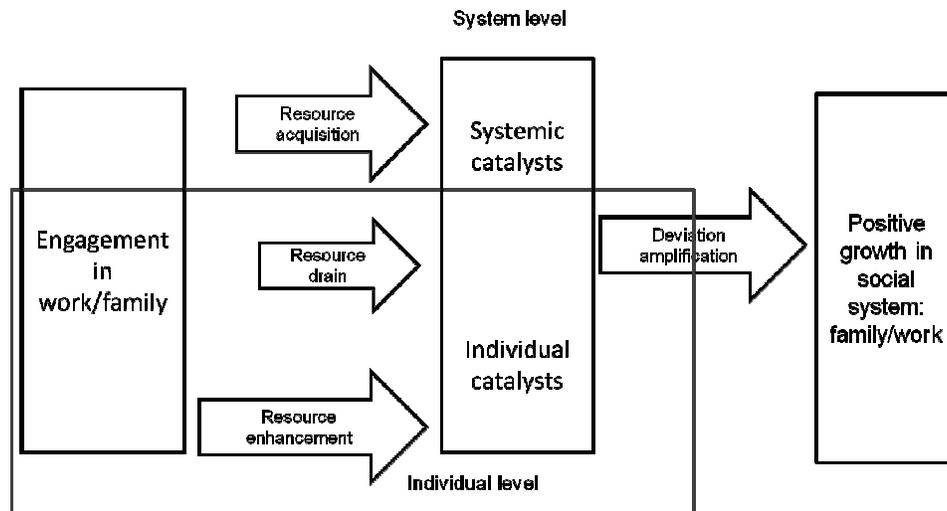


Figure 3. Concept map representing the process of work-family facilitation. Adapted from Grzywacz et al. (2007), p.564.

3.4.1. Engagement.

Engagement is conceived as an individual's personal investment in role activities within a system (Kahn, 1990; Marks, 1977; Rothbard, 2001). These investments can be time-related, physical participation, psychological energy and cognitive interest. An individual's engagement can be understood by considering three main processes: resource acquisition stems from role accumulation theory (Sieber, 1974); resource drain stems from the scarcity of resources theory (Goode, 1960); resource enhancement stems from the role expansionist theory (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Marks, 1977; Sieber, 1974).

3.4.2. Catalysts.

When a transfer occurs from one domain to the other in this case work to family or vice versa, the results that occur due to engagement in one domain turn into catalysts for the change in another receiving domain. A catalyst is defined as "an event or circumstance that produces deviation in a system" (Aldwin & Stokols, 1988). Grzywacz and his colleagues' framework proposes that there are two kinds of catalysts: individual and systemic catalysts. Individual catalysts are person oriented, which can be observed through change of moods, attitudes and skills as a result of engagement that can be transferred and applied in another domain.

Individual catalysts result primarily from resource drain and resource enhancement processes of engagement.

Systemic catalysts are the positive outcomes enjoyed by the system members e.g. spouse, child, and co-worker. Such catalysts emerge from benefit programs provided by the engaged individual's organization e.g. health insurance, educational grants etc. Systemic catalysts also emerge on the family level and can be seen through family members' product loyalty, family finances invested in company stocks. The systemic catalysts result from resource acquisition process. Both the effects from family to work and vice versa are indirect.

3.4.3. Growth.

Growth is defined as "enhancements in the core features or processes of the systems that are essential for optimal functioning" (Guzzo & Dickson, 1996). Growth operates on a systemic level. At work, growth is observable through improvements in interpersonal communication, efficient decision making, the enhancements in features of leadership along with knowledge and creative vision (Bonner, Baumann, & Dalal, 2002; Campion, Medsker & Higgs, 1993; Ganster, Williams & Poppler, 1991; Tschan, et al., 2000). In the family context growth can be observed through reassignment of roles, flexibility, communication and problem solving (Beavers & Hampson, 1993; Epstein et al., 1993; Pratt, 1976 and Olson, 1993). According to Bronfenbrenner (1989) each life domain is a social system that includes interacting elements that create the sub-systems. An example in the family context is that of marital dyads which function and interact in a larger family system. In the work context an example of sub-system would be executive teams, workers' unions which engage in specific activities for the larger system.

3.4.4. Deviation amplified.

In the work-family facilitation theory, growth is seen as a result of deviation amplification process. Deviation amplification process is "mechanisms used by complex systems to self-regulate and change" (Aldwin & Stokols, 1988; Maruyama, 1963). Maruyama (1963) defines this process "as positive, mutually causal relationship within the system whereby the original source of deviation is reproduced by reinforcement from the broader system."

In the current two-nation research it was essential to consider the work and family related variables in a broader perspective as the work-family interface is not only the result of individual factors but also a result of the social environment. Therefore, it is significant to consider the person-fit notion while analysing the work-family variables. As an individual functions in a social system it was imperative to observe the responses of managers in the realm of the system level. Gryzwacz et al. (2007) also mentioned that in order to understand the complex phenomena such as employee retention and organizational performance, it is worth going beyond the individual-level analysis. As work-life balance and its relation to organizational work-family culture is being analysed in the current research it is meaningful to base some part of the research on the work-facilitation theory.

3.5. Theoretical definitions at a glance.

It would be beneficial to define the dimensions that are studied in this two-country research before the hypotheses and research questions are presented for a profound understanding of the relationships these dimensions may have with each other. The definitions stem from the theories postulated by the respective researchers.

Work-family enrichment and family-work enrichment is defined as “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role. Work - family enrichment occurs, when work experiences improve the quality of family life and family-work enrichment occurs, when family experiences improve the quality of work life” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 73).

Work-life balance is defined as “achieving satisfying experiences in all the life domains and to do so requires personal resources such as energy, time, and commitment be well distributed across domains” (Kirchmeyer, 2000, p. 81).

Work-family balance is defined as “a global assessment that work resources meet family demands, and family resources meet work demands such that participation is effective in both domains”. (Voydanoff, 2005, p. 825). Frone (2003) sees such a balance as a condition; where there is minimal conflict and substantial facilitation between work and family spheres.

Organizational work-family culture is defined as “shared assumptions, beliefs, values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values the employees’ integration of work-family” (Thompson et al., 1999, p. 394). It consists of three dimensions managerial support, organizational time demand and career consequences.

Career success is defined “in terms of positive psychological and work-related outcomes accumulated as a result of one’s work experiences” (Seibert & Kraimer, 2001, p. 2). It is operationalized through objective career success (Gutteridge, 1973) that is career advancement for this study and also through subjective career success (Judge et al., 1995) that is career satisfaction in case of this study.

Career advancement is most often seen as extrinsic career success consisting of salary, promotions and representing the material gains one gathers across his career involving series of jobs (Judge et al., 1995). Tharenou (1997) argues that salary, managerial promotions and managerial level are the measures of career advancement.

Career satisfaction is derived from the individual’s appraisal of his/her career development and advancement across many jobs (Greenhaus, et al., 1990).

3.6. Formulation of hypotheses and research questions.

The hypotheses (applicable to quantitative examination) and research questions (applicable to qualitative exploration) are presented in this section and are based on previous empirical studies addressing the predictive relationships in question.

The empirical substantiation is not enough to support the assertion that employees or organizations actually benefit from a ‘balanced’ work and family life. Although there is consistent data that work-family conflict or the extent to which responsibilities in one domain interfere with responsibilities in another domain, is associated with poor organizational outcomes (Allen et al., 2000; Kossek & Ozeki, 1999). There has been increasing research carried out to propose that organizations might benefit by promoting work-family enrichment or the degree to which participation in one domain (e.g. work) enhances individual performance or quality of life in another domain (e.g. family) (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006;

Grzywacz & Bass, 2003; Grzywacz et al., 2007; Hammer et al., 2005). Thus, many researchers have believed that if work-family conflict does not exist and work-family enrichment exists it is similar to having a work-family balance (Frone, 2003). This leads to the relevant hypotheses and research questions:

H1a: Role performance of managers in work domain will enrich their performance in family domain.

H1b: Role performance of managers in family domain will enrich their performance in work domain.

RQ1a & RQ1b: How does the role performance in one domain (work) enhance the role performance in another domain (non-work) and vice versa? Which factors are mentioned in the respective sample?

Engagement in more than one role provides benefits that enhance people's lives (Schein & Chen, 2010). Marks (1977) proposed that certain social interactions e.g. with a sympathetic family can generate energy or resources in one role and this energy can produce additional energy; which can be used in the roles in other domains. Clark (2001) showed in her study that flexibility in work itself was associated with increased work satisfaction and increased family well-being. Another study (McNall, Masuda & Nicklin, 2010) suggests that flexible work arrangements and work-family enrichment were related to important organizational outcomes and one of the outcomes is job satisfaction. The current two-country research will give further insight into how work-family enrichment and family-work enrichment are related to career satisfaction. It has been reported that very less is known about the relation between work-life or work-family and career advancement (Lyness & Judiesch, 2008). In their cross-national examination, Lyness & Judiesch (2008) found that managers who were rated high on work-life balance were rated high in their career advancement potential than managers who were rated low on work-life balance.

Measuring career success has been an interest for many researchers. Career success is measured through objective and subjective career. Objective career is defined as directly observable, measurable and verified by an impartial third party (Hughes, 1937, 1958); which can be operationalized through salary,

promotions and occupational level (Nicholson, 2000) i.e. career advancement. Subjective career is defined by an individual's reactions to his or her unfolding career experiences (Hughes, 1937, 1958); which can be operationalized as job satisfaction (Thorndike, 1934) or career satisfaction (Helsin, 2005). As career advancement and career satisfaction together predict career success; it is expected that career advancement and career satisfaction will be positively related with each other. It is evident that objective success seen through income and promotions is the basis of subjective success that is career satisfaction or job satisfaction (Ng et al., 2005; Judge et al., 1995). Thus, this leads to the further hypotheses and relevant research questions:

H2a: Work-family enrichment is positively related with career advancement and career satisfaction.

H2b: Family-work enrichment is positively related with career advancement and career satisfaction.

H5: Career advancement and career satisfaction will be positively associated.

RQ2a & RQ2b: How is the relationship between work-family enrichment/family-work enrichment and career advancement in Germany & India?

RQ3: How is work-life balance conceived in Germany & India and how is the relationship between work-life balance & career success?

RQ4: Do managers in Germany & India who have a work-life balance advance in their careers?

RQ5: Which strategies do managers in India & Germany use to achieve work-life balance?

There have been gender differences found in experiences of work-family interface (Crouter, 1984; Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Rothbard, 2001). Considering the importance of work role for men and men's supremacy in managerial and professional positions, it implies that men will involve themselves in more work-related responsibility and experience more work

overload than women. Therefore, it is proposed that men will experience higher work to family enrichment than women. It has also been reported that a German welfare state still supports the male breadwinner model, which expects the man to earn for the family and a woman is best suited for the family duties (Blossfeld & Drobnič, 2001). Desai (1996) noted that due to the influence of a typical value structure of the family on women's career aspirations and motivations for work, Indian women tend to impose restrictions on their career aspirations or personal achievements for family reasons. The expectation that women give priority to the family suggests that women may experience higher levels of parental role overload than men. Therefore, it is proposed that women will experience higher family to work enrichment than men.

Lyness & Thompson (2000) reported that female employees are seen to have much more barriers than male managers; and these barriers affect the advancement of female employees. Some barriers that women managers face which influence their advancement negatively are lack of mentoring facilities, gender stereotypes and social isolation. Heilman (2001) draws attention to the fact that a gender bias in evaluation of women is a primary cause. The "glass ceiling" seems to be a barrier in a woman's career (Morrison, White & Van Velsion, 1987). Such barriers in careers of women may affect their career advancement, therefore it is expected that men will advance in careers more as compared to women. Judge et al. (1995) suggested that men may have higher expectation of career related opportunities and progress, that is why they may not be easily satisfied with their career; as opposed to women, who may be more easily satisfied by their career opportunities and advancement. Therefore, it is expected that female managers will be more satisfied with their careers than male managers.

It is also proposed that a favourable and supportive work-family culture in the organization will benefit female managers more than male managers. The reason for this proposition is that work-family issues are more relevant to women than men, as women are expected to deliver the social role of nurturing more than the provider role. In case of men, the provider role that is the bread-winner role is more prominent than the nurturing role (Mauno et al., 2012); thus providing base for the proposition that female managers will differ from male managers with regard to the work-family culture. Overall, it is assumed that there will be gender

differences related to the bidirectional enrichment relationship; work-life balance, organizational work-family culture and career success in India and Germany. Furthermore, it would also be interesting to find out if the gender has a moderating effect on the above mentioned relationships. This leads to the relevant hypotheses and the sixth research question:

H4a: Male managers will experience work-family enrichment on a higher side than female managers. Female managers will experience family to work enrichment on a higher side than male managers.

H4b: Career advancement will be higher for male managers and career satisfaction higher for female managers.

H4c: Female managers will benefit more from a supportive organizational work-family culture than male managers.

H7a: The relationship between work-family enrichment and (i) family work enrichment, (ii) managerial support, (iii) work-family culture will be moderated by gender.

H7b: The relationship between career advancement and career satisfaction will be moderated by gender.

RQ6: Will there be gender differences in career success: career advancement and career satisfaction? Will the gender differences play a role also in the work-life balance related barriers encountered by managers in Germany and India?

There is research which supports the fact that one of the antecedents of work-life balance are organizational characteristics namely family-friendly benefits (Hill et al. 2001); furthermore, Thompson et al. (1999) showed in their study that both availability of work-family benefits in the organizations and supportive work-family culture were positively related to employees' affective commitment to the organization. Thus, it is expected that the organizational culture will have an influence on the managers and that it will shape their work-life balance and work-family enrichment process. A difference in work-family related organizational interventions is proposed. In India, specifically, since the industrialization took

place work-family initiatives have become more individual growth oriented and family well-being oriented. But this varies across different organizations and is seen typical for the software and service oriented Indian organizations. There is still a lot to do and the goal of HR initiatives incorporating work-life balance related programs is still not achieved in many organizations (Baral & Bhargava, 2011).

On the contrary, in Germany laws designed to support families include financial benefits, maternity protection, and rights for working parents already exist. Furthermore, there are tax benefits to families with children and working parents have a right to go on a parental leave for up to 3 years (Peus & Traut-Mattausch, 2008). Most of the German organizations follow these rules. In the Indian context, support related to work-family balance comes from non-institutional sources mainly family members, paid help, friends and neighbours. There is low institutional and organizational help available (Rajadhyaksha & Velgach, 2009). Despite the differences in the organizational interventions in Germany and India, it would be worth exploring the strategies managers use to balance work-life.

Work-family culture and its association with job satisfaction has been established (Gordon, Whelan-Berry & Hamilton, 2007; Haar & Roche, 2010, Baral & Bhargava, 2010). It would be interesting to find out if work-family culture is positively associated with career satisfaction and career advancement, as these aspects of career success are being investigated in the current study. According to the researcher's knowledge, there has been no other empirical study specifically focusing on work-family culture and career advancement. Therefore, this gives a reason to formulate the relevant hypotheses and research questions:

H3a: Work-family enrichment will be positively associated with organizational work-family culture (managerial support, career consequences and organizational time demand).

H3b: Family-work enrichment will be positively associated with organizational work-family culture (managerial support, career consequences and organizational time demand).

H6a: Work-family culture will be positively associated with career advancement.

H6b: Work-family culture will be positively associated with career satisfaction.

RQ7: Which work-life balance intervention programs are available in the Indian & German companies? Do such programs help in career advancement of respective managers?

RQ8: How are family related factors conceived in Germany & India? Do they relate to the work-life balance in both the countries?

RQ9: What improvements related to organizational work-life balance initiatives are suggested by German & Indian managers? Would training help managers to go on a work-family enrichment path?

Summary of the Chapter

This chapter presented the relevant theories; which prove to be a strong foundation for this Indo-German study. The theories were helpful in the formulation of relevant hypotheses and the construction of suitable research questions. The theories also provide operational definitions that clarify the various constructs being studied. A list of definitions has been provided; which helps to understand the various dimensions of work-life and career success and their relationships with each other. Lastly, the hypotheses and the research questions are presented based on some suitable empirical studies.

CHAPTER 4

4. Methodology

Goals of the chapter: This chapter discusses the methodology of the quantitative as well as qualitative sections and also provides a detailed description of the sample and data collection procedures. The demographic details, psychological measures, participation criteria, data analysis procedures are explained in detail for the quantitative as well as the qualitative sections.

4.1. Quantitative method.

4.1.1. *Sample.*

The data was collected at various organizations including public limited and private limited companies in Germany and India. The organizations in Germany and India belonged to mainly two employment sectors viz. service sector (insurance, banks, information technology, cash management, health) and industrial sector (energy, electricity, chemical manufacturing, automobile, electronics). 23% of German managers were employed in the service sector and 14% were employed in the industrial sector (please note that 42% of the German managers did not mention the names of their companies for anonymous reasons). 40% of Indian managers were employed in the service sector and 18% in the industrial sector (please note that 19% of the Indian managers did not mention the names of their companies for anonymous reasons). The target population was male and female managers working on several managerial positions starting from the lowest positions such as assistant/junior manager/team leader to the highest positions such as executive manager/chief officer/board member. In total, the quantitative sample consists of 214 managers. German managers had an average work experience of 16.8 years and an average managerial experience of 8.6 years; while Indian managers had an average work experience of 17.2 years and an average managerial experience of 9.8 years.

Figure 4 shows the different companies; which can be categorised into the industrial sector (energy, electricity, chemical manufacturing, automobile, and

electronics) and the service sector (insurance, banks, information technology, cash management, and health).

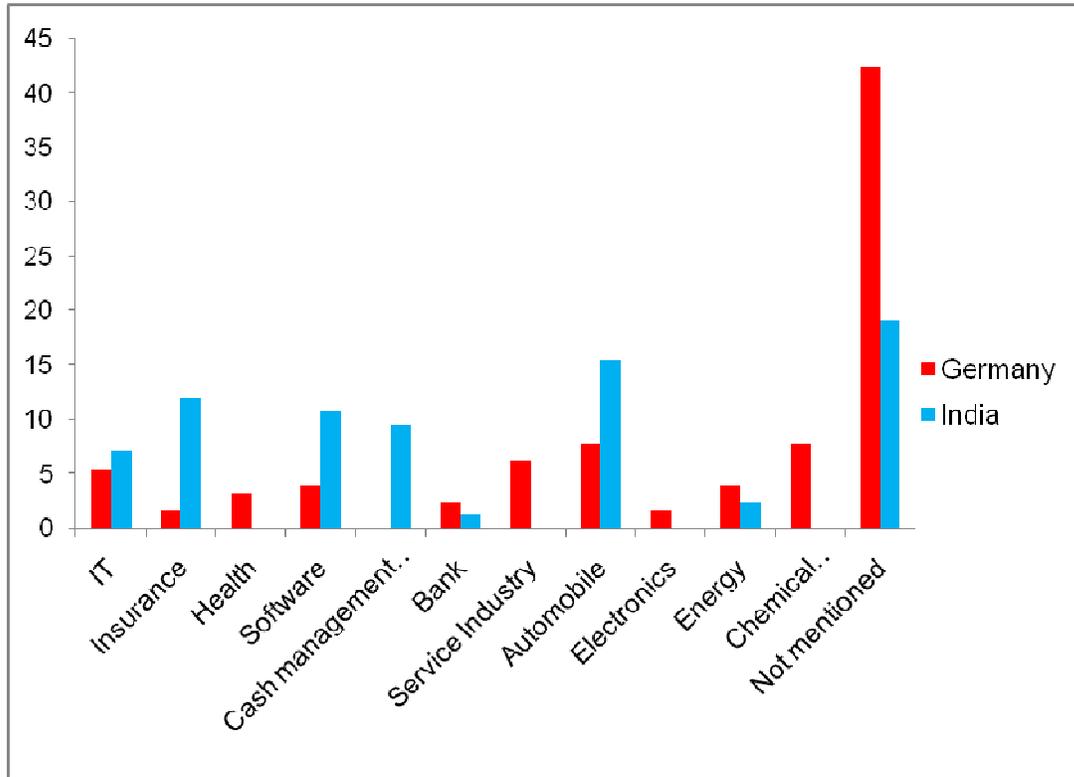


Figure 4. Employment Sectors of German and Indian Managers in Percentage

The Figure 5 shows the management levels of the German and the Indian managers consisting of six levels, starting from the lowest management levels to the highest levels. For a better understanding of the abbreviations, each level can be read as follows: Level 1 - Assistant Manager, Junior Manager, Team Leader; Level 2 - Senior Assistant Manager, Local Manager, Branch Manager; Level 3 - Area Manager, Assistant General Manager, Assistant Regional Manager, Assistant Divisional Manager; Level 4 - General Manager, Regional Manager, Divisional Manager, Assistant Vice-President; Level 5 - Senior Manager, Vice-President and lastly Level 6 - Executive Officer, Chief Officer, Head of Company, Board Member.

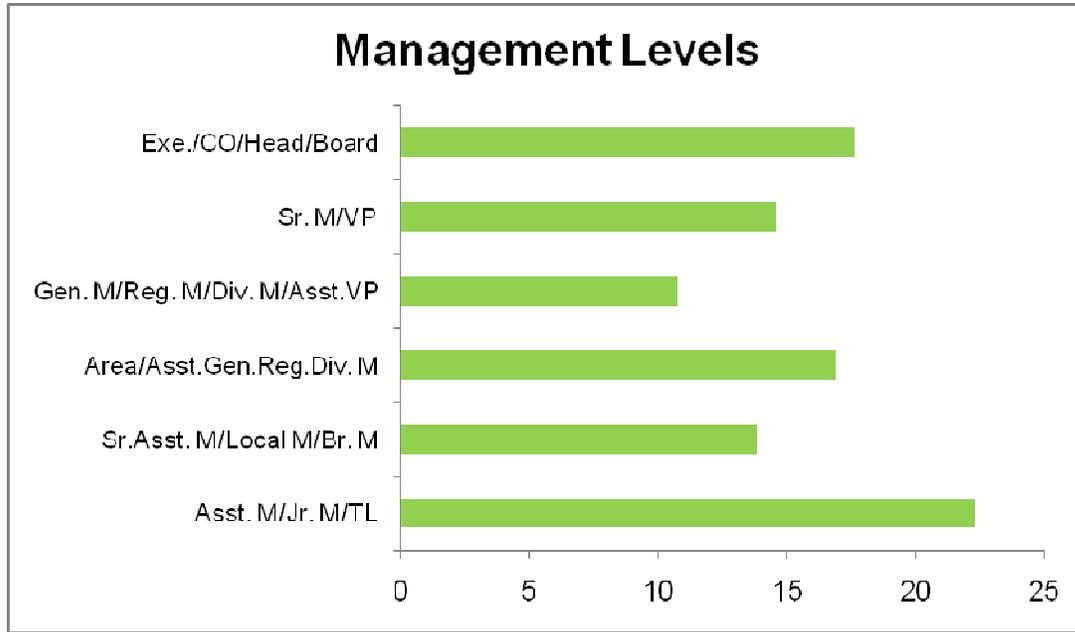


Figure 5. Management Levels of German and Indian Managers in Percentage.

4.1.2. Demographic details.

Table 2 shows the basic details of the German and the Indian managers. Less number of female managers as compared to male managers participated in the online survey. The age range of German and Indian managers also differed. In both the countries the number of married managers is higher than the cohabiting managers and the single managers. Single managers for the current study included single or unmarried individuals without dependent children.

Table 3 shows the various degrees of education of German and India managers. In Germany most of the managers (42%) had a Bachelor degree; while in India the managers (62%) earned at least a Master degree.

Table 2.

Demographic Details: Gender, Age and Marital Status

	Germany		India	
Total number of managers	130	61%	84	39%
Male managers	104	80%	69	82%
Female managers	26	20%	15	18%
Age range in years	25 - 65		20 - 58	
Married	92	71%	74	88%
Living with partner	21	16%	0	-
Single/unmarried	17	13%	10	12%

Table 3.

Demographic Details: Educational Background

	Germany		India	
Highest Educational Degree				
Doctorate/Promotion	12	9%	0	-
Master Degree	2	2%	51	62%
Magister Artium	1	1%	0	-
Diplom - Universität	21	17%	21	25%
Diplom - Fachhochschule	2	1%	0	-
Post-graduate Diploma	0	-	1	1%
Vocational Training/Course	0	-	1	1%
Bachelor	55	42%	8	9%
Ausbildung/Geselle	26	20%	2	2%
Abitur/Fachabitur	11	8%	0	-

Table 4 shows number and percentage of German and Indian managers with the number of dependent children currently living with them.

Table 4.

Demographic Details: Number of Children

	Germany		India	
No child	37	29%	19	22%
1 child	25	20%	39	46%
2 children	47	35%	25	28%
3 children	14	11%	2	4%
4 children	5	4%	-	-
5 children	1	1%	-	-

Table 5.

Demographic Details: Number of Family Members

	Germany		India	
0 member	26	20%	11	13%
1 member	26	20%	8	9%
2 members	34	27%	22	26%
3 members	27	22%	15	18%
4 members	7	7%	12	13%
5 members	4	4%	9	10%
6 members	-	-	2	2%
8 members	-	-	8	9%

Table 5 shows the number of family members currently living with the German and Indian managers excluding themselves. There were a few managers, whose family members were not living with them currently. The highest number of family members living in one household for the German managers was 5 members; whereas for the Indian managers it was 8 members.

Table 6 shows six types of engagements for the spouses of the German and the Indian managers. In Germany, total 68% managers' spouses were working either part-time or fulltime. In India, 49% managers' spouses were working full/part time work. 14% spouses of German managers and 35% spouses of Indian managers were involved in the homemaker role.

Table 6.

Demographic Details: Spouse Employment

	Germany		India	
Part-time	23	17%	3	4%
Full-time	47	35%	31	36%
Self employed (part-time)	10	6%	4	5%
Self employed (full-time)	11	10%	3	4%
Homemaker	18	14%	31	35%
Unemployed	4	5%	2	3%

4.1.3. Participation criteria.

The first selection criterion for participation in the research was that the manager was a German national or an Indian national. As this is an inter-cultural research, it was necessary to control the nationality variable. The companies that participated in this research were multi-national companies; therefore controlling the nationality variable limited the participation of only Indian and German managers working in that specific company. The second criterion was that the manager worked at one of the locations i.e. Germany or India. It was important to

mention about the location of the managers' place of employment, as there were quite a few international organizations and there was a possibility that the organizations have locations other than Germany and India.

The third criterion was that the managers had at least 4-5 years of work experience. A minimum work experience of this duration was required as the manager would be in a better position to comment on work-family issues in the context of career success as compared to an amateur. Also to be on a managerial position one normally requires some previous work experience. The fourth criterion was that the manager had at least 2-3 sub-ordinates under his/her supervision. Leading a team is one of the tasks of a manager and it requires a set of skills like interpersonal skills, team-building etc. Often these skills can also be useful when dealing with family related issues. This criterion seemed quite relevant as work-family enrichment was to be measured and it was assumed that the skills a team leader possesses may influence his/her family positively.

4.1.4. Control variables.

The control variables namely age, nationality, place of employment, level of managerial hierarchy, number of sub-ordinates were included in the research to reduce the spurious results that could have an influence on the demographic characteristics and also on the relationships being examined.

4.1.5. Psychological measures.

The selection of four psychological tests used in this doctoral study was appropriate for the adult population and are originally constructed in English language. The target population of the current study belonged to multi-national companies; where English is used frequently for communication. The length of the tests was not too long, as the target population were managers and the length of the test might affect the response rate. All the tests were statistically reliable and valid. For this Indo-German study the permissions to administer the tests were obtained from respective researchers. A combination of the following psychological tests was used for the convenience of administering an online survey (see Appendix D). The online tool IBM® SPSS® Data Collection Interviewer was used to gather the quantitative data. The access to this tool was

granted by the Ludwig-Maximilians-University, Munich, Germany. An additional set of demographic questions created by the researcher were added to the online survey. This online survey was tested on 5 Indian and German managers each and certain changes in the demographic questions were made so that the questions were well understood by the participants. A peer feedback was considered to make sure that all questions in the online survey were comprehensible.

4.1.5.1. Administration of the online survey.

After the online survey was tested, depending on the participation criteria; suitable managers were randomly chosen from some Indian and German companies belonging to the researcher's personal network. The sampling method was chosen to be snowball sampling, as it was very difficult to get participants especially from the companies. A list of prospective contact persons, who were also the participants, was developed by the researcher. Usually, one contact person in a company was chosen and was contacted either by telephone or email. Then this contact person chose potential participant managers based on the selection criteria. An informative letter was prepared including the goals, participant criteria and benefits of participation of this research, which helped to get positive responses from managers. This letter described the study in brief and also served the purpose of a declaration of confidentiality (see Appendix C). After receiving a list of email IDs from this contact person in a specific company, the email link of the online survey was sent to the participants who agreed to fill out the online survey. In case of no response from participants, after 15 days a reminder was sent to them to fill up the survey. Finally, a total of 234 responses were received; thereof 214 responses were considered to fit the selection criteria and were used for the further analysis.

4.1.5.1.1. Work-family enrichment scale.

As discussed before, the focus of the doctoral research was the positive side of the work-family interface. Work-family enrichment is defined as the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life, namely performance or affect in the other role (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The bi-directional work-family enrichment scale was developed by (Carlson et al., 2006). The scale development

was based on four different studies thus it follows rigorous validation and development procedures. It was also essential to have a bi-directional instrument as work-family can influence each other in both directions. The work-family enrichment scale is appropriate as it measures only enrichment as opposed to other work-life scales which measure work-family enrichment and conflict, or only work-family conflict. The other scales used for work-life interface do not appear to fit the conceptual definition of enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006); while this scale closely follows the conceptual definition of enrichment (Carlson et al., 2006).

Originally, the scale reported a reliability score Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.92$. For the current sample (N = 214) a reliability analysis was conducted and resulted in Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.88$ for all 18 items. The scale is divided into two parts and for the work to family enrichment direction the analysis resulted in Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.88$ and for the family to work enrichment direction it resulted in Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.85$. In the work-family direction there are nine items which are divided in three domains. These three domains are work to family development, work to family affect and work to family capital. Similarly, in the family-work direction there are nine items divided into three domains namely family to work development, family to work affect and family to work efficiency.

Scoring: The response scale is a five point Likert scale - 1 being 'strongly disagree' and 5 being 'strongly agree'. The scoring consisted of averaging the items in each direction.

4.1.5.1.2. *Work-family culture scale.*

Work-family culture includes shared assumptions, beliefs, and values regarding the extent to which an organization supports the values and integration of employees' work and family lives (Thompson et al., 1999). This scale is developed by Thompson et al. (1999) and covers dimensions such as "*managerial support*", "*career consequences*", "*organizational time demand*". This scale aims to reveal the managers' perceptions of a supportive work-family culture and work-family related benefits within the German and the Indian organizations. There will also be a possibility to compare these organizational cultures; which is one of the aims of the research. Originally, the scale reported a reliability score Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.92$. For the current sample a reliability analysis was conducted and resulted

in Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.89$ for all 20 items. For managerial support Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.83$, for career consequences Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.73$ and for organizational time demand Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.79$.

Scoring: The response scale is a seven point Likert scale - 1 being 'strongly disagree' and 7 being 'strongly agree'. The scale has a total of 20 items divided into three dimensions - 11 items measuring managerial support; 5 items measuring career consequences and 4 items measuring organizational time demand. There were 10 reverse coded items. The scoring consisted of averaging the items. Better the score the more supportive organizational work-family culture is perceived by the respondents.

4.1.5.1.3. Career success: career advancement

Career success is measured through objective and subjective career. Objective career is defined as directly observable, measurable and verified by an impartial third party (Hughes, 1937, 1958). For measuring objective career a three item reliable career advancement measure was used. Typically, the objective indicators of career advancement termed as manager's advancement prospects include promotion, salary (Greenhaus et. al, 1990) and higher levels of hierarchy (Hall, 2002). The career advancement scale was developed by Tharenou (1999). The scale originally reported a reliability score Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.80$. For the current sample a reliability analysis was conducted and resulted in Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.70$ for all the 3 items.

Scoring: The responses were measured on a six point Likert scale. The scale measured career advancement on the basis of the managerial level, salary and the number of managerial promotions. For the purpose of this doctoral research the scale was adapted as follows: Managerial level from 1 meaning assistant manager/ junior manager/ team leader level up to 6 meaning executive manager/ chief officer/ head of the company/ board member level. Salary for Germany (per annum): from 1 meaning less than € 49,999 up to 6 meaning more than € 500,000. Salary for India (per annum): from 1 meaning less than Rs. 4,99,999 up to 6 meaning more than Rs. 60,00,000. Lastly, total number of managerial promotions: from 1 meaning no promotions up to 6 meaning 9 promotions. The scoring consisted of averaging the 3 items and comparing that number against 6.

4.1.5.1.4. *Career success: career satisfaction*

Subjective career is defined by an individual's reactions to his or her unfolding career experiences (Hughes, 1937, 1958). For measuring the subjective career a five item career satisfaction scale (Greenhaus et. al, 1990) was used; which appears to be the best measure available in the literature (Oberfield, 1993). The scale originally reported a reliability score Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.92$. For the current sample a reliability analysis was conducted and resulted in Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.88$ for all five items.

Scoring: The responses were measured on a five point Likert scale from 1 being 'strongly disagree' and 5 being 'strongly agree'. The scoring involved averaging all 5 items.

4.1.6. **Data Analysis.**

The dimensions derived from the combination of psychological measures used for this research were statistically analysed. The analysis involved all the eight dimensions: career advancement; career satisfaction; organizational work-family culture; managerial support; organizational career consequences; organizational time demand; work to family enrichment and family to work enrichment. Different statistical methods were used to understand the relationships between these eight dimensions.

1. **Reliability analysis** for the scales administered to the target population was conducted by calculating the Cronbach's alpha scores for the whole scale and also for each dimension within the scale.
2. **Independent t-test** was conducted to find out if there are any significant differences between German and Indian managers and also find out if there were any gender differences in the whole sample.
3. **Pearson's product moment correlation** was carried out to examine the associations between the eight dimensions. This correlation analysis was carried out thrice: once for whole sample, once for German sample and once for Indian sample. This analysis uncovered country-wise differences; which may not be visible in the analysis of whole sample.

4. ***Hierarchical multiple regression*** analysis focused on a deeper analysis of the relevant significant relationships that have been established through correlation.
5. ***Moderation regression analysis*** was conducted to find out if gender has any moderating effect on the relationships being examined.

4.2. Qualitative method.

4.2.1. Sample.

The qualitative semi-structured interviews were conducted in India and in Germany. Twelve interviews were conducted in each country. The interviews were conducted in English language in both the countries. The managers belonged to two main employment sectors namely the industrial and the service sector. This was a purposeful choice to match the criteria of the quantitative data. The interviewees held managerial positions in various organizations ranging from insurance, information technology, engineering etc. The managers worked in the organizations in two metro-cities Munich (Germany) and Pune (India). The target population included males as well as females. Figure 6 shows different employment sectors for German and Indian managers.

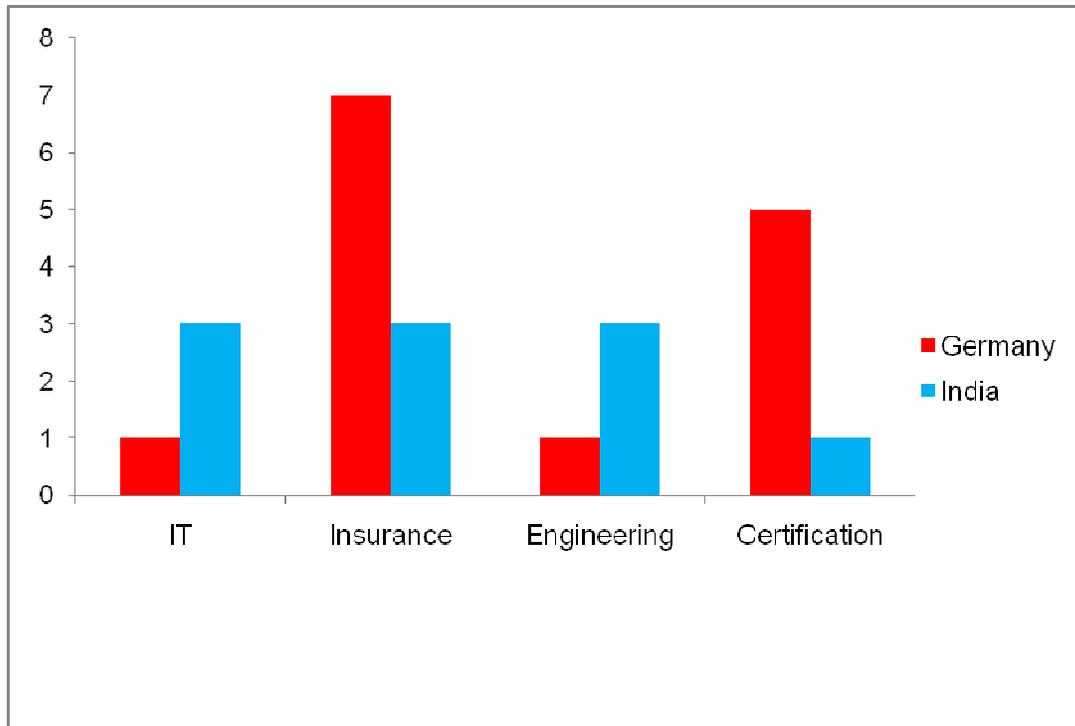


Figure 6. Employment Sectors of German and Indian Managers in Percentage.

Figure 7 shows the management levels of German and Indian managers in six levels starting from the lowest managerial level to the highest level relevant to the current sample. For better understanding of the abbreviations, each level can be read as follows: Level 1 - Assistant Manager, Team Leader; Level 2 - Senior Assistant Manager, Level 3 - Project Manager; Level 4 - General Manager, Assistant Vice-President; Level 5 - Senior Manager, Head of Department and lastly Level 6 - Executive Officer, Chief Officer, Head of Company, Board Member

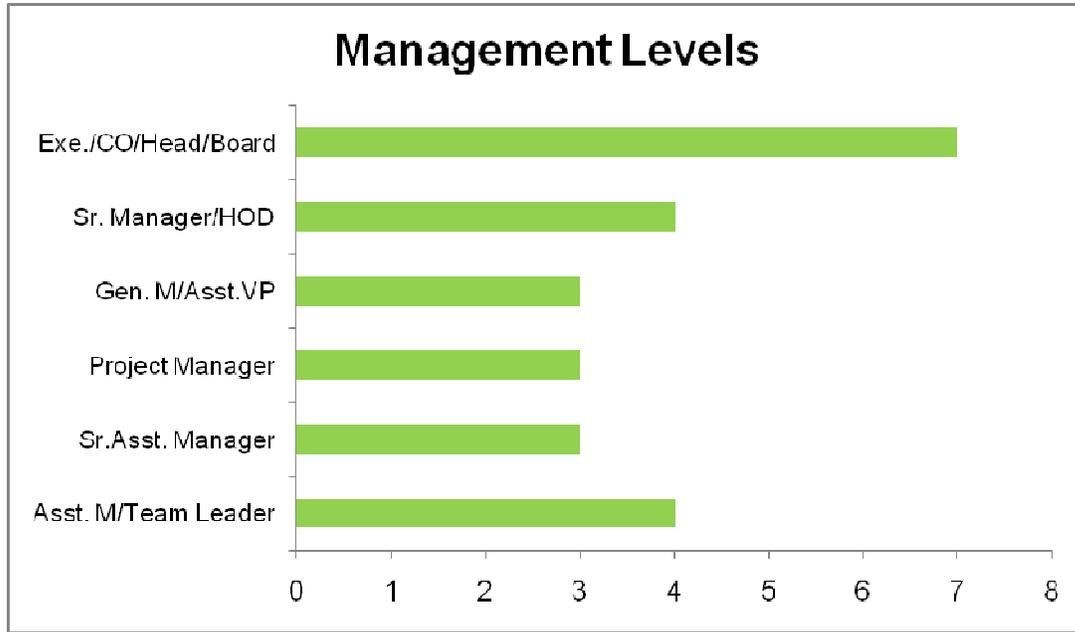


Figure 7. Management levels of German and Indian Managers in Percentage.

Table 7.

Demographic Details: Gender, Age and Marital Status

	Germany		India	
Total number of managers	12	50%	12	50%
Male managers	5	42%	6	50%
Female managers	7	58%	6	50%
Age range in years	28-53	-	33 - 56	-
Married	11	92%	11	92%
Living with partner	1	8%	0	-
Single/unmarried	0	-	1	8%

The Table 7 shows the basic demographic details of the German and the Indian managers. The age range of German and Indian managers also differed. In both the countries the number of married managers is higher than the cohabiting

managers and the single managers in this sample. Single managers for the current study included single or unmarried individuals without dependent children.

Table 8 shows the various degrees of education of German and Indian managers. In Germany most of the managers (67%) had a Master degree; while in India the managers (34%) earned at least a Bachelor degree.

Table 8.

Demographic Details: Educational Background

Highest Educational Degree	Germany		India	
Doctorate/Promotion	0	-	1	8%
Master Degree	8	67%	3	25%
Diplom - Universität	3	25%	3	25%
Diplom - Fachhochschule	1	8%	0	-
Post-graduate Diploma	0	-	1	8%
Bachelor	0	-	4	34%

Table 9.

Demographic Details: Number of Children

	Germany		India	
No child	6	50%	2	17%
1 child	3	25%	5	42%
2 children	2	17%	5	42%
3 children	1	8%	0	-

Table 9 shows the number and the percentage of German and Indian managers with dependent children along with the number and the percentage of childless managers. The numbers and percentage included in this table refer to the children currently living the German and the Indian managers.

Table 10 shows the number of family members currently living with the German and the Indian managers excluding themselves. The highest number of family members living in one household for the German managers is 5 members; whereas for the Indian managers it is 8 members in this sample.

Table 10.

Demographic Details: Number of Family Members

	Germany		India	
1 member	5	41%	2	17%
2 members	3	25%	1	8%
3 members	2	17%	6	50%
4 members	2	17%	2	17%
8 members	-	-	1	8%

Table 11.

Demographic Details: Spouse Employment

	Germany		India	
Part-time employment	2	17%	2	17%
Full-time employment	9	75%	8	66%
Not applicable	0	-	2	17%
Unemployed	1	8%	0	-

Table 11 shows four types of engagements for the spouses of the German and the Indian managers. In Germany, mostly the managers' spouses (75%) were working full-time and in the case of India, the spouses (66%) were working full-time.

4.2.2. Participation criteria.

The same selection criteria were followed for the qualitative interviews to match the quantitative data. The first selection criterion was that the manager was a German national or an Indian national. The second criterion was that the manager worked at one of the locations in Germany or India. The third criterion was that the manager had at least 4-5 years of work experience. The fourth criterion was that the manager had at least 2-3 sub-ordinates under his/her supervision. This criterion seemed quite relevant as work-family enrichment was to be measured and it was assumed that the skills a team leader possesses may affect his/her family positively.

4.2.2.1. Interview procedure.

At the very beginning, every participant was asked for his/her permission to digitally record the interview. To ensure that the data obtained from each respondent was reliable and comparable, an interview guideline with general open-ended questions was purposefully designed after the quantitative analysis was carried out; which helped to uncover the details of some topics; which were not seen to be covered in the quantitative analysis. The interview guideline (see Appendix A) was basically of three parts and the questions asked to all participants revolve around the three main research sub-topics and they are as follows:

1) *Career success*: The themes included - implementation of career; career success; the organizational interventions to balance work-life. The interviewees were given enough scope to narrate their career story about how they started their career and were also encouraged to express the changes that happened in their careers and if these changes were helpful for their career advancement. To get more information about how they succeeded in career they were asked to mention some personal and organizational contributors. The interviewees were also

encouraged to talk about what kinds of efforts their respective organizations are taking to promote work-life balance.

2) *Work-life balance*: The themes included - attitudes towards work-life balance; work to family enrichment; family to work enrichment; the strategies to balance work-life. This section was opened by asking the interviewees their personal views about work-life balance, the benefits of work-life balance and the signs of work-life imbalance. As work and family related enrichment is one way of positively balancing work-life some deeper questions regarding enrichment were asked. The interviewees were also asked to share some concrete examples of enrichment from their daily lives as this would evidently assure that enrichment has been experienced by the interviewees.

3) *Family related cross-cultural aspects in Germany & India*: The themes included - family dynamics and family values. As the main focus of this two-country research was work-family enrichment, it was worth knowing exactly how interviewees view family as a concept. If any family related similarities and differences are discovered, then it would further help to understand and interpret the enrichment phenomena. Therefore, general questions regarding family structure, family closeness and family conflict situations were asked. It was also important to know what role does a family play in these two countries in the realm of work-life balance. Thus, further questions shed light upon the issues regarding role of the family in work-life balance and the distribution of household responsibilities.

4.2.3. Data collection.

A peer feedback was called upon for the interview guideline after its construction, to find out if the questions were comprehensible and if the questions were formulated correctly to tap the answers. The questions were modified according to the feedback. Later, three trial interviews were conducted before the actual interviews commenced. Two trial interviews with the Indian managers and one with a German manager helped to find out the length of the interviews and also to check if the questions were well received by respondents. The interview questions seemed to be well answered by the trial interviewees and the duration

of the interview was approximately 1 hour. Finally, it was decided to carry out the actual interviews for data collection.

This interview guideline proved beneficial to open up conversations about work-life balance, work and family enrichment, organizational work-family culture and career success. It was purposeful to start the interview with career related questions as it made the interviewees more comfortable to talk about less personal issues at the beginning. Then, gradually, more personal questions were introduced; until then a good rapport was already established. This led to a very open and barrier-free conversation. In this study, all the interviews contained the same range of topics; however, issues that were of particular significance to any respondent were delved into by deviating from the order of the questions of the interview guideline. This allowed the participants to express themselves and facilitated an unbroken discussion. After the interview dialogues, a demographic questionnaire, addressing the personal information (e.g., age, education, marital status etc.) as well as work situation (e.g., work experience, organizational structure etc.) of the interviewees was required to be filled out (see Appendix B).

4.2.4. Interviews.

The interviews were conducted personally in Germany and India. The interviews in Germany were carried out with the help of a student, who wrote her master thesis at the LMU, Munich, Germany based on these interviews. She used only the data for interviews in Germany and focused on some other factors for analysis. As conducting interviews was her first experience, she was guided by the researcher and a trial interview was conducted by the student; which was then checked by the researcher and the student was provided with a feedback for improvements. The interviews in India were conducted by the researcher herself. A list of prospective interviewees was developed separately for German and Indian managers who met the criteria for inclusion. The managers were a part of the personal network of the researcher. The first contact with the prospective interviewees was established by sending them an introductory letter via email. This letter described the study in brief and also served the purpose of a declaration of confidentiality (see Appendix C). The appointments were planned with the managers who agreed to be interviewed. Many of the managers, who had

been interviewed, then referred other managers fitting the criteria. Thus, snowball sampling was implemented. The average duration of the interviews was 50 minutes. All the interviews were conducted in English. All the 24 interviews were digitally recorded and transcribed verbatim.

4.2.5. Data analysis.

The qualitative research involves description of “life worlds ‘from inside out’ from the point of views of the people who participate in it. The contribution of qualitative research is towards better understanding of the social realities and to shed light upon the processes, meaning patterns and structural features of the issue being studied” (Flick, Kardorff & Steinke, 2004, p. 3). There are several ways of analysing the qualitative data e.g. grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) or conversation analysis (Garfinkel, 1967 & Goffman, 1983). The qualitative content analysis was seen to be most suited for this two-country research because this process of data analysis is “transparent, intelligible, easy to learn and readily transferable to new research questions (Flick, 2009, p. 269) and also makes the reliability analysis that is inter-rater reliability more efficient.

Content analysis is one of the classical methods of analysing textual data. The textual data ranges itself from media to interview data (Bauer, 2000). The use of categories and its application to the empirical data, assessing this data against the categories, further modifying the data using categories is a necessary feature of content analysis. The basic purpose of content analysis is to reduce the material (Flick, 2009). Mayring (2000, 2004) has developed a content analysis procedure for analysing interview text and has proposed various techniques that can be applied. An important feature of this procedure is to let the advantages of the qualitative content remain intact and further transfer and develop the content to qualitative-interpretative stages of analysis. Following the guidelines of Mayring (2000) the data analysis was performed step by step in the sequence as described below:

1. *Transcription:* All the 24 interviews were transcribed paying attention to the smallest details.

2. Content analytical units: In order to have a basic structure of the huge data from transcripts, it was transformed into units. These units consisted of the reduced data derived by marking the most relevant text that was close to the research question and the theoretical framework in focus. Repeated ideas were also marked. Using the technique 'paraphrasing', the text units were transformed into clearer statements that express the concept. Furthermore, these statements were allocated specific codes. One statement possibly had more than one code assigned to them.

3. Category and code development: A coding scheme was developed for the data analysis in the third phase. Two processes namely inductive and deductive were followed during the development of codes. *Inductive codes* emerged out of the text units. These codes were defined according to the textual units based on the research question. To simplify it, these were the codes that emerged from the text or the answers that were not directly related to the questions in the interviews but still seemed relevant to the research questions. *Deductive codes* were developed based on the prior theories considered relevant for the research. These codes were exactly related to the research questions. To simplify it, deductive codes were the direct answers to the questions of the interviews. These codes had their definitions from the established theories. These definitions determined under which circumstances the text unit could be coded.

An example of the coding can be seen in Table 12. A computer software MAXQDA-plus® was used to manage the interview coding, as this software made the coding process efficient, transparent and reproducible. The relevant text units were put into categories and codes following the research questions; which were carefully formulated before the interviews were conducted. A further revision of codes was carried out during the process of analysis. Many codes which described fully the nature of each category were clustered under every category. Five main categories consisting of eight main codes were found to emerge out of the textual data. A total of 52 sub-codes were finalized after revision, which contribute to the eight main codes.

Reliability analysis: The inter-rater reliability of the coding system developed was measured in two ways. Firstly, 2 out of 24 interviews were randomly selected and

the code correlation was established through inter-rater rating; which turned out to be $r = .90$, which means 90% codes matched between rater 1 and rater 2. Secondly, Cohen's kappa was calculated for these 2 interviews using IBM® SPSS® statistics software which turned out to be $\kappa = .71$. Both the scores satisfy the reliability standards.

4. Review of coded statements and revision of codes: After all the statements in 24 interviews were allocated specific codes, MAXQDA-plus® allowed a quick retrieval of the coded segments into groups. These retrieved statements were exported to Excel and filtered according to the two groups India/Germany and also according to gender. This helped to review each statement according to the relevant groups again and check if it was allocated a correct code. The reviewing also helped to remove redundant codes, which were created during the coding process.

5. Qualitative interpretation: The classification of retrieved statements according to India and Germany helped to interpret statements in the cultural context. This helped to find out the similarities and differences within and between the two countries. The retrieved statements were grouped under specific codes and these codes were further grouped according to the research questions. The relevant codes and the specific statements that defined those codes were together envisaged to answer the research questions.

Table 12.

Example of the process of coding according to the coding system.

Category/code	Definition	Statements	Coding rules
Career success/ personal factors	Factors important for career success	"I see skills made a huge difference meaning 90% of my success, frankly, I attribute to my communication skills rather than to my technological skills, my technological skills have been a bonus." (India_12, 15)	All contributors associated with personal life
Work-life balance/ obstacles- barriers	Situations seen as barriers or challenges while balancing work-life	"The expectations of other employees or other managers, who love their work so passionately that they cannot understand that somebody can love two things in the same way." (Germany_4, 64)	Inclusion of situations from work and family

Summary of the Chapter

The chapter of methodology presented in detail the demographic details of the sample, participation criteria, details about the data collection, description of the psychological tests used, description of the interview procedure and the data analysis procedure for quantitative as well as qualitative methods.

CHAPTER 5

5. Results & Discussion

Goals of the chapter: The chapter of results and discussion is divided into two parts. In part 5a the quantitative results are elaborated and discussed. While discussing the findings from the quantitative method, statistically significant as well as non-significant results are discussed. In part 5b, the qualitative results are elaborated and discussed. Along with the main findings, secondary results and some general observations are also presented.

5a. Results & Discussion – Quantitative Method

The statistical analyses of the scores from the combination of four psychological measures namely career advancement scale, career satisfaction scale, work-family culture scale and work-family enrichment scale will be presented and discussed in this section. For the purpose of discussion, some research studies from other cultures apart from India and Germany are also considered for empirical support to the results obtained from this two-country study. These studies nested in other cultures have similar findings that affirm the findings of the current study. Another reason of including the studies apart from the cultures in question is that for some proposed relationships, studies that represent Indian and German culture are not available for a comparison. The dimensions being analysed in this section are derived from the psychological measures used for this research. In all there are eight dimensions: career advancement; career satisfaction; organizational work-family culture; managerial support; organizational career consequences; organizational time demand (which are sub-dimensions of work-family culture scale); work to family enrichment and family to work enrichment. Different statistical analysis methods were used to understand the relationships between these eight dimensions using the IBM® SPSS® software.

5.1. Structure of results and discussion

The results and discussion section includes results from four types of statistical analyses along with the descriptive statistics. The significant results

obtained are interpreted and discussed in detail. The non-significant results are also presented and an effort is made to explain the reasons for the same. The section is structured as follows:

- 1) Goal of the statistical method
- 2) Table for descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations)
- 3) Table for statistical results
- 4) Explanation and discussion of results along with a further explanation whether the hypotheses were supported
- 5) Summary of the results for each type of statistical method

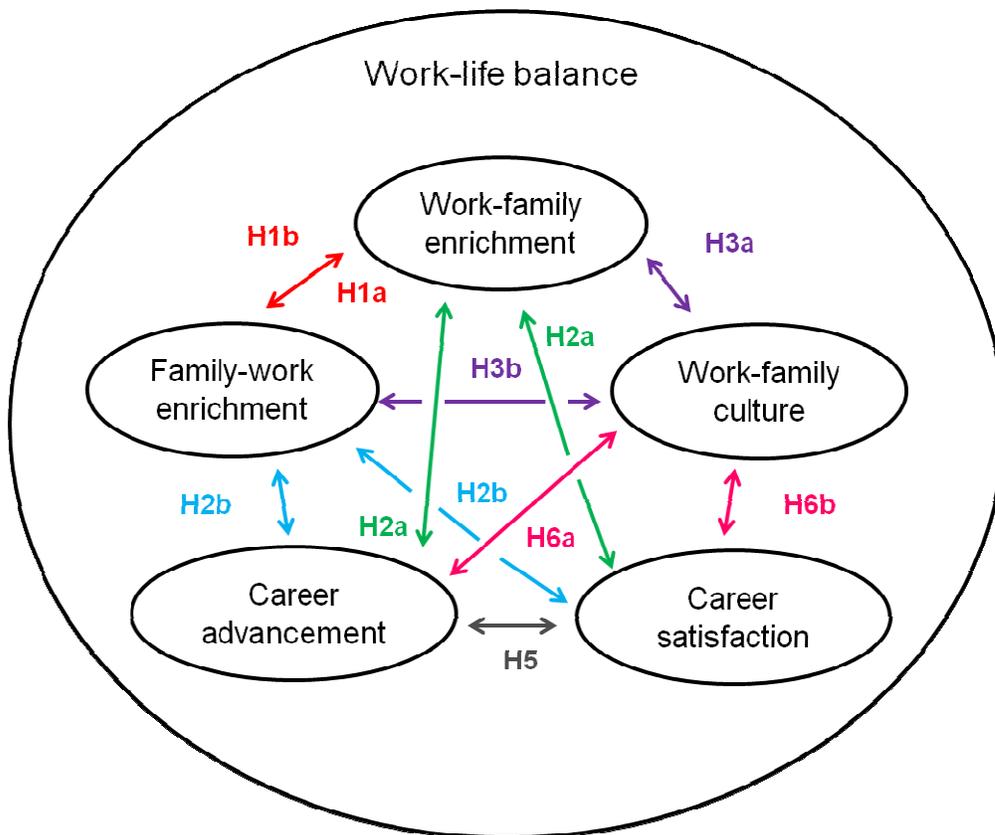


Figure 8. Overview of the Proposed Hypotheses.

1. Independent t-test

Goals: To find out if there are significant differences in enrichment, work-family culture and career related dimensions in Germany and India. Secondly, to find out if there is any gender difference in enrichment and career experiences of managers.

As one of the main goals of this doctoral thesis was to find out the country related differences for all the dimensions being measured, an independent t-test analysis was conducted. The analysis was carried out to find out the group differences in Germany and India. A few significant differences between German and Indian managers resulted from this analysis. Table 12 shows the means, standard deviations and t-test scores for each dimension.

Table 12.

Group Differences Based on Place of Employment of German & Indian Managers
(N = 214)

Dimensions	Germany (N = 130)		India (N = 84)		t(212)	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Career advancement	3.14	1.14	2.98	1.03	1.10	.525
Career satisfaction	3.78	0.83	3.38	0.83	3.41	.001
Managerial support	4.51	0.94	4.64	0.85	-1.03	.281
Org. career consequences	3.96	1.21	4.09	1.03	-0.84	.163
Org. time demand	3.94	1.44	4.24	1.25	-1.58	.040
Family-work enrichment	3.67	0.67	3.88	0.66	-2.37	.006
Work-family enrichment	3.56	0.67	3.80	0.62	-2.60	.010

1.1. Career success: career satisfaction and career advancement.

Career success is measured in this research through career satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 1990) that is subjective judgements of managers regarding their careers and through career advancement (Tharenou, 1999) that is an objective judgment about their career. The research goal was to examine if there was any relationship and how was this relationship between career success and work-family enrichment. The German and Indian managers differed in their perception of career satisfaction. On average, German managers were more satisfied with their career ($M = 3.78$, $SD = .08$) than Indian managers ($M = 3.38$, $SD = .08$); $t(212) = 3.41$, $p < .05$; representing a small-sized effect $r = .228$. The analysis reveals that German and Indian managers differ in the level of perceived satisfaction, but it does not reveal how satisfaction itself is understood differently by these culturally distinct groups. The findings from the qualitative interviews provide a deeper insight into the reasons for German managers' career satisfaction as some aspects of organizational culture (see Qualitative section I.5.) such as freedom at work (see Qualitative section 1.5.iii.) (freedom can also be interpreted as autonomy considering the findings from qualitative interviews), opportunities provided by supervisors or the organization itself and getting to do interesting work seemed important for German managers' career satisfaction (see Qualitative section I.5.). They mentioned these aspects as a positive culture at work. These aspects are quite important for being satisfied with their job as seen also in another recent European study that includes a German sample (Drobnič, Beham & Präg, 2010). In the case of Indian managers the findings from the interviews of the current study show that they perceive less flexibility with work (work-time and work-place) as compared to the German managers. This may affect the Indian managers' satisfaction level of work (see Qualitative section I.5.iii.) leading to a lower level of career satisfaction.

Although the clear differences or similarities regarding what leads to career satisfaction for German and Indian managers are yet to be explored; this was not directly addressed in the interviews of the current research. Another Indian study on bank employees shows that bank employees perceive job satisfaction through parameters like salary, social aspects, growth aspects and also job security (Shrivastava & Purans, 2009); which are different than that of the German

managers' concept of satisfaction. Thus, for the German managers flexibility related to working time and workplace, career opportunities from supervisors/organizations, and being able to do interesting work are some predictors of career satisfaction; while for Indian managers less flexibility with work timings, work place, high organizational time demand (see Qualitative section I.5.i.), fewer mentoring facilities (see Qualitative section I.5.iv.), as compared to German organizations show that the Indian managers may have substantial reasons to be less satisfied with their career in comparison with the German managers.

Regarding career advancement, the German managers ($M = 3.14$, $SD = 1.14$) did not show any significant differences as compared to Indian managers ($M = 2.98$, $SD = 1.03$); $t(212) = 1.10$, $p = n. s.$ As a result of the factors such as power distance, difference in taxation systems, economic and social stratification differ across nations (Hollenbeck & McCall, 2003), which may impact the objectivity of success, a difference in Germany and India regarding career advancement was expected. As the findings show that the difference is non-significant, it can be assumed that the careers advanced in a similar way for German and Indian managers. One probable reason could be that career advancement is measured through salary, hierarchical level and number of promotions for managers; which is a same parameter to measure advancement in both the countries. Second reason could be that the companies included in this two-country study are large global players; therefore they may be confronted with similar challenges such as rapid changes in technologies, working 24x7, changes in perception of work and family roles, and influences on the characteristics of job along with influences on workplace characteristics in German and Indian companies (Chandra, 2012). As the organizations face similar challenges, this may result in a similar view of objective career success. And the current findings can be viewed in this way.

Taking into consideration these rapid changes occurring globally, the German and Indian managers find themselves and their careers in a similar organizational structure. This may in turn affect how advancement is measured globally; which may also become similar as the case is in this Indo-German study. Furthermore, the qualitative data analysis also confirms that both German and

Indian managers believed that they have advanced in their careers and were quite content with their career advancement (see Qualitative section II.6.1.). Differences in career advancement for India and Germany should be retested using some other psychological test measuring career advancement. This should be considered for future research.

1.2. Organizational work-family culture.

Organizational work-family culture plays quite an important role in work-life balance of employees, as a supportive culture leads to affective commitment of the employees. Furthermore, if employees perceive their work environment to be family friendly, then the chances of them using the work-family benefits at the workplace are higher (Thompson et al., 1999). Thus, to understand the differences in Germany and India three dimensions of work-family culture according to Thompson et al. (1999) were measured. German and Indian managers differed significantly in the organizational time demand. Organizational time demand is understood as expectations that employees prioritize work over family and includes norms about the number of hours they are supposed to work along with employees' use of time. On average, organizational time demand was higher for the Indian managers ($M = 4.24$, $SD = 1.25$) than for the German managers ($M = 3.94$, $SD = 1.44$); $t(212) = -1.58$, $p < .05$; representing a small-sized effect $r = .107$. This result matches the qualitative results of the current study (see Qualitative section I.5.i.). The Indian managers mentioned a higher time demand meaning working more than the regular working hours. The German managers as compared to the Indian managers mentioned more often that they were quite satisfied with the time demand, implying that time demand was suitable for them, meaning that they seldom worked beyond the regular working hours. In the West Germany the weekly work hours were reported to be 38.5 in the year 1995 for a five-day week; maximum work for 8 hours on a day as reported by (Bell & Freeman, 2001, p. 184, Table 1.); while the Indian Factories Act 1948 permits workers to work for maximum 9 hours on a day and prescribes to not exceed 48 hours in a week; where week comprises of 6 working days as reported by (Baral & Bharagava, 2011). An Indian study on work-life balance perspectives shows that the Western countries have fewer working hours as compared to India (Chandra, 2012). Another Indian study reconfirms the results of the current study by reporting

that working hours are much higher in Indian companies than in the West (Rao & Indla, 2010).

There was no significant difference reported for the managerial support the German managers ($M = 4.51$, $SD = .09$) and the Indian managers ($M = 4.64$, $SD = .08$) received $t(212) = -1.03$, $p = n. s.$ Furthermore, the organizational career consequences also did not differ significantly for the Indian managers ($M = 4.09$, $SD = 1.03$) and the German managers ($M = 3.96$, $SD = 1.21$); $t(212) = -.844$, $p = n. s.$ The career consequences are basically negative consequences that have to be faced by employees for utilizing work-family benefits available in the company or giving family more priority over family at times; which may be similar in Germany and India. Negative career consequences could be negative attitudes towards managers; who prioritize family over work or managers who utilize work-family benefits, such employees are then seen less probable to get a promotion. Thus, the negative effects of utilizing the benefits could be similar in Germany and India. The qualitative analysis (see Qualitative section I.5.ii.) also shows that 'managerial support' was mentioned equally by both German and Indian managers and they were very satisfied with the support they got from supervisors and management in general. There were no statements regarding negative career consequences mentioned by German and Indian managers in the qualitative interviews. One reason could be that in general both the group of managers perceived their organizational work-family culture quite positively; although German managers perceived it more positively than Indian managers (see Qualitative section I.5. 'Discussion part'). It may imply that the consequences on career success such as negative effect on size of salary, performance ratings, promotions etc. (Judiesch & Lyness, 1999) one has to face for using the work-family benefits (leaves of absence) may be similar in Germany and India.

1.3. Work-family enrichment & family-work enrichment.

Enrichment from work to family and family to work are the positive aspects of work-life balance. Enrichment is conceived as work life and family life benefitting each other (Carlson et al., 2006). There were significant differences found for both the directions of enrichment showing that the Indian managers experienced bi-directional enrichment on a higher level as compared to the

German managers. On average, enrichment from family to work for the Indian managers was higher ($M = 3.88$, $SD = .66$) than that for the German managers ($M = 3.67$, $SD = .67$); $t(212) = -2.373$, $p < .05$; representing a small-sized effect $r = .160$. Enrichment from work to family for Indian managers was higher ($M = 3.80$, $SD = .62$) than for German managers ($M = 3.56$, $SD = .67$); $t(212) = -2.608$, $p > .05$; representing a small-sized effect $r = .176$. The enrichment differences that can be shown by a t-test contribute significantly to the hypotheses H1a and H1b by showing that enrichment from work-to family and family to work occurred for both German and Indian managers thus confirming both the hypotheses. Consistent with the current findings there is a body of research that confirms the enriching experiences from work to family and family to work (Carlson et al., 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Wayne, Randel & Stevens, 2006; Ayree et al., 2005 and Baral & Bhargava, 2010). Greenhaus & Powell (2006) define work-family enrichment as “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role” (p. 73). Marks (1977) and Sieber (1974) proposed that the advantages of engaging in multiple roles are likely to prevail over the disadvantages: an expansionist hypothesis (Barnett & Baruch, 1985). Many researchers believe in a more reasonable perspective that recognizes the positive effects of uniting work and family roles (Barnett, 1998; Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). Another worthy work in this area has been done by Grzywacz (2002), where he postulated the theory of the positive interdependencies between work and family roles.

Greenhaus & Powell (2006) in their effort of proposing the enrichment theory have recommended that comparative studies investigating the effect of a culture on the bi-directional enrichment process would be quite useful as countries may differ in cultural norms, values and work-family policies. The dimension of culture relevant to this Indo-German study is that of collectivism and individualism. Hofstede (1980) and Triandis (1995) have defined the collectivist societies as viewing the ‘self’ as interdependent and emphasizing connectedness, the social context and the social relationships. On the other hand, the individualist societies view ‘self’ as independent and emphasize separateness and uniqueness. Individualism is closely associated with the western, industrialised countries like Canada, the United States, and the western European countries; whereas

collectivism is strongly associated with the Asian and the Latin American countries.

Based on this proposition, Germany falls in the category of the individualist culture and India in the category of the collectivist culture. The bi-directional relationship of enrichment can be perceived as a possibility of work-family integration by the collectivist cultures more than the individualist cultures (Spector et al., 2004); which supports the results from this Indo-German study. A Malaysian study (Hassan, 2010) confirms that the significance of family life is different in the eastern countries and the western countries. Collectivist cultures endorse family integration and interdependence (Triandis, 1986). This explains why the Indian managers experienced family to work enrichment higher than German managers. Rajadhyaksha (2012) gives an appropriate example of less segmentation of work and family roles in Indian context as compared to the western countries. The Indian employees may celebrate religious festivals or holidays at work and engage in ritualistic offering to God for which the seniors, bosses are invited. There are consequently greater chances of the occurrence of enrichment from work to family in the collectivist cultures as the employer-employee relations are more personal (Powell et al., 2009). This explains why the Indian managers experienced higher work to family enrichment than the German managers.

An independent t-test analysis was also conducted to see if any gender differences between Indian and German managers were there for all the seven dimensions. Intra-country gender differences were not assessed as the sample of female managers was too small for statistical analysis. Therefore country wise gender differences along with means, standard deviations are presented in Table 13.

Table 13.

Group Differences Based on Gender of German & Indian Managers (N = 214)

Dimensions	Females (N = 41)		Males (N = 173)		<i>t</i> (212)	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Career advancement	2.44	1.03	3.23	1.06	-4.33	.000
Career satisfaction	3.65	0.71	3.61	0.85	0.28	.291
Managerial support	4.80	0.75	4.50	0.93	1.89	.057
Org. career consequences	4.17	1.05	3.97	1.16	1.03	.312
Org. time demand	4.28	1.20	4.00	1.41	1.18	.113
Family-work enrichment	3.84	0.58	3.73	0.64	1.03	.525
Work-family enrichment	3.86	0.64	3.60	0.65	2.26	.25

1.4. Gender differences.**1.4.1. Career advancement of female and male managers.**

The results from Table 13 indicate that only two dimensions namely career advancement and work to family enrichment show significant differences in the female and the male managers in Germany and India. On average, the male managers advanced more in their careers ($M = 3.23$, $SD = 1.06$) than the female managers ($M = 2.44$, $SD = 1.03$); $t(212) = -4.33$, $p < .05$; representing a small-sized effect $r = .285$. Thus, H4b is partially supported; which states that males will advance more than females in career. This significant difference is in line with a gender-matched study by Lyness & Thompson (2000). The authors of this American study postulate that male and female executives follow a different path to climb the corporate ladder. They have discussed the barriers and the facilitators for career advancement. In general, they reported that female employees are seen to have much more barriers than male managers; and these barriers affect the

advancement of female employees. Women managers face some barriers such as lack of mentoring facilities, gender stereotypes and social isolation that influence their advancement negatively. Gutek (1988) along with Ragins & Sundstorm (1989) propose that the dependents disrupt women's work experience and this may reduce their promotion opportunities. They further argued that having a spouse and children provide positive conditions for men's advancement but negative ones for women's advancement. Heilman (2001) draws attention to the fact that a gender bias in evaluation of the women is a primary cause. The "glass ceiling" seems to be a barrier in a woman's career (Morrison et al., 1987); which is seen as a natural consequence of firstly, the gender stereotypes and secondly, the expectations such stereotypes have from women, about how they should behave and what they should be like. These gender stereotypes cause obstacles for women and reaching to the top in organizations is often challenging for women.

1.4.2. Work-family enrichment: gender differences.

In the case of work to family enrichment, on average, female managers ($M = 3.86$, $SD = .64$) experienced work-family enrichment on a higher side than male managers ($M = 3.60$, $SD = .65$); $t(212) = 2.26$, $p < .05$; representing a small-sized effect $r = .152$. Unexpectedly, H4a is not supported; which stated that male managers will experience work to family enrichment on a higher side. The qualitative part of the current study also shows a tendency for work-family enrichment being slightly higher for women (100%) than men (83%) (see Qualitative section III.i.). One reason could be sought in the social role theory approach, which can be useful in explaining this result. As per Eagly (1987), the divergent social roles and specific societal expectations from men and women lead to gender differences. From this point of view, it is clear that men and women perceive their work and family roles differently.

An example would be from an American study Andrews & Bailyn (1993); where they suggest that women would probably combine work and family; on the contrary, men would mentally separate these domains. For the current study, it implies that the probability is higher for women to integrate work and family; which means that a positive transfer from work to family can possibly happen for women more often than for men, as men see work and family as separate domains. A

more recent perspective is that, in spite of many barriers in their career advancement (Lyness & Thompson, 2000), the situation of female managers is gradually improving, meaning that they are quite satisfied with their current jobs and advancing substantially (Ragins, Townsend & Mattis, 1998) and are also managing their family lives well. This may give female managers mental peace and positive mood at work and then this can very well enhance their performance in their families. The qualitative section of this research has evidence that all the 12 women managers were advancing in their careers and also perceived themselves as having a good work-life balance (see Qualitative section I.1.1.).

1.4.3. Non-significant gender differences.

All the remaining dimensions did not yield significant results. Career satisfaction $t(212) = .28$, $p = n. s.$; managerial support $t(212) = 1.89$, $p = n. s.$; Organizational career consequences $t(212) = 1.03$, $p = n. s.$; Organization time demand $t(212) = 1.03$, $p = n. s.$; and lastly family-work enrichment $t(212) = 1.03$, $p = n. s.$ It was predicted that male and female managers will differ almost on all dimensions but results show that male and female managers differed significantly only on two dimensions mainly career advancement and work-family enrichment . Thus, H4b is not supported with respect to career satisfaction, as male and female managers did not significantly differ in the level of career satisfaction. The qualitative part of this two-country study shows a tendency for career satisfaction being higher for women (83%) than for men (67%) (see Qualitative section III.v.). Career satisfaction and job satisfaction together contribute to the subjective career success (Greenhaus et al., 1990). The social role theory (Eagly, 1987) postulates that for the individuals and for the society, if the gender roles play a significant role then attitudes, values, behaviour will differ. But if the social roles play a significant role then the attitudes, behaviour will be alike. A social role is conceived as a typical adult role that has its roots in obligation to others in this case a German or an Indian manager. For the current study it may be the case that social roles are more significant than gender roles for managers. This may be a reason why female and male managers did not differ in their career satisfaction levels. Mason (1995) in her study on gender differences in job satisfaction also found out that American men and women in management did not differ in the sources of work satisfaction.

Male and female managers from the current study also perceive the importance of organizational work-family culture comprising of dimensions such as managerial support, negative career consequences and organizational time demand) equally thus H4c is not supported; which stated that female managers will benefit more from a supportive work-family culture than male managers. This finding can be supported by Greenglass & Burke (1988); where they found no gender differences in supervisor support. Another reason for no gender difference in organizational work-family culture could be the fading of gender differences (Baruch-Feldman et al., 2002). It means that the social roles of men and women have overlaps. Women are still involved more in the family life because they shoulder higher domestic responsibilities; therefore they may experience work-family conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Men's increased involvement in household responsibilities, child rearing and its relation to work-family conflict has also been documented (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). In due course of time, equality in gender is being encouraged; resulting in men becoming more open to exercise feminine values (Konrad & Harris, 2002). As men are more open to take up typically feminine responsibilities they may be prone to the conflict situation as well and may perceive social support at work beneficial. Thus, the role of family-friendly work culture is viewed equally important by males as well as females.

H4a stating that female managers will experience family to work enrichment on a higher side than male managers is not supported as there is a non-significant difference. The overlapping of social role for men and women can also be a reason for no gender difference in family-work enrichment. The salience of family role for men due to the increased participation of men in housework and for women as they are performing home roles since long can be equal in some instances. Therefore, men and women may experience family to work enrichment similarly. Although the qualitative part of this current study shows a tendency for family-work enrichment to be higher for women (100%) than men (58%) (see Qualitative section III.ii.).

The above explanation is also valid for the career consequences associated with utilizing work-family benefits such as job-sharing, job protected parental leaves, part-time work and flexitime (Lobel & Kossek, 1996; Mitchell, 1995). If diminishing gender differences is a reality for some organizational

cultures, then men and women may have to face similar negative career consequences for using the work-family benefits. Women's advancement in management is evident from many studies (Powell, 1999; Peus & Traut-Mattausch, 2008; Powell & Graves, 2003; Parikh & Shah, 1994). Organizational time demand is conceived as working more than expected, and the expectation that work is prioritized over family (Thompson et al., 1999). Working long hours lead to managerial advancement (Judge et al., 1995) and this applies to both men and women. Therefore, no difference between organizational time demand for male and female managers can be explained as in order to achieve advancement both male and female managers may have to spend long hours at work and perceive time demand equally. Thus, no gender difference in organizational work-family culture is justified.

Regarding gender differences for career satisfaction, work-family culture and family-work enrichment future investigation is recommended. Use of different psychological instruments measuring these constructs apart from the ones used in this study may be useful. Another recommendation would be to include more number of female managers in the investigation. Female managers in the present study comprised only 20% of the whole sample.

Summary

The aim was to find out if there were significant differences between German and Indian managers regarding enrichment and career related dimensions. In all, four dimensions out of seven showed significant differences. German managers were more satisfied than Indian managers. Indian managers experienced higher organizational time demand as compared to German managers. Finally, Indian managers experienced higher work-family enrichment and family work-enrichment than German managers. Thus, the significant differences for bi-directional enrichment provide some support for H1a and H1b showing that enrichment was experienced by both the groups of managers.

In the case of gender differences, only two out of seven dimensions showed significant differences. Contrary to the expectation, German and Indian female managers experienced higher work to family enrichment than German and Indian males. No significant differences were found for family-work enrichment;

conclusively, H4a cannot be supported. Secondly, the German and Indian male managers advanced more than German and Indian female managers. No significant difference was found for career satisfaction; conclusively, H4b was partially supported. Thirdly, there was no gender difference found in managerial support, organizational time demand and career consequences providing no support for H4c.

2. Correlation

Goal: To find out about the associations between dimensions of enrichment, work-family culture and career for German and Indian managers.

A Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationships between all the dimensions for the whole sample (N = 214). Table 13 shows the means and standard deviations. Table 14 shows the inter-correlations of the German and Indian managers.

Table 13.

Means and Standard Deviations for Dimensions of Enrichment and Career for German and Indian Managers (N = 214)

Dimensions	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Work-family enrichment	3.65	0.66
Family-work enrichment	3.75	0.63
Managerial support	4.56	0.91
Org. career consequences	4.01	1.14
Org. time demand	4.06	1.38
Career satisfaction	3.62	0.83
Career advancement	3.08	1.10
Org. work-family culture	4.33	0.91

Table 14.

Intercorrelations for Dimensions of Enrichment and Career for German and Indian Managers (N = 214)

Dimensions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Work-family enrichment	-							
Family-work enrichment	.43***	-						
Managerial support	.26***	.11	-					
Org. career consequences	.09	-.07	.53***	-				
Org. time demand	.03	-.07	.60***	.64***	-			
Career satisfaction	.09	.09	.03	.08	.00	-		
Career advancement	.04	-.08	-.12	-.12	-.062	.19**	-	
Org. work-family culture	.18**	.02	.90***	.80***	.83***	.04	-.12	-

** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

2.1. Work-family enrichment & family-work enrichment.

There were a few significant correlations between the dimensions of enrichment and career for German and Indian managers. Work-family enrichment was significantly correlated with family-work enrichment $r = .43$, $p < .01$; showing that a positive transfer from work life to family life has taken place by improving performance in the family life and the same is true for family life to work life through improvement in work life. The positive significant correlation between work-family and family-work enrichment supports the hypotheses H1a and H1b respectively. This result can also be supported with the qualitative data analysis, which also reveals that the German and the Indian managers experienced enriching experiences from work to family and family to work (see Qualitative section I.1.1. & 1.2.). Enrichment from work to family is also supported by a study (Crouter, 1984a), which confirms that perspectives and skills gained at work can improve one's parenting behaviour. Friedman & Greenhaus (2000) also support the work to family direction of enrichment by finding out that work flexibility

enables one to spend more time with family and therefore enhances the performance in the family role. Ruderman et al. (2002) reported that qualities namely multi-tasking, interpersonal skills from personal lives enhance the managerial effectiveness. Spouse support is positively correlated with career success; which is a resource of family to work enrichment (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000).

This correlation is expected as these two directions of enrichment belong to the same scale work-family enrichment scale. This significant correlation further implies that the enrichment from work to family creates a possibility for enrichment in another direction that is from family to work. This is quite an important finding because it highlights the role of family to work enrichment. The skills, perspectives, positive affect one gains from the family domain help him/her to be a better performer at work. And this experience helps him/her later to transfer the skills/perspectives emotions gained at work place to his family life. Basically, it means that work-family enrichment affects family-work enrichment positively. Inferentially, the experiences of work to family and family to work enrichment enhance the overall well-being of individuals (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

2.2. Work-family enrichment & organizational work-family culture.

The association of work-family enrichment and organizational work-family culture is endorsed by a positive significant correlation, $r = .18$, $p < .01$. It implies that a favourable work-family culture in the organizations plays a role in the positive transfer from work life to family life and improves the quality of family life. Wayne et al. (2006) in their study on insurance employees also confirmed a positive link between work-family enrichment and work-family culture. They have also proposed that a supportive work-family culture can lead to increased enrichment. Also consistent with the finding from current study are the results from Gordon et al. (2007); where they affirm this positive link between work-family enrichment & work-family culture for older female employees as well.

As a significant association between work-family enrichment and organizational work-family culture was observed, it was analysed in more detail by finding out the correlation between work-family enrichment and the three sub-dimensions of work-family culture scale. The results show that work-family

enrichment and managerial support were significantly positively correlated, $r = .26$, $p < .01$; while other dimensions organizational time demand and organizational career consequences were not significantly correlated. This significant positive correlation shows that managerial support received at work helps the managers transfer their enriching experiences from work life to family life. Managerial support is one of the components of work-family culture in the organization. Managerial support in this context refers to support received from supervisors and peers. The support managers received from their seniors or colleagues enriches their work lives and then a positive transfer from their work lives into their family lives occurs ultimately improving their performance in family.

To further clarify this point, emotional support gained from supervisors such as sympathy, comfort and encouragement increases the attachment to the organization (Ng & Sorensen, 2008) and these positive emotions help managers to be better family members by being happy and content in their family lives. This significant result partially supports H3a implying that a positive association between work-family enrichment and managerial support is seen. H3a cannot be fully supported through these results as work-family enrichment is not significantly correlated with the other sub-dimensions namely organizational career consequences $r = .09$ ($p = n. s.$) and organizational time demand $r = .03$ ($p = n. s.$). Sieber's role accumulation theory (Sieber, 1974) highlights the importance and advantages of engaging in multiple roles; which can be helpful to understand the relation between work-family enrichment and managerial support. It can be rewarding for managers in the current study, to engage in work and family roles because such engagement outweighs the stress arising from the two roles. Thus, engaging in the work role (result of which can be managerial support) may help managers to enrich their family lives. Because they have managerial support, the German and the Indian managers can avail work-family benefits such as work from home, part-time work for example, when their family life demands. Thus, the advantage of involving in two roles can lead to the enrichment process.

The relation between work-family facilitation (another form of positive work-family integration) and work place support is evident from another recent Indian study (Srivastava et al., 2009); where they found that the relationship with managers, peers and clients at workplace positively influenced the family life. The

correlation between work-family enrichment and supervisor support is also confirmed by an Indian study aiming to examine the mediating effect of work-family enrichment between work-life balance interventions and job outcomes (Baral & Bhargava, 2010). A German study on service sector employees also confirms this relation. They also found a positive association between work-home enrichment and supervisor support (Beham et al., 2011). There is also a confirmation of the relationship between social support received at work and work-family balance for German office workers showing that social support contributes to satisfaction with work family balance (Beham & Drobnič, 2010).

2.3. Organizational work-family culture, career advancement and career satisfaction.

The organizational career consequences and managerial support were significantly correlated, $r = .53$, $p < .01$. Organizational career consequences and organizational time demand were significantly correlated, $r = .64$, $p < .01$. This correlation is quite predictable as the organizational career consequences, managerial support and organizational time demand are sub-dimensions of the same psychological test i.e. organizational work-family culture; therefore, this correlation does not require any further discussion. For the current study, it shows that three domains of work-family culture are positively significantly correlated with each other and together predict how favourable the work-family cultures are, according to the German and the Indian managers. Contrary to the earlier research on work-family culture and job satisfaction or career satisfaction (e.g. Wayne et al., 2006), the association between work-family culture and career satisfaction cannot be established as there is a non-significant correlation, $r = .04$, ($p = n. s.$) thus, H6b cannot be supported.

2.4. Career advancement & career satisfaction.

Career advancement and career satisfaction were significantly correlated, $r = .19$, $p < .01$. As career advancement and career satisfaction are two important measures of career success in this study, it is in line with the expectation that these two dimensions are positively significantly correlated. Thus, H5 which states that career advancement and career satisfaction will be positively associated is partially supported (see 2.6.). This result implies that satisfaction and

advancement in career are necessary for the managers to lead a successful career. This relation of career advancement and career satisfaction is well established by quite a few studies. It is evident that objective success seen through income and promotions is the basis of subjective success that is career satisfaction or job satisfaction (Ng et al., 2005; Judge et al., 1995). Another perspective of this relation is mentioned in a German study (Abele & Spurk, 2009). The researchers argue that subjective success leads to objective success meaning that satisfaction with career or job (subjective career success) makes the individual self confident and motivated and this can in turn add to his/her career advancement (objective career success).

2.5. Non-significant correlations.

The correlation analysis also reveals the non-significant relationships. It was predicted that work-family enrichment and career advancement will be positively correlated but there was a non-significant correlation $r = .04$ ($p = n. s.$). Work-family enrichment and career satisfaction were also expected to be positively correlated but there was a non-significant correlation $r = .09$ ($p = n. s.$). Thus, H2a cannot be supported as there was no significant relation between bi-directional enrichment and career advancement and bidirectional enrichment and career satisfaction. Interestingly, the qualitative interviews confirm a positive relationship between work-family enrichment and career advancement. Both German and Indian managers experienced that, what they learn at work does help them to become better family members and this helps their career growth (see Qualitative section I.1.1.iv.). Similarly, H2b cannot be supported as there was a negative non-significant correlation $r = -.08$ ($p = n. s.$) between career advancement and family-work enrichment and a positive yet non-significant correlation $r = .09$ ($p = n. s.$) between family-work enrichment and career satisfaction. Surprisingly, the qualitative interviews confirm that managers experienced family-work enrichment and it helped them to advance in career (see Qualitative section I.1.2.iv.).

Furthermore, it was also expected that family-work enrichment will be positively associated with organizational work-family culture. The correlations do not support this expectation; therefore H3b is not supported. Family-work

enrichment had non-significant relations with managerial support $r = .11$ ($p = n. s.$), organizational career consequences $r = -.07$ ($p = n. s.$) and organizational time demand $r = -.07$ ($p = n. s.$). The explanation for non-significant results can be attributed to the combination of psychological scales in the current two-country study. Use of different psychological instruments measuring these constructs apart from the ones used in this study may be useful. The relationship between bi-directional enrichment and career success needs to be assessed again in the future by using different parameters of subjective and objective career success. Subjective career success was measured through career satisfaction, in the future, bi-directional enrichment and job satisfaction association might be more relevant. Instead of salary, hierarchical levels, number of promotions as objective measures of career advancement, other predictors of salary and promotions such as human capital and organizational sponsorship (Ng et al., 2005) should be taken into consideration. The relation between family-work enrichment and organizational work-family culture has to be analysed again in the future, may be with a different sample and different psychological tests.

2.6. Significant correlations for Germany.

As two different groups of participants are included in this research it was decided to analyse relationships for specific countries to find out if the correlations differed when only the German sample was assessed. For this purpose, the data for the German managers was filtered and a Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was computed only for the German sample ($N = 130$). Table 15 shows the means and standard deviations and Table 16 shows the inter-correlations for enrichment and career dimensions of German managers.

Table 15.

Means and Standard Deviations for Dimensions of Enrichment and Career for German Managers (N = 130)

Dimensions	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Work-family enrichment	3.56	0.66
Family-work enrichment	3.67	0.67
Managerial support	4.51	0.94
Org. career consequences	3.96	1.20
Org. time demand	3.93	1.44
Career satisfaction	3.79	0.76
Career advancement	3.15	1.14
Org. work-family culture	4.26	0.98

Table 16.

Intercorrelations for Dimensions of Enrichment and Career for German Managers (N = 130)

Dimensions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Work-family enrichment	-							
Family-work enrichment	.34***	-						
Managerial support	.24***	.06	-					
Org. career consequences	.08	-.06	.66***	-				
Org. time demand	-.00	-.09	.67***	.67***	-			
Career satisfaction	.12	.16	.05	.07	-.01	-		
Career advancement	.11	-.08	-.06	-.02	-.03	.26**	-	
Org. work-family culture	.15	-.01	.93***	.85***	.85***	.04	-.05	-

** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

For the German managers all the correlations were similar to the correlation analysis conducted for the whole sample as seen in Table 14. Work-family enrichment and family-work enrichment were significantly correlated, $r = .34$, $p < .01$. Work-family enrichment and managerial support were significantly correlated, $r = .24$, $p < .01$. Organizational career consequences and managerial support were significantly correlated, $r = .66$, $p < .01$. Organizational time demand and managerial support were significantly correlated, $r = .67$, $p < .01$. Organizational career consequences and organizational time demand were significantly correlated, $r = .67$, $p < .01$.

It was a distinct case for the German sample to show a correlation between career advancement and career satisfaction, $r = .26$, $p < .01$; giving support to H5. It has to be noted here, that H5 is partially supported, as this association between career advancement and career satisfaction is evident only in Germany and not in India. Surprisingly, the qualitative interviews (see Qualitative section II.6.1.) in the current study show that Indian managers expressed a close link between career satisfaction and career advancement. A German study (Abele & Spurk, 2009) on the interrelation between subjective and objective success confirms a positive association between the two types of success. It further reveals that the amount of effect subjective career success ('satisfaction' for current study) has on objective success ('advancement' for current study) is much more than other psychological predictors of career success. The main finding of this German study implies that subjective career success leads to objective success; which seems beneficial for both the individual and the organization.

2.7. Significant correlations for India.

Table 17.

Means and Standard Deviations for Dimensions of Enrichment and Career for Indian Managers (N = 84)

Dimensions	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Work-family enrichment	3.79	0.62
Family-work enrichment	3.88	0.55
Managerial support	4.65	0.85
Org. career consequences	4.09	1.05
Org. time demand	4.25	1.25
Career satisfaction	3.35	0.86
Career advancement	3.01	1.02
Org. work-family culture	4.43	0.76

Table 18.

Intercorrelations for Dimensions of Enrichment and Career for Indian Managers (N = 84)

Dimensions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Work-family enrichment	-							
Family-work enrichment	.57***	-						
Managerial support	.28*	.20	-					
Org. career consequences	.08	-.12	-.27*	-				
Org. time demand	.06	-.06	.42***	.57***	-			
Career satisfaction	.19	.12	.04	.15	.09	-		
Career advancement	.01	.01	-.20	-.27*	-.09	.08	-	
Org. work-family culture	.21	.06	.84***	.69***	.78***	.10	-.24*	-

* $p < .05$. *** $p < .001$.

Similar to German sample, a Pearson's correlation coefficient was computed only for Indian sample ($N = 84$). Table 17 shows the means and standard deviations for Indian managers. Table 18 shows the inter-correlations for Indian managers. There were similarities with the correlations for whole sample (see Table 14). Work-family enrichment and family-work enrichment were significantly correlated, $r = .57, p < .01$. Work-family enrichment and managerial support were significantly correlated, $r = .28, p < .05$. Organizational career consequences and managerial support were significantly correlated, $r = -.27, p < .05$. Organizational time demand and managerial support were significantly correlated, $r = .42, p < .01$. Organizational time demand and organizational career consequences were significantly correlated, $r = .57, p < .01$. It was a distinct case of Indian managers to show a negative significant correlation between career advancement and organizational career consequences; $r = -.27, p < .05$ and also between career advancement and organizational work-family culture, $r = -.24, p < .05$.

These two distinct correlations for Indian sample did not appear in the analysis of whole sample. It was actually expected that organizational work-family culture and career advancement will be positively correlated (H6a). Contradictory to the expectation, the negative relation between career advancement and career consequences means that even if Indian managers experienced negative career consequences for using work-family facilities such as leaves, part-time work etc. they still advanced in their careers; thus, H6a is not supported. It should be noted that there was no other Indian study found in the literature database to support these results. This two-country study is the sole evidence of this significant negative relation; thus, contributing to the career success research. It may be the case that managers who utilize these work-family facilities try to compensate for that by working long hours later on; which may lead to career advancement. To support this argument it has been reported earlier that working long hours leads to managerial advancement (Judge et al., 1995). It should also be noted that career advancement is not only dependent on the use of work-family benefit and its negative effect on career. Career advancement is a result of human capital elements such as work-experience, knowledge, education (Becker, 1964) and also supervisor support, training-skill development opportunities (Ng et al. 2005).

The negative association between career advancement and work-family culture should also be viewed in the same direction as explained before. It means that career advances, in spite of unfavourable work-family culture. It has been documented that the Indian organizations provide less family-friendly programs as compared to the western countries (Poster, 2005). There has been research focusing on work-family culture and its positive association with job satisfaction (Lyness et al., 1999; Allen, 2001). However, neither an Indian study nor a study in any other culture was found to support the negative relationship between organizational work-family culture and career advancement. This two-country study fills the gap by providing empirical evidence about work-family culture and career advancement in India. The qualitative interviews of this study revealed the condition of work-family culture in Indian organizations; which is perceived not up to the mark by the Indian managers as they experienced higher organizational time demand, less flexibility and also demanded more mentoring facilities as compared to German managers (Qualitative section I. 5.). Surprisingly, when the Indian managers were asked if they think they have advanced in their careers they promptly agreed, that they have advanced in their careers (Qualitative section II. 6.1.).

Summary

The aim was to find out significant associations between enrichment, work-family culture and career related dimensions. The correlation analysis was conducted on three levels: whole sample, German sample and Indian sample. A few significant relationships were established. In case of the whole sample, H1a and H1b were fully supported. It means that German and Indian managers experienced work to family enrichment (H1a) and family to work enrichment (H1b). H2a and H2b were not supported as the bi-directional enrichment was not significantly correlated with career advancement and career satisfaction. There was a significant relationship between work-family enrichment and organizational work-family culture (managerial support) supporting H3a partially, as the other dimensions of work-family culture i.e. organizational time demand and career consequences were not significantly correlated. H3b stating that family-work enrichment will be positively associated with organizational work-family culture stands unsupported. H5 is partially proven as career advancement and career

satisfactions were positively correlated (only for Germany). H6b is not supported as there was no significant relationship between organizational work-family culture and career satisfaction.

In the case of the German managers, the results coincide with the analysis of the whole sample. A noteworthy finding is H5; which is partially proven as career advancement and career satisfaction were positively correlated only in Germany and not in India. H6a and H6b were not supported as there was a non-significant relation with career advancement and career satisfaction respectively. In the case of India, the results were similar to Germany except for H6a. With regard to H6b there was no significant relationship with career satisfaction; on the other hand a significant negative correlation between career advancement and organizational work-family culture H6a (negative career consequences) was observed; which is a remarkable finding.

3. Hierarchical Multiple Regression

Goal: To conduct hierarchical multiple regression analysis to understand the relationship between family-work enrichment, organizational work-family culture (managerial support) and work-family enrichment.

In the correlation analysis it was apparent that work-family culture (managerial support), family work enrichment and work-family enrichment were significantly correlated. A deeper analysis of dimensions predicting work-family enrichment was carried out using a hierarchical regression with the forced entry method. H3a was further supported partially by this analysis showing a positive association between managerial support and work-family enrichment. It was then decided to analyse the prediction of work-family enrichment by family-work enrichment and managerial support in detail. It would be interesting to explore the demographic variables' influence on the managerial support, family-work enrichment and work-family enrichment relationship. The demographic variables viz. age, marital status, presence of children and gender were chosen as controlling variables.

3. i) Predicting work-family enrichment: Variations as per age.

Table 22.

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Dimensions Predicting Work-family Enrichment with 'Age' as a Controlled Variable (N = 214)

Step and predictor variable	B	SE B	β	R ²	ΔR^2
20-35 years					
Step 1				0.27	0.27
Family-work enrichment	0.41	0.11	0.42***		
Managerial support	0.19	0.08	0.27*		
Step 2				0.27	0
Family-work enrichment	0.39	0.11	0.40***		
Managerial support	0.27	0.18	0.39		
Org. work-family culture	-0.09	0.18	-0.13		
36-50 years					
Step 1				0.21	0.21
Family-work enrichment	0.45	0.10	0.39***		
Managerial support	0.15	0.06	0.22*		
Step 2				0.21	0
Family-work enrichment	0.45	0.10	0.38***		
Managerial support	0.20	0.14	0.28		
Org. work-family culture	0.05	0.14	-0.08		
51-65 years					
Step 1				0.30	0.30
Family-work enrichment	0.45	0.13	0.48***		
Managerial support	0.14	0.11	0.17		
Step 2				0.30	0
Family-work enrichment	0.44	0.14	0.47**		
Managerial support	0.20	0.33	0.24		
Org. work-family culture	0.06	0.29	-0.07		

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

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to see if family-work enrichment, managerial support and organizational work-family culture significantly predict work-family enrichment. The analysis was carried out by dividing the managers into three age groups to compare the relationships for the specified age range. Age group 1 included 61 managers belonging to age range 20-35; age group 2 included 110 managers belonging to age range 36-50 and age group 3 included 43 managers belonging to age range 51-65. For every age group, in Step 1 the variables family-work enrichment and managerial support were entered into the model and in Step 2, organizational work-family culture was added. Overall, organizational work-family culture added no significance to the explanation of further variance.

In the age group 1, two predictors family-work enrichment and managerial support explained 27% of variance. It was found that family-work enrichment significantly predicts work-family enrichment ($\beta = .42, p < .001$), as did managerial support ($\beta = .27, p < .05$). In the age group 2, two predictors explained 21% of variance in work-family enrichment; which is smaller than that of age group 1. It was found that family-work enrichment significantly predicts work-family enrichment ($\beta = .39, p < .001$), as did managerial support ($\beta = .22, p < .05$). In the age group 3, two predictors explained 30% of variance in work-family enrichment; which is the largest as compared to the first two age groups. It was found that family-work enrichment significantly predicts work-family enrichment ($\beta = .48, p < .001$) and managerial support for this age group does not significantly predict work-family enrichment ($\beta = .17, p = n. s.$).

Overall, it seems that for managers, who receive managerial support and experience the enrichment from family to work domain predicts work-family enrichment; the prediction is moderate in age group 1 (age 20-35), lowest in age group 2 (age 36-50) and highest in group 3 (age 51-60). This age related difference can be understood by considering the developmental approach as postulated by Levinson's life stage theory (1978, 1986). There are in total 9 stages described in this theory; but only the age ranges suitable to the current study are discussed here. This approach also helps to consider the possibility that work and family domains place challenges to individuals in different ways at different stages of their lives. During the early adulthood (in this case age 20-35), individuals are

focusing on building careers and a family; also by the end of this era occupational growth takes place (Levinson, 1986). The managerial support such as providing work-related information, feedback can be useful for young workers (Ng & Sorensen, 2008); which may be perceived as important by the managers in the current study to grow in their careers. The managerial support also facilitates the management of family related demands of managers by providing a family friendly culture in the organization. Considering the focus of this age group, the enriching experience for family to work direction can also be higher as creating a family is a major preoccupation at this age. Thus, the influence of the family environment on the individual and positive transfer of this familial influence to work life is highly probable.

In case of age range (36-50), individuals are experiencing a feeling of settlement in their lives, individuals may hold senior positions by contributing well to the organizations and the family (Levinson, 1986); therefore the role of managerial support and family to work enrichment in predicting work-family enrichment becomes less evident, as compared to the earlier life stage. During the late-life adult transition (in this case age 51-60), due to retirement nearing, changes in the family roles, stability in career (Levinson, 1986); individuals might not perceive the need of managerial support as they did in the earlier stages of life. On the other hand, as the family roles have increased salience in this age range, family to work enrichment might also be higher as compared to the earlier life stages. Therefore, the prediction of work-family enrichment by family-work enrichment is the highest in this life stage. Higher family-work enrichment may lead to a higher balance. It has been reported earlier that older workers have a higher work-life balance than younger ones (Tausig & Fenwick, 2001).

3. ii) Predicting work-family enrichment: Variations as per marital status.

Table 23.

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Dimensions Predicting Work-family Enrichment with 'Marital Status' as a Controlled Variable (N = 214)

Step and predictor variable	B	SE B	β	R²	ΔR^2
Married					
Step 1				0.27	0.27
Family-work enrichment	0.42	0.07	0.40***		
Managerial support	0.21	0.05	0.28***		
Step 2				0.27	0
Family-work enrichment	0.41	0.07	0.39**		
Managerial support	0.26	0.12	0.35*		
Org. work-family culture	0.06	0.11	-0.08		
Living with partner					
Step 1				0.20	0.20
Family-work enrichment	0.49	0.23	0.45		
Managerial support	0.01	0.17	0.01		
Step 2				0.33	0.13
Family-work enrichment	0.40	0.23	0.37		
Managerial support	0.63	0.38	0.82		
Org. work-family culture	-0.68	0.38	-0.92		
Single/unmarried					
Step 1				0.09	0.09
Family-work enrichment	0.27	0.20	0.26		
Managerial support	0.08	0.11	-0.15		
Step 2				0.12	0.03
Family-work enrichment	0.35	0.22	0.34		
Managerial support	0.37	0.31	-0.6		
Org. work-family culture	0.32	0.32	0.5		

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

The analysis was carried out by dividing the managers into three groups to compare the relationships according to their marital status. Group 1 includes 116 managers who were married; group 2 includes 21 managers who lived with partners and group 3 includes 27 managers who were unmarried/single. For every age group, in Step 1, the variables family-work enrichment and managerial support were entered to the model and in Step 2 organizational work-family culture was added. Overall, organizational work-family culture added no significance to the explanation of further variance.

In group 1, two predictors namely family-work enrichment and managerial support explained 27% of variance. It was found that family-work enrichment significantly predicts work-family enrichment ($\beta = .40, p < .001$), as did managerial support ($\beta = .28, p < .001$). In group 2, the two predictors explained 20% of variance although with no significance. In group 3, the two predictors explained 9% of variance with no significant prediction. The comparative predictions show that the significant relationship is seen only for married couples but not for cohabiting managers and single managers. It basically implies that managers who have spouses perceive managerial support along with family to work enrichment to play some role in work-family enrichment. Managerial support can be quite important for married couples as their roles in the family are more challenging than for the single managers. For the purpose of this research single managers were unmarried and had no dependent children. Single employees without children seem to perceive organizational support differently than the managers who have families. Singles perceive less work opportunities and less access to work-life related benefits (Casper et al., 2007). Therefore, managerial support in their case does not predict work-family enrichment significantly. Family systems theory grounded in the general systems theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1977) can be useful in understanding the influence of a family member's behaviours and attitudes on the individual. Family and work systems are major micro-systems in which individuals function. Managing work and life is more challenging to married couples than singles, as married couples have to cater to higher domestic responsibilities. For a married manager, it is vital to cater to the family roles and work roles. The household responsibilities that married couples cater to are different from that of the single/unmarried individuals. These responsibilities involve housework,

childcare, emotion work and voluntary participation as conceptualized by Pedersen et al., (2011). If managerial support is received by managers it eases the process of performing work roles and family roles. A Norwegian study found that family to work facilitation was reported more by two-parent couples than singles (Innstrand et al., 2010); which is in line with the result discussed above. Therefore, for married couples having managerial support and enriching family to work experiences together predict work to family enrichment.

In case of cohabiting managers, there is evidence that they have less social and economic resources, as compared to married couples to manage their work and life. The reason is that cohabiting managers are less likely to gain social support from their relatives and friends (Eggebeen, 2005). So the expectation was that cohabiting managers would require more managerial support to manage their work and life and also to experience work to family enrichment; although the results of the current study do not support this finding. Surprisingly, there was no significant relationship. Another technical reason for absence of this prediction in the case of cohabiting managers and single managers is, that the sample comprised of 78% married managers, cohabiting managers were 17%, who appeared only in German sample and single managers were only 12%. Probably, the small number of managers having the marital status apart from being 'married' may affect the statistical results and therefore may show non-significant relationships.

3. iii) Predicting work-family enrichment: Variations as per children.

Table 24.

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Dimensions Predicting Work-family Enrichment with 'Children' as a Controlled Variable (N = 214)

Step and predictor variable	B	SE B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
No children					
Step 1				0.18	0.18
Family-work enrichment	0.44	0.13	0.42***		
Managerial support	0.05	0.09	0.07		
Step 2				0.19	0.01
Family-work enrichment	0.41	0.14	0.39**		
Managerial support	0.17	0.23	0.25		
Org. work-family culture	0.14	0.23	-0.2		
1 or more children					
Step 1				0.28	0.27
Family-work enrichment	0.43	0.07	0.41***		
Managerial support	0.20	0.05	0.27***		
Step 2				0.28	0.01
Family-work enrichment	0.43	0.08	0.41***		
Managerial support	0.23	0.12	0.31		
Org. work-family culture	-0.03	0.12	-0.04		

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

The analysis was carried out to compare the relationships by dividing the managers into two groups according to the presence or the absence of children. Group 1 includes 56 managers who had no children; group 2 includes 158 managers who had 1 or more dependent children. For every group, in Step 1 the variables family-work enrichment and managerial support were entered to the model and in Step 2, organizational work-family culture was added. Overall, organizational work-family culture added no significance to the explanation of

further variance. In group 1, two predictors namely family-work enrichment and managerial support explained 18% of variance. It was found that family-work enrichment significantly predicts work-family enrichment ($\beta = .42, p < .001$), managerial support did not significantly predict work-family enrichment ($\beta = .07, p = n. s.$). In group 2, the two predictors explained 28% of variance. Family-work enrichment significantly predicted work-family enrichment ($\beta = .41, p < .001$) as did managerial support ($\beta = .27, p < .001$).

In case of both the groups, family to work enrichment significantly predicts work-family enrichment. In case of the managers having dependent children, managerial support along with family to work enrichment predicts work-family enrichment. This implies that managers with dependent children believe that managerial support and family to work enrichment together play some role in work-family enrichment. Tausig & Fenwick (2001) have argued that presence or absence of children influences the work-life balance of individuals. They revealed that individuals with no or less children report higher work-life balance than the married individuals with children. Having higher balance can lead to enriching experiences, as having work-family balance means presence of work-family enrichment (Frone, 2003). Contrary to this finding, in this study the family to work enrichment's prediction of work-family enrichment is almost the same for managers with or without children.

It is expected that managers having dependent children perceive managerial support and family-work enrichment to be important predictors of work-family enrichment. On the issue of time spent on child care and work-family balance, Craig (2006) reported that a lot of time has to be invested in unpaid work especially because of the presence of children. Most of the responsibility of childcare and related work is when the children are very young and it decreases with growth of the children (Craig, 2007a; Ironmonger, 2004). To cope with the challenges managers with dependent children face; they may perceive that managerial support is very useful to manage work and family lives. It means that managers with children utilise managerial support for integrating work and family domains and this enriches their work lives; thus, a positive transfer from work to family can occur improving the quality of their family life. The research on childless employees shows that they have different requirements regarding managerial

support than persons belonging to the traditional family structures including children. It has been suggested that the single employees without children perceive decreased social inclusion, very few work-family benefits suitable to their needs and less respect for personal life (non-work life) as compared to the employees having children (Waumsley, Houston & Marks, 2010). Therefore, managers with dependent children perceive the relevance of managerial support and family-work enrichment in predicting work-family enrichment.

3. iv) Predicting work-family enrichment: Gender differences.

Table 25

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Dimensions Predicting Work-family Enrichment with 'Gender' as a control variable (N = 214)

Step and predictor variable	B	SE B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Female Managers					
Step 1				0.23	0.23
Family-work enrichment	0.49	0.16	0.44**		
Managerial support	0.17	0.12	0.20		
Step 2				0.23	0
Family-work enrichment	0.48	0.16	0.44**		
Managerial support	0.22	0.26	0.26		
Org. work-family culture	0.05	0.25	-0.07		
Male Managers					
Step 1				0.22	0.22
Family-work enrichment	0.41	0.07	0.40***		
Managerial support	0.14	0.05	0.20**		
Step 2				0.22	0
Family-work enrichment	0.40	0.07	0.39***		
Managerial support	0.21	0.11	0.31		
Org. work-family culture	0.08	0.11	-0.11		

** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

The analysis was carried out to compare the relationships based on the gender. Group 1 includes 42 female managers and group 2 includes 172 male managers. For every group in Step 1, the variables family-work enrichment and managerial support were entered to the model and in Step 2 organizational work-family culture was added. Overall, organizational work-family culture added no significance to the explanation of further variance.

In group 1, two predictors namely family-work enrichment and managerial support explained 23% of variance. It was found that family-work enrichment significantly predicts work-family enrichment ($\beta = .44, p < .01$), managerial support did not significantly predict work-family enrichment ($\beta = .20, p = n. s.$). In group 2, the two predictors explained 22% of variance. Family-work enrichment significantly predicted work-family enrichment ($\beta = .40, p < .001$), as did managerial support ($\beta = .20, p < .01$). The female managers in this study experienced higher family to work enrichment (skills, perspectives, knowledge and positive affect gained in their family life helped them to be better workers) than male managers. This has been reported also earlier in the literature. Eagly's (1987) social role theory can be a foundation for better understanding this result. According to this theory, gender differences would emerge because men and women are expected to behave and perform differently by the society. Typical masculine roles endorse instrumentality involving competence along with independence (Vaux, 1988). It means that, may be, for men receiving support from supervisor counters the basic male values. Bem (1974) posits that typical feminine roles endorse expressiveness involving warmth and support. Therefore, it may be considered that men and women perceive their work and family roles differently.

Home responsibilities and family is still a major responsibility for the women and they spend more time shouldering these responsibilities as compared to the men (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Erdwins et al., 2001). Hence, women experience higher enrichment from family to work than men. This can also be the reason, why family-work enrichment predicts work-family enrichment on slightly higher side for women ($\beta = .44$) as compare to men ($\beta = .40$). Furthermore, the probability is higher for women to integrate work and family; which means that a positive transfer from work to family can possibly happen for the women more

often than for then men, as men see work and family as separate domains (Andrews & Bailyn, 1993).

Wayne et al. (2007) proposed that men and women differ in the way they utilize the resources in both the domains to integrate work and family. Therefore, it may happen that the women are more flexible in using the work-family benefits available in the company; which is socially more acceptable for the women to do than it is for the men. It thus implies that for the women managerial support or social support at work would be more salient than for the men. As women are still involved more in the family life because they shoulder higher domestic responsibilities, they may experience work-family conflict more than men (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Managerial support that is allowing flexible timings, convenient working during week (Perkins, 1993) and emotional support from supervisors (Ng & Sorensen, 2008) can thus help women more than men to deal with the work-family conflict situation. Konrad et al. (2000) found out that women strongly prefer social support. Thus, receiving support seems more apparent for women than men. Therefore, it is expected that for female managers, managerial support along with family to work enrichment explained more variance in work-family enrichment than for male managers.

Unexpectedly, the results from the current study are contrary to this finding. In the present study, for female managers managerial support did not significantly predict work-family enrichment; instead this relation was observed for male managers. An explanation could be the fading of gender differences (Baruch-Feldman et al., 2002). This means that the social roles of men and women have overlaps. Men's increased involvement in household responsibilities, child rearing and its relation to work-family conflict has been documented (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). As a result of equality in gender being encouraged; men have become more open to exercise feminine values (Konrad & Harris, 2002). As men are more open to take up typically feminine responsibilities they may be prone to work-family conflict situation too and may perceive social support at work beneficial. This explains why family-work enrichment and managerial support explained 22% variance in work-family enrichment for men, which was not the case for women.

3.1. Hierarchical multiple regression – Germany.

After the hierarchical regression analysis for whole sample was conducted it was decided to analyse the predictions of work-family enrichment only for the German managers. As the results for Germany appeared different from the whole sample for correlation, it was expected that it would be the same with the hierarchical multiple regression. Therefore, in the following section predictions of work-family enrichment according age, marital status and absence or presence of children are presented and discussed. Gender differences cannot be analyzed as the German female sample is quite small.

3.1.i) Predicting work-family enrichment: Variation as per age.

Table 26.

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Dimensions Predicting Work-family Enrichment with 'Age' as a Controlled Variable (N = 130)

Step and predictor variable	B	SE B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
20-35 years					
Step 1				0.31	0.31
Family-work enrichment	0.23	0.14	0.27		
Managerial support	0.35	0.13	0.42*		
Step 2				0.34	0.03
Family-work enrichment	0.21	0.14	0.24		
Managerial support	0.63	0.28	0.76		
Org. work-family culture	0.28	0.25	-0.37		
36-50 years					
Step 1				0.22	0.22
Family-work enrichment	0.46	0.13	0.42***		
Managerial support	0.22	0.09	0.30*		
Step 2				0.23	0.01
Family-work enrichment	0.41	0.13	0.38**		
Managerial support	0.47	0.25	0.64		
Org. work-family culture	0.27	0.25	-0.37		

Table 26 continued.

Step and predictor variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Step 1				0.39	0.39
Family-work enrichment	0.20	0.18	0.19		
Managerial support	0.01	0.10	0.02		
Step 2				0.45	0.06
Family-work enrichment	0.20	0.19	0.20		
Managerial support	0.15	0.33	0.26		
Org. work-family culture	0.14	0.32	-0.26		

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

The analysis was carried out by dividing the managers into three age groups to compare the relationships for the specified age range. Age group 1 includes 32 managers belonging to age range 20-35; age group 2 includes 63 managers belonging to age range 36-50 and age group 3 includes 35 managers belonging to age range 51-65. For every age group in Step 1, the variables family-work enrichment and managerial support were entered to the model and in Step 2 organizational work-family culture was added. Overall, organizational work-family culture added no significance to the explanation of further variance.

In the age group 1, two predictors namely family-work enrichment and managerial support explained 31% of variance. It was found that family-work enrichment did not significantly predict work-family enrichment ($\beta = .27$, $p = n. s.$). Managerial support predicted work-family enrichment significantly ($\beta = .42$, $p < .05$). In the age group 2, two predictors explained 22% of variance in work-family enrichment; which is smaller than that of age group 1. It was found that family-work enrichment significantly predicts work-family enrichment ($\beta = .42$, $p < .001$), as did managerial support ($\beta = .30$, $p < .05$). In the age group 3, two predictors explained 39% of variance; which is the largest as compared to the first two age groups. It was found that both family-work enrichment ($\beta = .19$, $p = n. s.$) and managerial support ($\beta = .02$, $p = n. s.$) do not significantly predict work-family enrichment.

Levinson's life stage theory (1978, 1986) may be applicable to the German sample as well. According to Levinson (1986), during the early adulthood (in this case 20-35) individuals are focusing on building careers and a family, also by the end of this era, occupational growth takes place. The managerial support such as providing work-related information, feedback can be useful for young workers (Ng & Sorensen, 2008); which is perceived as important by the German managers to grow in their careers and also to fulfil their family related demands as they are provided a family-friendly culture in their organization. Thus, managerial support significantly predicts work-family enrichment. There is no significant prediction of work-family enrichment by family-work enrichment. Family to work enrichment normally occurs when family and work both are equally important; additionally, there is a need to integrate these domains in order for enrichment to take place. It may be the case that the German managers in this age group see both the domains separately because family (typically conceived as having a spouse/partner and children by German sample) receives importance at the later age in Germany as compared to India. The average age of marriage in Germany is 33 years for men and 30 years for women (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2011). This age group includes managers, who are well educated as per the demographics of this current study. As a result, there is a tendency for these young German managers to focus primarily on education and career at this life stage of theirs; whereas family life comes at a later age.

In case of age range (36-50), the German managers may be experiencing a feeling of settlement, have reached senior positions in the organization by contributing well to the organizations and the family (Levinson, 1986); therefore the role of managerial support and family to work enrichment in predicting work-family enrichment is perceived less salient as compared to the earlier life stage. During the late-life adult transition (in this case age 51-60), due to retirement nearing, changes in the family roles, stability in career (Levinson, 1986); German managers might not perceive managerial support that important. Due to changes in the family roles there is a decrease in the prediction of work-family enrichment by family work enrichment.

3.1.ii) Prediction of work-family enrichment: Variation as per marital status.

Table 27.

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Dimensions Predicting Work-family Enrichment with 'Marital Status' as a controlled (N= 130)

Step and predictor variable	B	SE B	β	R²	ΔR²
Married					
Step 1				0.13	0.13
Family-work enrichment	0.24	0.11	0.22*		
Managerial support	0.20	0.07	0.29**		
Step 2				0.14	0.01
Family-work enrichment	0.23	0.11	0.20*		
Managerial support	0.40	0.19	0.58*		
Org. work-family culture	0.21	0.18	-0.32		
Living with partner					
Step 1				0.33	0.33
Family-work enrichment	0.43	0.15	0.61**		
Managerial support	0.12	0.16	-0.16		
Step 2				0.36	0.03
Family-work enrichment	0.46	0.15	0.64**		
Managerial support	0.54	0.43	-0.70		
Org. work-family culture	0.44	0.42	0.56		
Single/unmarried					
Step 1				0.57	0.57
Family-work enrichment	0.56	0.15	0.68**		
Managerial support	0.17	0.14	0.22		
Step 2				0.58	0.01
Family-work enrichment	0.51	0.20	0.62*		
Managerial support	0.35	0.44	0.44		
Org. work-family culture	0.18	0.44	-0.23		

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

The analysis was carried out by dividing the managers into three groups to compare the relationships according to their marital status. Group 1 includes 92 married managers; group 2 includes 21 cohabiting managers and group 3 includes 17 managers who were unmarried/single (without dependent children). For every group in Step 1, the variables family-work enrichment and managerial support were entered to the model and in Step 2 organizational work-family culture was added. Overall, organizational work-family culture added no significance to the explanation of further variance.

In group 1, two predictors namely family-work enrichment and managerial support explained 13% of variance. It was found that family-work enrichment significantly predicts work-family enrichment ($\beta = .22, p < .05$), as did managerial support ($\beta = .29, p < .01$). In group 2, the two predictors explained 33% of variance. Family-work enrichment significantly predicted work-family enrichment ($\beta = .61, p < .01$) and managerial support did not significantly predict work-family enrichment ($\beta = -.16, p = n. s.$). In group 3, the two predictors explained 57% of variance. Only family-work enrichment significantly predicted work-family enrichment ($\beta = .68, p < .01$). The married managers seemed to perceive managerial support and family-work enrichment as predictors of work-family enrichment. For a married manager, managing family roles and work roles is essential. The way household responsibilities are shouldered by married couples are different from the single/unmarried individuals. These responsibilities involve housework, childcare, emotion work and voluntary participation as conceptualized by Pedersen et al. (2011). If managerial support is received by managers it eases the process of performing the work roles and family roles. Therefore, managerial support is predicting work-family enrichment for only married German managers.

It was very interesting to see that for cohabiting German managers the prediction of work-family enrichment by family-work enrichment is considerably higher than that of the married German managers. It is the highest for single/unmarried German managers. The single German managers belonged to varied age groups from 25 to 61 years. When such single managers refer to their family, they mean a different type of family as compared to married managers' concept of family. For the married/partnered German managers a family is understood as having a spouse/partner with/without children. But for the single

German managers the idea of family may include parents and siblings. As explained in the paragraph above, the household responsibilities are different for singles than married/partnered individuals; additionally unmarried/single managers may not be as involved in the daily household chores as the married/partnered managers are. Absence of children is also seen as a reason for higher work-life balance (Tausig & Fenwick, 2001). Having higher balance can lead to enriching experiences as having work-family balance means presence of work-family enrichment (Frone, 2003). Thus, family-work enrichment predicts work-family enrichment on the highest level for single/unmarried managers in Germany.

It seems that in Germany cohabitation is quite popular. This type of relationship is seen increasing speedily in all the western countries (Kiernan, 2002; Cherlin, 2004). The percentage of German individuals being married and having children is decreasing (Ostner, 2001). The German Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth also reports the fact that the number of marriages in Germany is decreasing and non-married partnerships is steeply increasing (Engstler & Menning, 2004). It has been reported that the married couples and the cohabitants differ mainly in the way the housework is divided. Davis et al. (2007) argue that men are more involved in housework in cohabitation as compared to the married couples. It is evident that cohabitants are more liberal and function as per the needs of each other (Brines and Joyner, 1999), endorse more independence in their relation and also place more importance on the quality of relation (Wiersma, 1983). This can be linked with, for instance, the family support women receive to balance family and work. The cohabiting male and female managers can focus better on work lives as the housework is shared equally (also called as family to work efficiency by Carlson et al., 2006). Inferentially, family to work enrichment may be higher for the cohabiting German managers in comparison with the married German managers.

3.1.iii) Prediction of work-family enrichment: Variation as per children.

Table 28.

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Dimensions Predicting Work-family Enrichment with 'Children' as a Controlled Variable (N = 130)

Step and predictor variable	B	SE B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
No children					
Step 1				0.19	0.19
Family-work enrichment	0.45	0.16	0.43*		
Managerial support	0.01	0.13	0.01		
Step 2				0.21	0.02
Family-work enrichment	0.36	0.19	0.35		
Managerial support	0.41	0.45	0.49		
Org. work-family culture	0.38	0.41	-0.49		
1 or more children					
Step 1				0.17	0.17
Family-work enrichment	0.29	0.09	0.29**		
Managerial support	0.20	0.07	0.30**		
Step 2				0.19	0.02
Family-work enrichment	0.27	0.09	0.28**		
Managerial support	0.42	0.17	0.62*		
Org. work-family culture	-0.22	0.16	0.26		

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

The analysis was carried out to compare the relationships by dividing the managers into two groups according to presence or absence of children. Group 1 includes 37 managers who had no children; group 2 includes 93 managers who had 1 or more dependent children. For every group in Step 1, the variable family-work enrichment and managerial support were entered to the model and in Step 2 organizational work-family culture was added. In group 1, two predictors namely

family-work enrichment and managerial support explained 19% of variance. It was found that family-work enrichment significantly predicted work-family enrichment ($\beta = .43$, $p < .05$), managerial support did not significantly predict work-family enrichment ($\beta = .01$, $p = n. s.$).

In group 2, the two predictors explained 17% of variance. Family-work enrichment significantly predicted work-family enrichment ($\beta = .29$, $p < .01$), as did managerial support ($\beta = .30$, $p < .01$). Tausig & Fenwick (2001) revealed that individuals with no or less children report higher work-life balance than married individuals with children. Having a higher work-life balance can lead to enriching experiences as having work-family balance means presence of work-family enrichment (Frone, 2003). In case of German managers, it holds true that the absence of children could be a reason for higher family to work enrichment as a result of higher work-family balance as compared to the presence of children. This is the base for the prediction of work-family enrichment by family-work enrichment.

Most of the responsibility of childcare and related work is the highest when the children are very young and decreases with growth of the children (Craig, 2007a; Ironmonger, 2004). To cope with the challenges German managers with dependent children face, they may perceive that managerial support from the organization is very useful to integrate work and family. It means that German managers with children utilise managerial support for managing work and family lives; which enriches their work lives more often than childless German managers. Thus, a positive transfer from work-to family can occur improving the quality of their family life.

3.2. Hierarchical multiple regression – India.

3.2.i) Prediction of work-family enrichment: Variation as per age.

The analysis was carried out by dividing the Indian managers into three age groups to compare the relationships for the specified age range. Age group 1 includes 30 managers belonging to age range 20-35; age group 2 includes 46 managers belonging to age range 36-50 and age group 3 includes 8 managers belonging to age range 51-65.

Table 29.

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Dimensions Predicting Work-family Enrichment with 'Age' as a Controlled Variable (N = 84)

Step and predictor variable	B	SE B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
20-35 years					
Step 1				0.56	0.56
Family-work enrichment	0.79	0.15	0.72***		
Managerial support	0.06	0.10	0.08		
Step 2				0.56	0
Family-work enrichment	0.78	0.16	0.71***		
Managerial support	0.09	0.20	0.11		
Org. work-family culture	-0.35	0.20	-0.44		
36-50 years					
Step 1				0.24	0.24
Family-work enrichment	0.50	0.16	0.41**		
Managerial support	0.15	0.09	0.22		
Step 2				0.27	0.03
Family-work enrichment	0.52	0.16	0.43**		
Managerial support	-0.03	0.17	-0.04		
Org. work-family culture	0.25	0.20	0.31		

Table 29 continued

51-65 years					
Step 1				0.77	0.77
Family-work enrichment	0.72	0.18	0.87**		
Managerial support	0.06	0.22	0.06	0.78	0.01
Step 2					
Family-work enrichment	0.78	0.23	0.94*		
Managerial support	-0.22	0.64	-0.22		
Org. work-family culture	0.28	0.60	0.31		

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

For every age group in Step 1, the variables family-work enrichment and managerial support were entered to the model and in Step 2 organizational work-family culture was added. Overall, organizational work-family culture and managerial support added no significance to the explanation of further variance. It is extremely surprising that in India managerial support did not play any role along with family-work enrichment in predicting work-family enrichment.

Srivastava et al. (2009) have studied work-family facilitation in the Indian context and have reported that support received at workplace influences family life positively and leads to enhanced performance in family life. This is consistent with the findings from current study as a positive significant correlation is reported (see Table 16). When managerial support is added into the regression model along with family-work enrichment, then managerial support does not significantly predict work-family enrichment. One plausible explanation is that, in the Indian context dependence on the non-institutional support is higher than the institutional support because there are laws addressing the work conditions, but addressing the issue of work-family are not many (Rajadhyaksha, 2012). Support is viewed reliable from sources such as the family members, the in-laws or some domestic help (Rajadhyaksha, 2004). Therefore, managerial support may not have significantly predicted work-family enrichment along with family-work enrichment.

In the age group 1, two predictors namely family-work enrichment and managerial support explained 56% of variance. It was found that family-work enrichment significantly predicted work-family enrichment ($\beta = .72, p < .001$). In the age group 2, two predictors explained 24% of variance in work-family enrichment; which is smaller than that of age group 1. It was found that family-work enrichment significantly predicts work-family enrichment ($\beta = .41, p < .01$). In the age group 3, two predictors explained 77% of variance; which is the largest as compared to the first two age groups. It was found that family-work enrichment ($\beta = .87, p < .01$) significantly predicted work-family enrichment. Levinson's life stage theory (1978, 1986) can be useful to understand this relation; which says that during the early adulthood (in this case 20-35) young Indian managers may be focusing on building career and a family. It is likely, that enriching transfer from family to work can also be higher as creating a family is a major preoccupation at this age and the influence of family environment on the individual and in turn its positive transfer to work life is highly probable in the Indian context. In case of the age range (36-50), Indian managers may be experiencing a feeling of settlement, have advanced to senior positions by contributing well to the organizations and the family (Levinson, 1986); therefore, the role of family to work enrichment in predicting work-family enrichment has reduced as compared to the earlier life stage.

During the late-life adult transition (in this case age 51-60), due to retirement nearing, changes in the family roles, stability in career (Levinson, 1986); family roles have increased salience in this age range for the Indian managers, family to work enrichment might be the highest as compared to earlier life stages for Indian managers. The family plays quite an important role in the Indian context. The explanation for the increased prediction of work-family enrichment by family-work enrichment for the eldest Indian managers can be sought in the traditional Indian value system; which expects individuals to keep their family and children first and the "self" comes later (Rajadhyaksha & Bhatnagar, 2000). So even if there are changes in the family roles at this age, in the Indian context the family still remains central to the lives of Indian managers.

3.2. ii) Prediction of work-family enrichment: Variation as per marital status.

Table 30.

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Dimensions Predicting Work-family Enrichment with 'Marital Status' as a Controlled Variable (N= 84)

Step and predictor variable	B	SE B	β	R^2	ΔR^2
Married					
Step 1				0.42	0.42
Family-work enrichment	0.64	0.10	0.59***		
Managerial support	0.13	0.07	0.18		
Step 2				0.42	0
Family-work enrichment	0.64	0.10	0.59***		
Managerial support	0.12	0.12	0.16		
Org. work-family culture	0.02	0.14	0.02		
Single/unmarried					
Step 1				0.01	0.01
Family-work enrichment	0.05	0.51	0.04		
Managerial support	0.08	0.29	0.10		
Step 2				0.15	0.14
Family-work enrichment	0.37	0.60	0.28		
Managerial support	-0.37	0.54	-0.50		
Org. work-family culture	0.60	0.62	0.71		

*** $p < .001$.

The analysis was carried out by dividing the managers into two groups to compare the relationships according to their marital status. Please note that no cohabiting Indian managers participated in the current study. Group 1 includes 74 managers who were married; group 2 includes 10 managers who were unmarried/single. For every group in Step 1, the variables family-work enrichment and managerial support were entered to the model and in Step 2 organizational

work-family culture was added. Overall, organizational work-family culture and managerial support added no significance to the explanation of further variance.

In group 1, two predictors namely family-work enrichment and managerial support explained 42% of variance. It was found that family-work enrichment significantly predicts work-family enrichment ($\beta = .59, p < .001$). In group 2, the two predictors explained only 1% of variance although non-significantly. To understand influence of marital status on the prediction of work-family enrichment by family-work enrichment; it is necessary to understand the importance of family and marriage in the Indian context. Marriage in the Indian context is conceived as a permanent and stable institution. This alliance is believed to be insoluble (Bhatnagar & Rajadhyaksha, 2001). The traditional Hindu marriage is considered as a social agreement to start a family. Marriage is not just the union of two individuals but the union of two families (Chekki, 1996). Children play a very important role in the Indian marriage and very often the parental role is given precedence over the marital role (Bhatnagar & Rajadhyaksha, 2001). Srivastava et al. (2009) also pointed out that family support was mentioned as the most important factor that influenced work lives and enhanced the performance of Indian employees' at workplace. Thus, family plays quite an important role in the Indian context. It implies that family to work enrichment will be higher for married managers as compared to single managers. This is also the reason why the prediction of work-family enrichment by family enrichment is more vital for the married managers.

3.2. iii) Prediction of work-family enrichment: Variation as per children.

Table 31.

Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Dimensions Predicting Work-family Enrichment with 'Children' as a Controlled Variable (N = 84)

Step and predictor variable	B	SE B	β	R ²	ΔR^2
No children					
Step 1				0.35	0.35
Family-work enrichment	0.63	0.21	0.59**		
Managerial support	-0.06	0.17	-0.01		
Step 2				0.39	0.04
Family-work enrichment	0.75	0.25	0.71**		
Managerial support	-0.25	0.31	-0.31		
Org. work-family culture	0.29	0.30	0.36		
1 or 2 children					
Step 1				0.37	0.37
Family-work enrichment	0.61	0.12	0.53***		
Managerial support	0.14	0.08	0.19		
Step 2				0.37	0
Family-work enrichment	0.62	0.12	0.54***		
Managerial support	0.13	0.08	0.17		
Org. work-family culture	0.04	0.07	0.06		

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

The analysis was carried out to compare the relationships by dividing the managers into two groups according to how many children they have. Group 1 includes 19 managers who had no children; group 2 includes 65 managers who had 1 or 2 dependent children. For every group in Step 1, the variables family-work enrichment and managerial support were entered to the model and in Step 2

organizational work-family culture was added. Overall, work-family culture and managerial support added no significance to the explanation of further variance.

In group 1, two predictors namely family-work enrichment and managerial support explained 35% of variance. It was found that family-work enrichment significantly predicts work-family enrichment ($\beta = .59, p < .01$), managerial support did not significantly predict work-family enrichment ($\beta = -.01, p = n. s.$). In group 2, the two predictors explained 37% of variance. Family-work enrichment significantly predicted work-family enrichment ($\beta = .53, p < .001$), managerial support did not significantly predict work-family enrichment ($\beta = .19, p = n. s.$). The results regarding family-work enrichment predicting work-family enrichment are quite similar to that of the German sample. Tausig & Fenwick (2001) revealed that individuals with no or less children report higher work-life balance than married individuals with children. Having higher balance can lead to enriching experiences as having work-family balance means presence of work-family enrichment (Frone, 2003). In case of the Indian managers it holds true that the absence of children could be a reason for higher family to work enrichment; as a result of higher work-family balance as compared to the presence of children. This is the base for the prediction of work-family enrichment by family-work enrichment.

It is unexpected to see that Indian managers did not perceive the importance of managerial support and family-work enrichment in predicting work-family enrichment. To cope with the challenges Indian managers with dependent children have to face, it is expected that they perceive managerial support from the organization to be very useful to manage work and family. But the analysis does not fulfil this expectation. When managerial support is added into the regression model along with family-work enrichment, then support does not significantly predict work-family enrichment. One plausible explanation is that in the Indian context dependence on non-institutional support is higher than institutional support because there are laws addressing the work conditions but addressing the issue of work-family are not many (Rajadhyaksha, 2012). Support is viewed reliable from sources such as family members, in-laws or domestic help (Rajadhyaksha, 2004). Therefore, managerial support may not have significantly predicted work-family enrichment along with family-work enrichment.

Summary

The aim of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was to understand the relationship between family-work enrichment, organizational work-family culture (managerial support) and work-family enrichment. H3a was further supported partially by this analysis as a positive association between managerial support and work-family enrichment is confirmed. The analysis was conducted at three levels: the whole sample, the German sample and the Indian sample by controlling demographic variables such as age, marital status, presence or absence of children and gender. In case of whole sample, family-work enrichment and managerial support seem to significantly predict work-family enrichment for age groups 20-35 years and 36-50 years; for married managers; for managers with dependent children and moreover for male managers.

In case of the German managers, family-work enrichment and managerial support significantly predict work-family enrichment for age group 36-50; for married managers; and for managers with dependent children. A gender controlled analysis was not possible for Germany as the number of female managers was comparatively small for the statistical analysis. In case of the Indian managers, surprisingly, managerial support along with family-work enrichment did not significantly predict work-family enrichment for all the three variables that is age, marital status and presence of children. A gender controlled analysis was not possible for India as well because the number of female managers was comparatively small for the statistical analysis.

4. Hierarchical Moderated regression

To find out if gender moderated the relationship between work-family enrichment and family-work enrichment, managerial support, work-family culture (H7a), a hierarchical moderated regression analysis was carried out. Furthermore, the gender moderation effect was also analysed for the relationship between career advancement and career satisfaction (H7b). Females were coded as 0 and males as 1. The issue of multicollinearity was addressed by standardizing

variables and gender before regressing them on dependent variable that is work-family enrichment. In step 1 of hierarchical moderation analysis, standardized gender and dependent variable was entered and in step 2, additionally standardized moderator was added along with dependent variable and gender.

Contrary to the expectation, the analysis revealed that there was no significant moderation effect for any of the relationships. In case of interaction of gender with family work enrichment ($\beta = -.04$, $p = n. s.$); interaction of gender with managerial support ($\beta = .02$, $p = n. s.$); interaction of gender with work-family culture ($\beta = .01$, $p = n. s.$) and interaction of gender with career satisfaction ($\beta = .09$, $p = n. s.$). No significant moderation effect of gender implies that the association of work-family enrichment, family work enrichment, managerial support, and work-family culture is not influenced by male and female managers. Same is the case with the association between career advancement and career satisfaction. One plausible explanation can be the modern gender roles. It may be the case that the social gender roles may have less influence on male and female managers' perceptions of work-family/family-work enrichment and organizational work-family culture. There has been research on fading of gender differences (Baruch-Feldman et al., 2002). This means that the social roles of men and women have overlaps. Men's increased involvement in household responsibilities and child rearing and its relation to work-family conflict has been documented (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). As a result to equality in gender being encouraged; men have become more open to exercise feminine values (Konrad & Harris, 2002). As men are more open to take up typically feminine responsibilities they may be prone to conflict situation too and similar to women; men may perceive supportive work-family culture beneficial.

The association between career advancement and career satisfaction was observed only in Germany. A German study (Abele & Spurk, 2009) on the interrelation between subjective and objective success confirms a positive association between the two types of success. No significant moderation by gender may imply that German male and female managers perceive the positive relation between career advancement and career satisfaction similarly. As the German study above mentioned, pointed out that it may be the case that

subjective success that is satisfaction may affect positively objective success that is advancement and this process may be similar for German males and females.

In general, looking at the non-significant moderator effects, it is recommended that moderation analysis should be performed again by changing the psychological instruments measuring enrichment and career success dimensions. Statistically, it is recommended that, when the moderation effect is too weak or in this case non-significant; it is essential to try the analysis on a larger sample size. Notably, only 20% of the sample was female managers.

Summary

Moderation analysis for gender did not yield significant results showing that gender did not affect the relationships in H7a and H7b thus providing no support for both the hypotheses.

Summary of the Chapter

The section of results and discussion of quantitative method presented both significant and non-significant findings. The relevant hypotheses were presented and empirical contributions from other studies were used to justify the hypotheses that were either supported or not supported. The results were discussed using studies that were conducted using German or Indian sample. Sometimes studies that were conducted in other cultures were also helpful in explaining the results as such studies had findings that were in the same direction as the current study another reason for doing so was that some topics were not studied yet in German or Indian culture.

CHAPTER 5

5. Results & Discussion

5b. Results & Discussion - Qualitative Method

The interviews with the Indian and German female and male managers led to five broad categories namely: work-family enrichment; family-work enrichment; work-life balance; organizational work-family culture; family related aspects and career success. Except two codes, all the other codes derived their names from the psychological tests that were used in the quantitative analysis. Using same names for the codes helped to understand the relationships between the dimensions better and was further helpful to interpret the qualitative and quantitative results together. The two codes 'family dynamics' and 'self development' were named by the researcher herself.

The analysis resulted in eight main codes: work to family enrichment, family to work enrichment, work-life balance, organizational interventions for work-life balance, organizational work-family culture, family dynamics, career success and self development. A total of fifty two sub-codes emerged out of the vast data. Out of these fifty two codes, thirty nine codes are included in Table 32 and the remaining thirteen are included in SECTION II Table 33. Each and every main code and sub-code were defined during the process of extraction of relevant statements expressed by the interviewees. Using operational definitions from the theories, some of the main codes and sub-codes were defined; while the other main codes and sub-codes were defined based upon their role and relevance to the research questions in focus. The first six main codes and their sub-codes are explained in SECTION I as they are most relevant to the research in question. The remaining two main codes 'career success' and 'self development' are explained in SECTION II as they are not directly relevant to the research questions, but still are supportive to the analysis, nevertheless they are considered as secondary results. SECTION III includes some general observations that cannot be ignored; yet do not completely address the research question related to gender differences.

5.1. Structure of results and discussion

In the results and discussion section, at first, main codes/sub-codes; which are most relevant to the research questions formulated are presented and discussed in detail. Wherever relevant the frequency of main codes/sub-codes that shows a meaningful difference or similarity between Germany and India are included for the interpretation. Results from the current study are discussed with the support of other studies from the literature. Studies from cultures other than India and Germany are thought to be supportive for these results as the results reported by such studies are in the same direction; if not exactly applicable to this two-country study. Another reason for including studies from other cultures is that there are very few studies (only one study Beham et al., 2011) on work-family enrichment in Germany and only a few studies on the same topic in India. As there is not enough literature nested in the German and the Indian culture that suits exactly the aims of this two-country research, it was decided to consider the evidence of the relationships from other cultures too. Thus, in spite of the studies referring to different cultures as compared to the cultures in question, it would be worth including these studies and transferring their results to the current study.

The structure of the results and discussion section is outlined below:

- 1) Main code with definitions and number of statements that belong to the main/sub- code are also included.
- 2) Goals of the codes/sub-codes.
- 3) Description of every sub-code that contributes to the main code and followed by example statements from participants that support the sub-code.
- 4) Research questions that are addressed by the codes/sub-codes. Explanation whether the research questions have been answered.
- 5) Discussion of results using relevant literature.
- 6) Summary of the results for the specific code/sub-code along with a clarification if the goals have been met.

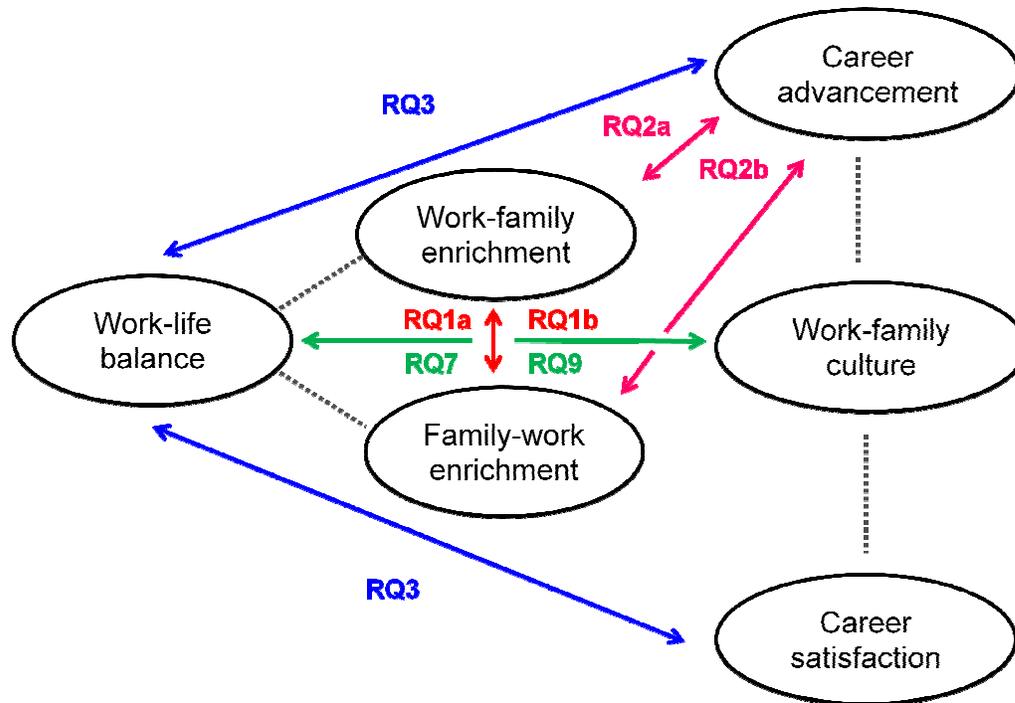


Figure 9. Overview of the Proposed Research Questions.

Table 32 shows the main codes and the sub-codes that cluster under the main code along with the total number of statements allocated to each sub-code. The first five most relevant main codes are thoroughly presented and discussed in the following SECTION I.

Table 32.

Most relevant codes and sub-codes for 12 German and 12 Indian Managers.

Main code	Sub-code	Statements
1.1 Work-family enrichment	Positive impact work-family	20
	Negative impact work-family	23
	Work-family enrichment	27
	Work-family affect	14
	Work-family development	31
	Work-family capital	4
	WFE helps career advancement	14

Table 32 continued.

Main code	Sub-code	Statements
1.2 Family-work enrichment	Positive impact family-work	20
	Negative impact family-work	13
	Family-work enrichment	22
	Family-work affect	14
	Family-work development	14
	Family-work efficiency	17
	FWE helps career advancement	10
2. Work-life balance	Work-life balance	63
	WLB Germany	8
	WLB India	23
	Benefits of WLB	32
	Signs of work-life imbalance	54
	WLB important for career advancement	41
	WLB strategies	51
	Obstacles/barriers-WLB	52
3. Family dynamics	Structure of family	29
	Role of family in WLB	45
	Family activities-quality time	43
	Household responsibilities	40
	Child needs	11
	Family communication	55
	Family cohesion	60
	Family conflict (work)	35
4. Organizational interventions for WLB	Initiatives by organization	91
	Interventions helping career advancement	12
	Improvements for WLB at work	51
	Coaching/training	30
5. Organizational work-family culture	Flexibility	25
	Positive attitudes organization	12
	Mentoring	11
	Supervisor/managerial support	26
	Organizational time demand	16

SECTION I

1. Enrichment and Career Advancement

1.1. Work-family Enrichment: This main code is defined as “the extent to which experiences in one role (work) improve the quality of life in the other role (family)” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006 p. 73). The data analysis resulted in a total of 133 statements for Work-family enrichment. Each sub-code included in Figure 10 is explained in the following section.

Goals: To find out if the German (N = 12) and the Indian managers (N = 12) experienced work to family enrichment. The goal was also to find out if a positive association between enrichment and career advancement can be established.

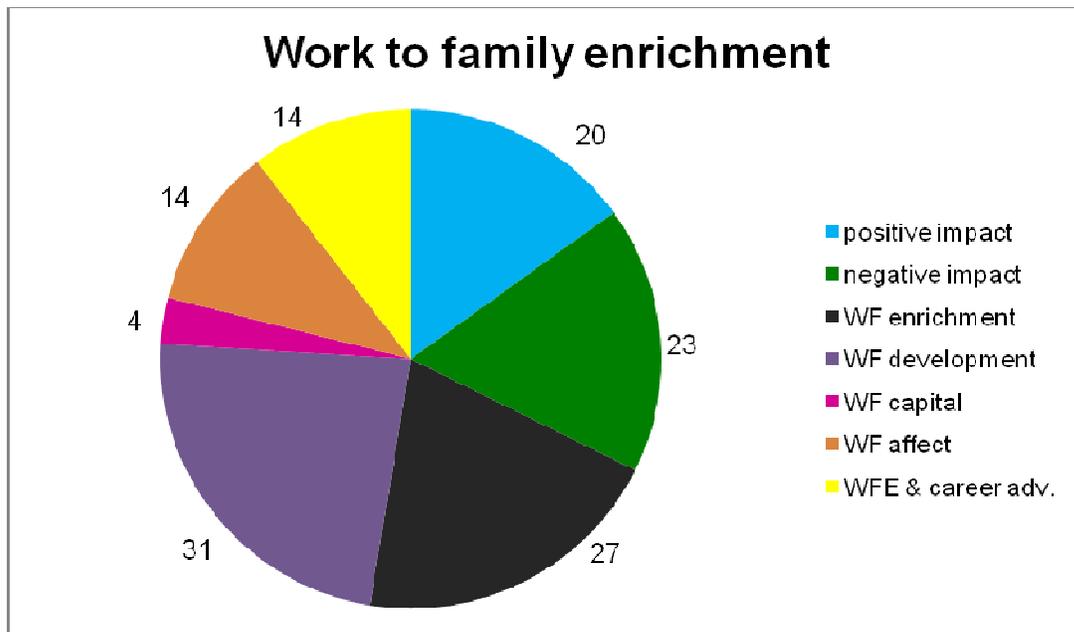


Figure 10. Sub-codes for work to family enrichment and the allocated statements.

i) Positive impact: The sub-code positive impact of work life on family life had a total of 20 statements out of which 4 statements were mentioned by the German managers and 16 statements were mentioned by the Indian managers. Both German and Indian managers mentioned similar positive impact through work

experiences and monetary benefits gained at work that influence their family lives. The following are some example statements revealing the positive impact:

“My work and my family, they are not distant apart. They are two sides of the same coin and they are mixed. Actually my work and my family is such a wonderful blend. So it is difficult to not have an impact.”

(Female, Interview 4, India, Statement 50)

“An important impact is money and it also helps for the wealth of the family.”

(Male, Interview 1, Germany, Statement 74)

ii) Negative impact: The sub-code negative impact of work life on family life was actually not a direct question. This impact is not considered for further analysis, but it is important to mention the details as work-life balance is incomplete without the negative effects. The managers mentioned about negative impact while explaining the overall impact of work on family. Some examples of negative impact are as follows:

“I think the most important thing is that, if I would be forced to fulfil a certain task which I did not like to do, my family would suffer because I would not be relaxed in my free-time, I would always think how bad my work is and how bad my company is.”

(Female, Interview 8, Germany, Statement 28)

“Sometimes I have been doing reports in my dreams and my wife starts asking what are you talking about, the next thing I know is I woke up and I really don't know what I was talking about.”

(Male, Interview 2, India, Statement 70)

iii) Work-family enrichment: The sub-code work-family enrichment is conceived as involvement in work domain improves the performance in family domain (Carlson et al. 2006). It includes statements confirming managers' enriching experiences from work to family and consists of concrete examples from the managers. This code has a total of 27 statements. While narrating their

enrichment experiences managers mentioned statements that could be coded into three sub-codes that are defined by Carlson et al. (2006); while constructing the enrichment scale as work to family development, work to family capital and work to family affect. Some example statements are:

“Success at work gives me self-confidence, makes me calmer, gives me stability and that translates into my relationships at home with family and the interaction with others is more enjoyable.”

(Male, Interview 11, Germany, Statement 46)

“Not everything, but a little bit of it gets passed on to the family life, which is a positive thing: time management, discipline, being confident in facing new challenges.”

(Female, Interview 3, India, Statement 38)

“Because of work I am a better planner maybe! So just that no meals are skipped, nothing else at home gets affected or nothing suffers I would say. The planning that I do at work I think that helps me to manage stuff at home.”

(Female, Interview 7, India, Statement 52)

“You know my wife is also a manager. Sometimes we share topics or presentations and if sometimes we are lost we guide each other. In this way my knowledge, skills at work are useful at home especially for my wife.”

(Male, Interview 12, Germany, Statement 84)

Work-family development: It is conceived as different viewpoints, skills and knowledge gained at work help managers to be a better family member (Carlson et al. 2006). A total of 31 statements show enrichment in this aspect. Both the groups of managers experienced enrichment related to development. Indian managers mentioned about this aspect more often than German managers. Some example statements:

“I am very privileged that whatever I work, I can share it with my husband. My husband is also involved in similar work and we discuss all the upcoming

issues at home. It helps a lot. For my son, I did not have to take any efforts in upbringing. He learns from such discussions.”

(Female, Interview 5, India, Statement 62)

“Through work perhaps I have learnt to be more relaxed with other people’s weaknesses. I have learnt to be more patient. I have learnt to deal with other people’s opinions, behaviour. I think this helps me to understand perhaps the conflicts and differences in family better and also to cope with it.”

(Female, Interview 8, Germany, Statement 30)

Work to family capital: It is conceived as personal fulfilment, a sense of accomplishment, sense of success experienced at work; which makes managers a better family member (Carlson et al., 2006). A of total 4 statements were mentioned only by Indian managers. Some example statements are:

“Yes, I learnt time management because of work. That is why when I worked in my earlier company, I started working in limited time and doing quality work too. As well as managing the projects within the time given and later in the evening managing all household responsibilities. I felt I had achieved something.”

(Female, Interview 8, India, Statement 75)

“I think improvements at work regarding communication are very important as it also helps in communicating with family and this experience now helps me when working with a team. I just feel a sense of success at home and in my family.”

(Male, Interview 2, India, Statement 80)

Work to family affect: It is conceived as overall mood, feeling of happiness and being cheerful at work that helps managers to be a better family member (Carlson et al., 2006). A total of 14 statements were mentioned and the German managers mentioned this aspect more than the Indian managers. Some example statements are:

“When I am happy with job, then I am also happy at home.”

(Female, Interview 6, Germany, Statement 32)

“If your job coincides with your inner aspirations, your abilities, inclinations you enjoy the job. It makes you happy and that makes your company happy too. When you return home happily, your children are also happy.”

(Male, Interview 9, India, Statement 32)

In the present study work to family enrichment was experienced by German as well as Indian managers. Managers experienced aspects in the work domain helping them be a better family member providing sufficient data through various statements included in this section to answer the research question RQ1a (How does the role performance in work domain enhance the role performance in non-work domain?). Moreover, managers in their experiences mentioned statements that can be divided into three types of enrichment: development, capital and affect as stated by Carlson et al. (2006).

Discussion

Work-family enrichment theory (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) and role accumulation theory (Sieber, 1974) can be useful in understanding the enriching experiences from work to family of the German and the Indian managers. Marks (1977) and Sieber (1974) proposed that the advantages of engaging in multiple roles are likely to prevail over the disadvantages called as an expansionist hypothesis (Barnett & Baruch, 1985). Many researchers believe in a more reasonable perspective that recognizes the positive effects of uniting work and family roles (Barnett, 1998; Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). Another worthy work in this area has been done by Grzywacz (2002) where he postulated the theory of the positive interdependencies between work and family roles.

A deeper analysis of the interview data led to observations that the Indian managers experienced enrichment from work to family development (skills, knowledge, perspectives gained at work improve quality of life in family) more than German managers. Furthermore, work-family capital (a sense of accomplishment,

success, fulfilment at work improves the quality of life in family) was mentioned only by Indian managers. Additionally, work to family affect (mood, feeling of happiness at work improves quality of life in family) was mentioned more often by German managers. To support these results another study in the Indian context on work-family facilitation shows similar results. Srivastava et al. (2009) in their study of 50 IT and Banking sector employees found out that behaviour, skills, time management, self confidence, positive emotions at workplace positively influence home life of the employees.

The results of the current study coincide with an American study of Carlson et al. (2006) who also examined the work to family enrichment phenomenon while developing and validating the work-family enrichment scale along with Barnett et al. (1992) in their study on positive spillover; where they concluded that work related resource gains can enhance family related functioning. Greenhaus & Parasuraman (1999) in their study explained how positive moods that generate from work enhance performance in family. An Australian study done on 420 Australian private and public sector employees also supports this view that work and family can improve outcomes for each other (Haar & Bardoel, 2008).

Thus, the data analysis implies that both German and Indian managers could use their skills, knowledge, positive feelings that they gained at work in their family and this resulted in improved quality of family life. In other words, the managers' role at work helped them to do a better role as family members.

iv) Work-family enrichment = career advancement: This sub-code included statements that refer to how the work to family enrichment experience was helpful to advance in career. A total of 14 statements were mentioned and show that managers from both the countries experienced work to family enrichment being helpful in their career advancement. Some example statements:

“For me experiences at work teach a lot. You cannot change a person. You have to find a way out to deal with the person. You learn to do that as professionals and it is similar at home. And I think this way of thinking definitely helps to advance in career as well.”

(Female, Interview 8, Germany, Statement 34)

“When I study people, societies and different kinds of company cultures as a marketing person, I get more benefitted on analyzing the customer. When work to family transfer happens I get opinions about me from the family to better myself in knowing the customer needs. And when I want to sell my product to customers, I know their needs and how I can satisfy them. Then this opportunity turns into a deal. It leads to some advancement.”

(Male, Interview 10, India, Statement 59)

The above statements clearly state that positive experiences from work to family can in turn benefit career related growth thus providing answer for RQ2a (How is the relationship between work-family enrichment and career advancement?) for both German and Indian managers.

Discussion

The instrumental path of work-family enrichment theory (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) (see Theory section 3.1.1.) may be very useful in understanding the relationship between work-family enrichment and career advancement. When this path is followed a direct positive transfer of resources from work to family takes place leading to enhanced performance. The instrumental path is one of the ways in which the resource generated in role A triggers the acquisition of the resource in role B leading to higher performance. In the case of the relationship between work-family enrichment and career advancement, the enriching experiences from work to family in the form of skills, perspectives, sense of success at work and positive affect at work help German and Indian managers to directly transfer these positive experiences to their family life with results in improved quality of family life. Such a direct positive transfer and improvement in family life is perceived to be beneficial to career related growth or career advancement of managers.

To support the findings from the current two-country study, research conducted by Lyness & Judiesch (2008) on 9,627 managers across 33 countries is suitable, as it also suggests that there is a positive association between work-life balance and career advancement potential. They found out that managers who are rated higher on balancing their work and life, have higher ratings for a potential advancement in career. The aim of the current research was to find out if there is

a positive relation between work-family enrichment and career advancement. German and Indian managers did see a positive connection between the two aspects. Due to lack of empirical findings to support the results of the current two-country study; the statements mentioned by respective managers are the sole evidence. Another study by Allen et al. (2000) focused on work-family enrichment and work related outcomes such as job satisfaction, affective commitment to the organization, turn-over intentions but no specific study was found in the accessed literature database to address the relationship of work-family enrichment and career advancement defined as promotions with higher level in hierarchy or higher responsibilities by Hall (2002). Hence, the result from this cross-cultural study is quite a notable result as it succeeded in establishing a positive relationship between career advancement and work-family enrichment.

1.2. Family-work Enrichment: This main code is defined as “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role”. (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p.73). The data analysis resulted in a total of 110 statements for family-work enrichment. Each code included in Figure 11 will be explained in the following section.

Goals: To find out if the German (N = 12) and the Indian managers (N = 12) in the current study experienced family to work enrichment. It was also the goal to find out if a positive association between enrichment and career advancement can be established.

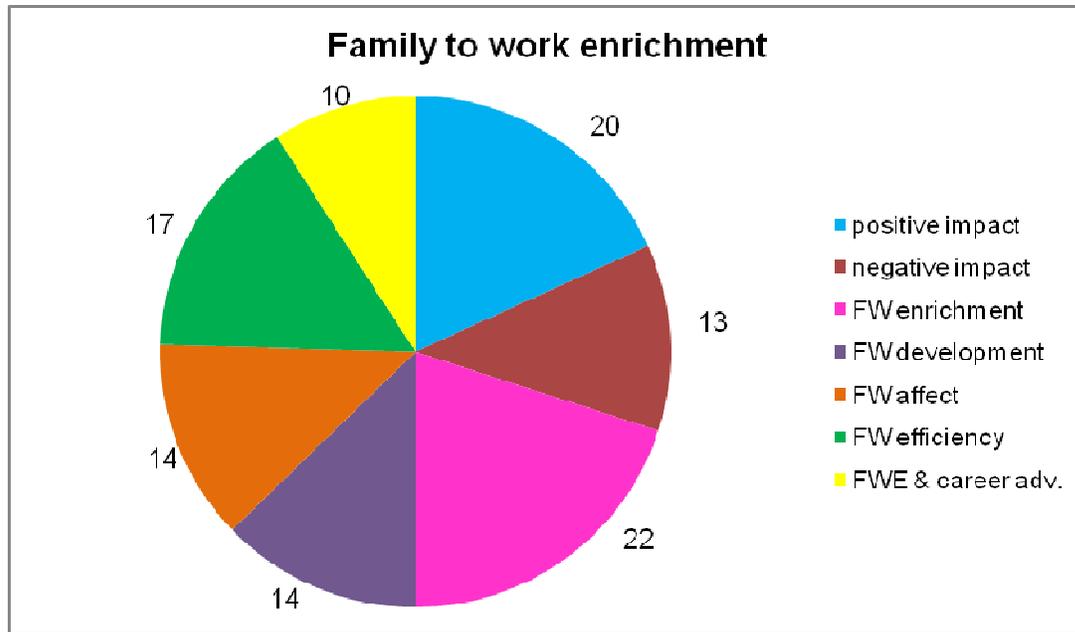


Figure 11. Sub-codes for family to work enrichment and the allocated statements.

i) Positive impact: This sub-code had a total of 20 statements out of which 17 were mentioned by Indian managers and only 4 were mentioned by German managers. The German managers mainly see family or spouse support as having an impact on their work. The Indian managers have mentioned a variety of impactful factors from the family side. Some examples are:

"I have a lot of support from my husband to push me to go forward."

(Female, Interview 9, Germany, Statement 46)

"The independence given to me by my family is very important as it lets me move forward in career."

(Female, Interview 7, India, Statement 58)

"My family does have an impact on my work - right from the beginning, the values that I have; which I use in my work; I attribute them to my family."

(Female, Interview 5, India, Statement 72)

“If I say I am having a good work attitude, a lot of sincerity, my commitment to my work, all this I have imbibed from my parents.”

(Male, Interview 1, India, Statement 80)

ii) Negative impact: The sub-code negative impact of family on work was actually not a direct question. This impact is not considered for further analysis, but it is important to mention the details as work-life balance is incomplete without the negative effects. The managers mentioned about negative impact while explaining the overall impact of family on work. A total of 13 statements were mentioned. The German as well as the Indian managers mentioned specific situations where this negative impact has occurred. Some examples of negative impact are as follows:

“When my son was ill it definitely had a negative impact on my work.”

(Female, Interview 4, Germany, Statement 58)

“My mother-in-law is 89 years old. The decision to put her in an old age home was very difficult for me and my wife. It took a lot of our brain power and it was quite a stressful situation and the balance was disturbed.”

(Male, Interview 1, Germany, Statement 44)

“There are a couple of incidences like somebody expires then I have to take a leave and reach home early which affects the work schedule. But such incidences are very few.”

(Female, Interview 11, India, Statement 82)

iii) Family-work enrichment: The sub-code family to work enrichment is conceived as involvement in family role improves the performance at work (Carlson et al., 2006). It includes statements confirming managers' enriching experiences from family to work and consists of concrete examples. This code has a total of 22 statements. While narrating their enrichment experiences managers mentioned statements that could be coded into three sub-codes that are defined by Carlson et al. (2006) such as: family to work development, family to work affect and family to work efficiency. Some example statements are:

“I still check all my things with my husband before a big presentation, I even practise with him. His advice had helped me a lot. So I use my family as my coach; not only my husband but also my parents. They help me in seeing things in a different perspective.”

(Female, Interview 5, Germany, Statement 47)

“I had a very bad marriage. I was living with my daughter, led my life as a single parent and that was the situation which helped me to be a career-driven person. Being a single parent and living separately from the extended family, alone with my child, there were less family ties or responsibilities. I used all the saved time and energy for my career growth.”

(Female, Interview 4, India, Statement 70)

“A very positive relationship with my wife influences my work positively because she loves me and that gives me self confidence and energy and everything I need to do the job.”

(Male, Interview 2, Germany, Statement 53)

“The kind of atmosphere I have in my family is getting replicated in my team as well. The lighter moments, trust, acknowledgment of space for everybody, all these things I carry from my family to the team and that definitely helps.”

(Male, Interview 10, India, Statement 71)

Family to work development: It is conceived as different viewpoints, knowledge and skills gained in the family life help managers to be a better worker (Carlson et al., 2006). A total of 14 statements were mentioned by German and Indian managers. Some examples are:

“As a manager you have to behave in a way that is appropriate in the social community that is to possess social skills or organizational skills. I think I have that from my family.”

(Female, Interview 8, Germany, Statement 42)

“I had an inter-caste love marriage. My husband was very supportive. He was a mentor for me being a career woman. He showed me how to work, how to approach people and how to relate with people.”

(Female, Interview 4, India, Statement 22)

Family to work affect: It is conceived as good mood, feeling of happiness and cheerfulness in the family life, which makes the managers a better worker (Carlson et al., 2006). A total of 14 statements were mentioned. Relevant examples are:

“I will say if you are happy at home, then you are happy at work.”

(Female, Interview 12, Germany, Statement 92)

“If things are going well at home, if my relationship is going well, if I have good time on weekend with friends, it gives me joy and that makes my life at work much easier because I feel good in my personal life.”

(Male, Interview 11, Germany, Statement 52)

“I have a piece of mind when I know that everything is fine at home. I get complete support from my wife and kids. This feeling just reflects in good work.”

(Male, Interview 10, India, Statement 69)

Family to work efficiency: It is conceived as family helping to not waste time at work; encouragement by family for using work time in a focused manner, family allowing to be focused on work and all this helps the manager to be a better worker (Carlson et al., 2006). A total of 17 statements were mentioned. Indian managers mentioned this aspect more often than German managers.

“I am successful at home when things go well there and I have a good relationship, which gives me more time to focus on work.”

(Male, Interview 11, Germany, Statement 50)

“Having a supportive family, understanding family, children at an age where they are independent and they are able to follow a certain routine, helps a lot because it brings that much more focus on the work.”

(Female, Interview 3, India, Statement 42)

“Family support is an important thing. They are managing everything at home that is why I can be at work and be efficient also.”

(Male, Interview 6, India, Statement 74)

In the present study, the German as well as the Indian managers had enriching experiences from family to work direction. The managers experienced aspects in the family domain that helped them be a better worker. Thus, providing enough data to answer the research question RQ1b (How does the role performance in non-work domain enhance the role performance in work domain?).

Discussion

As mentioned earlier work-family enrichment theory (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) and the role accumulation theory (Sieber, 1974) can be useful in explaining the enriching experiences from family to work of German and Indian managers. The advantages of engaging in multiple roles are likely to prevail over the disadvantages called as an expansionist hypothesis (Barnett & Baruch, 1985). Many researchers believe in a more reasonable perspective that recognizes the positive effects of uniting work and family roles (Barnett, 1998; Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). Furthermore, Grzywacz (2002) postulated the theory of the positive interdependencies between work and family roles.

All the managers mentioned their experiences through statements reflecting family-work enrichment, which can be divided into three types: development, affect and efficiency as stated by Carlson et al. (2006). Srivastava et al. (2009) in their study on Indian IT and Banking sector employees also found that home related factors such as behaviour & skills, positive mood and family support had a positive influence on work; which is supportive to results of the current study. Also supportive to the result from this cross-cultural study is the study by Carlson et al. (2006) which confirms that enrichment from family to work occurs.

Crouter (1984) in her study with 55 employees also found out that a positive spillover (another form of positive work-family interface) from family to work occurs and the employees in her study agree to the fact that their family lives (family related support, attitudes and skills gained in family) did have an influence on their work.

An Australian study on 420 Australian public and private sector employees also supports this view that family and work can improve outcomes for each other (Haar & Bardoel, 2008). Also worth mentioning here is the study by Kirschmeyer (1993) where she found that managers experienced non-work (parenting, community work and recreation) affecting work positively. In general, more similarities were seen rather than differences in Germany and India. Only family to work efficiency (support from family helps to focus on work and that improves quality at work) was mentioned more often by Indian managers than German managers. The differences related to family dynamics for German and Indian managers; which are explained later in the (SECTION I - 3.vii.) show that, in general, Indian managers receive more family related support than German managers. This might influence the family to work efficiency of Indian managers, because more support is available from family members and they perceive this as an advantage. Conclusively, as compared to the German managers, Indian managers can focus more on their work making them better workers as most of the family related things are taken care of by the family members.

Thus, the data analysis revealed that German as well as Indian managers experienced that values, knowledge, skills they developed within their family lives can be used at their workplace and this improves their performance at work. In other words, managers agree to the fact that their involvement in family role helps them to improve their performance in work roles.

iv) Family-work enrichment = career advancement: A total of 10 statements addressed this aspect. Indian managers mentioned this aspect more often than German managers.

“A personal strength of mine is building relationships; which I learnt from my family. This helps me to establish a relationship of trust, open communication with

my customers and results in satisfied customers. It then ultimately results in career advancement.”

(Female, Interview 9, Germany, Statement 50)

“The positive experiences from family to work help me for sure to advance in my career as I can focus more on work due to the support I receive from my family.”

(Male, Interview 11, Germany, Statement 54)

“The positive things from family help me to concentrate on work and only then I can grow in career. Because I and my husband just have to decide what we want to do for our daughter but eventually my in-laws and other family members are doing it.”

(Female, Interview 11, India, Statement 92)

“My wife often helps me with discussing important issues. One example would be that I was stuck up with my appraisal. She talked to me only for 15 minutes and guided me about what all I can say about myself in the appraisal. And we did it. I could very well write about myself and it turned out to be a positive appraisal. So it means that this will result in growth may be salary wise or I will be given more challenging role in work.”

(Male, Interview 2, India, Statement 96)

The above statements reveal that positive experiences from family to work have helped managers to progress in career. Hence, the research question is answered and the statements also try to show that there is a positive relation between family-work enrichment and career advancement answering the RQ2b (How is the relationship between family-work enrichment and career advancement in Germany and India?).

Discussion

The instrumental path of work-family enrichment theory (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) (see Theory section 3.1.1.) may be very useful in understanding the relationship between family-work enrichment and career advancement. When this

path is followed a direct positive transfer of resources from family to work takes place leading to enhanced performance. The instrumental path is one of the ways in which the resource generated in role A (family) triggers the acquisition of the resource in role B (work) leading to higher performance. In the case of the relationship between family-work enrichment and career advancement, the enriching experiences from family to work in the form of skills, perspectives, efficiency and positive affect gained in the family life help the German and the Indian managers to directly transfer these positive experiences to their work life resulting in improved quality of work life. Such a direct positive transfer and improvement in work life is perceived to be beneficial to career related growth or career advancement of managers.

King et al. (2009) in their research on 3,504 participants found out that employees who experience positive spillover from home to work are the people, who most probably feel successful at work. One of the aims of the current study was to reveal that such a positive spillover in this case enrichment will be positively associated with career advancement. The aim is achieved as the German and the Indian managers see a positive relation between family-work enrichment and career advancement. Basically, this means that many aspects essential for growth in career are gained from family life. There is a positive transfer of these aspects from family to work such as learning from family members that can contribute to success at work, being able to focus on work as the home related tasks are taken care of by other family members and this leads to progress in career. Positive affect in the family that is feelings of happiness, contentment at home can affect the mood of an individual and this positive state can empower the individual to think about growth.

Summary

The goal was to explore if German and Indian managers experience two kinds of enrichment namely work to family and family to work. The qualitative analysis revealed that bi-directional enrichment was experienced by all the managers. There were a lot of similarities seen in the managers in spite of belonging to two different cultures. Some notable differences were also observed. Another goal was to establish a positive association between bi-directional

enrichment and career advancement. Both the directions of enrichment seem to have a positive relation with career advancement. And it can be inferred that enriching experiences from work to family and family to work play a role in career advancement.

2. Work-life balance and Career Advancement

The qualitative data analysis resulted in a total of 324 statements for work-life balance. Each sub-code included in Figure 12 is explained in the following section.

Goals: To explore how the German and the Indian managers in the current study conceive work-life balance. The goal was also to find out any typical concepts related to work-life balance in Germany and India. Additionally, a goal was also to find out if work-life balance is regarded important for career advancement. Finally, it would be interesting to see what strategies the German and the Indian managers use to strike a balance. So uncovering the strategies was also a goal.

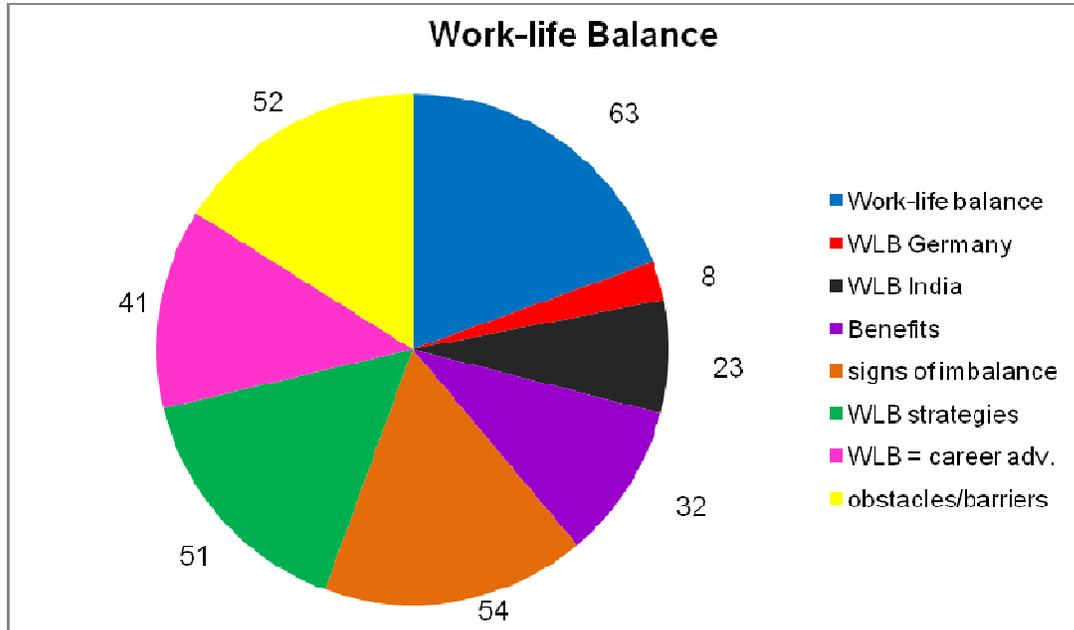


Figure 12. Sub-codes for work-life balance and allocated statements.

i) Work-life balance: A total of 63 statements described clearly how managers conceived work-life balance. Quite clear definitions emerged out of the data analysis. Most of the German and the Indian managers mentioned about work-family balance when asked for work-life balance. Some examples are:

“I see work-life balance as the ability to achieve a healthy psychological state after having worked for X number of hours and despite having X number of tasks to complete at home. So it means that one can function as a normal healthy person despite having responsibilities on both sides.”

(Female, Interview 9, Germany, Statement 26)

“A guy being married and having a family, working for a company has all these angles. It is a challenge not to cut all this into too many pieces. Combining all this into a nice parcel, a nice picture is important. This is my balance, to be satisfied in the end.”

(Male, Interview 7, Germany, Statement 34)

“Work-life balance is doing both the things - personal life and career with full vigour and on both the levels you are content, satisfied and successful. It becomes as smooth as a catwalk as you are satisfied on both fronts. You can just go ahead for another task. ”

(Female, Interview 4, India, Statement 42)

“For me the interpretation would be being able to continue working in corporate set up, delivering whatever key results that are assigned and at the same time being available to family, especially the children during their childhood to develop their interests and set them on a certain track.”

(Female, Interview 3, India, Statement 25)

It was especially interesting to find out how managers see work and life as two important domains of their lives. When asked about how they define work-life balance, most definitions were expressed along the lines of work-family balance. It can be most certainly inferred that work-life balance is mostly seen as work-family balance or “life” is perceived as “family life”; which appears to be different than the

original definition of life in this context referred to as non-work i.e. including other aspects of life apart from family. As Frone (2003) has pointed out that non-work domain may include social role sub-domains such as community, religious activities and family. Three kinds of perceptions emerged from the analysis of the current interviews. In the first perception work and family are seen as two separate domains - a sort of a boundary is set between the two domains. One German manager and two Indian managers fell into this kind of perception. Second perception refers to work-family integration-both the domains are not separate. Two German managers and two Indian managers fell in this kind of perception. Lastly, the third perception reflects prioritizing family over work that is family comes first. Three Indian managers fell into this kind of perception. Example statements according to kinds of perception 1, 2 and 3 respectively:

"I would really separate that. Family is family and work is work. They are two different worlds for me."

(Female, Interview 10, Germany, Statement 64)

"I should be able to have those boundaries in my mind that when I leave office, I leave things behind at the office. When I am home I should be there."

(Male, Interview 9, India, Statement 62)

"You cannot say that this is my job and my task. When I am here I do not think or say that problems of the family do not influence me any longer. I think it is not possible. If people try to do that, they fall ill that is my observation."

(Female, Interview 8, Germany, Statement 18)

"I am happy at work place. It is well adjusted with my family life as well. Therefore on both the ends it is like complimentary."

(Female, Interview 5, India, Statement 44)

"To be happy in life should be our motive and not only to be successful in the company. So for me family life definitely comes first!"

(Female, Interview 8, India, Statement 63)

“For me work-life balance means you work for a better life. That is all about it. Your life is important first. I put my life, my family; myself first because job is just means to satisfy all these needs. It is just a tool.”

(Male, Interview 10, India, Statement 36)

As comparing Germany and India in the context of work-life balance was one of the aims of the current research; some remarkable statements expressed by the managers describing the actualities of the respective work-life balance were analysed. This was not a direct question in the interview guideline but managers in the flow of their talk expressed their ideas related to the specific culture they function in. The German managers mentioned 8 statements (positive and negative) that reflect the work-life balance in Germany; whereas the Indian managers mentioned 23 statements (more negative statements than positive). Examples of positive and negative expressions for Germany and India are presented:

“I mean if it is about Germany, then it is a great work-life balance here.”

(Female, Interview 5, Germany, Statement 27)

“Women are moms and workers at the same time, they should not be forced to choose between work and family, but here in Germany women have to choose. So ever since I am working in this company, I have been talking about doing something regarding taking care of children and so on.”

(Female, Interview 4, Germany, Statement 32)

“It is not so much of our company’s program, but here in Germany you have job protection for the mothers by law. It is related to the state law because when you have a child, you always leave job for a year or so and when you return your job is guaranteed.”

(Male, Interview 2, Germany, Statement 22)

“Having a poor personal life can affect the balance in some way. I mean I see so many people especially in Germany having really great problems with building good relationships. I mean, I know so many friends of mine who are 40

years old and still do not have a wife or a family. And I doubt that they will ever find one!”

(Male, Interview 2, Germany, Statement 66)

“My family was always my strength, my source of energy, they were the people for whom I wanted to live and do many things. For an Indian person, for an Indian woman, the family is the source of energy.”

(Female, Interview 4, India, Statement 86)

“Actually, I think more than individual help, it is the social system that needs to emerge, especially if women in India have to be encouraged to work. I really feel it should change or be different when my daughter has to work. There should be a kind of network for crèches and child minding facilities.”

(Female, Interview 7, India, Statement 66)

“What is happening, whenever people are asking us to stay late, in India we do that. We stay late in the evening at work, so we start late from home. We come late to the office, and leave office at 10 pm or 11 pm. Therefore, after coming home so late there is no personal life. This is especially true for IT sector companies.”

(Female, Interview 11, India, Statement 48)

“I think it is not just the organization responsible for imbalance but the Indian nature as such is that we believe ‘work is god’ and I think that is stupidity. Working with a time difference - our customers from Europe or South America are ready to take a call at 7 am so that Indian people do not have to stretch it. But our delivery managers would not agree and prefer to stretch themselves instead. So what are you trying to prove?”

(Male, Interview 12, India, Statement 30)

While understanding the perspectives of work-life balance in Germany and India, it was thought to be important to explore the benefits of work-life balance and signs of work-life imbalance. This would give an insight into how German and

Indian managers think and believe the benefits of work-life balance are and what effects of imbalance have they experienced or observed.

ii) Benefits of work-life balance: There were a total of 32 statements mentioned. The statements in this sub-code reflect various advantages of striking a balance between work and life. Managers from both the countries mentioned the benefits that can be classified into three kinds - company benefits, family benefits and personal benefits. Some examples belonging to the three kinds of benefits in the order of company, family and personal benefits are as follows:

“The benefits are of course that you have got active employees, employees who are not burning out in the first three years of their career.”

(Female, Interview 4, Germany, Statement 44)

“A benefit is that I can be available physically and mentally for my family when they need me or when we are doing something leisurely, then of course this contributes to the quality of the relationship.”

(Female, Interview 9, Germany, Statement 32)

“One of the benefits is that you have time for yourself. You have to find things other than your work in your private life that you like to do. And a right balance allows you to do that.”

(Male, Interview 1, Germany, Statement 32)

“The benefit is that at work you are just more engaged, more productive and more happy doing what you are doing than may be sulking.”

(Female, Interview 7, India, Statement 40)

“Benefit comes again to the overall happiness. If I am happy then my family is happy and ultimately the company is happy. I feel the company should be benefitted by my presence, so I should contribute to the growth of the company.”

(Male, Interview 6, India, Statement 53)

“I think a major benefit is the personal satisfaction. This satisfaction reflects in your positive attitude and approach to life.”

(Female, Interview 3, India, Statement 30)

iii) Signs of work-life imbalance: This sub-code had 54 statements mentioned. Mostly the signs were perceived as the result of imbalance. The managers have expressed a variety of effects the imbalance between work and life can have. Both the groups mentioned signs that can be classified into four kinds. So the statements mentioned were the effects on organization, family, personal-emotional/behavioural and health. Examples of four kinds of signs in the order of organization, family, personal-emotional/behavioural and health are as follows:

“So in a firm you have a big fluctuation of employees that is not a good sign for the organization. If employees are pushed or squeezed, then they are not going to be there for long. In general, I think people get nervous, insecure, and aggressive at work.”

(Female, Interview 4, Germany, Statement 44)

“Someone who is at home and constantly talks about work and neglects family members to finish something quickly for work - is a sign.”

(Female, Interview 9, Germany, Statement 34)

“Aggressiveness and difficulties in decision making along with I would also say uncertainty fear, problems with self confidence. These could be some signs of imbalance.”

(Male, Interview 2, Germany, Statement 40)

“At a special point one is frustrated. One does not have enough energy to manage one’s life. I think the last stage would be burn-out.”

(Female, Interview 6, Germany, Statement 30)

“Long working hours I think. I am of a firm opinion that everybody should go out of the office by 5.30 pm. Also if you have to carry work at home, it is not a

good sign. It just means that you are not working properly or you are overburdened.”

(Female, Interview 7, India, Statement 46)

“If you have psychological issues regarding work-life you take them at home. Then the relationships at home are strained. ”

(Female, Interview 5, India, Statement 48)

“Sometimes you are capable of doing things but you are so stressed in your work that you only try to underestimate yourself and feel low. Another sign is that you do not get time to refresh yourself and get a new vision about life.”

(Female, Interview 8, India, Statement 59)

“I think people who suddenly fall ill or have someone in the family falling ill because the way I look at it is that, they are seeking attention.”

(Male, Interview 12, India, Statement 48)

iv) Strategies for work-life balance: A total of 51 statements were mentioned for this sub-code. The analysis of the interviews showed that the German and the Indian managers were managing their personal and professional lives quite efficiently. A deeper analysis led to various strategies the managers use to maintain their life and work. Overall, six different strategies were seen to be used by both groups of managers namely ‘*prioritizing*’, ‘*time management*’, ‘*planning*’, ‘*goal setting*’, ‘*knowing one’s boundaries*’ and ‘*communication*’. The Indian managers had an additional strategy ‘*willingness to take up every job/role*’. ‘*Prioritizing*’ was seen as knowing when to focus on what. Sometimes work got more priority than family and sometimes family got more priority than work. ‘*Time management*’ was seen as distribution of time for work and family duties. Most of the managers thought that this strategy was very important for balancing work and life. ‘*Planning and goal setting*’ were also considered quite important as these helped managers to systematically allot time and energy to work and life domains. Planning involved lists and organizing one’s schedule.

'Knowing one's boundaries' was also an important strategy as this helped managers to accept only a certain amount of work at the company and home that was doable and avoided stress of overload. 'Communication' was termed quite a basic strategy useful at work and also at home. Clear communication with family members about their tasks at home and colleagues/sub-ordinates at work reduced confusions and saved a lot of precious time in dealing with stressful situations that may arise from confusions. The Indian strategy of 'willingness to take up every job/role' is a tendency seen in most Indian employees; which was not mentioned by German managers. Every opportunity that comes should be considered as learning which is also reflected in the sub-code 'learning attitude' in Section II. The analysis also showed that more similar strategies were used by German and Indian managers. Example statements of the strategies are as follows:

"Time management is important I feel. We also plan our leisure time."

(Female, Interview 3, Germany, Statement 55)

"For me strategy means understanding the priority and when I need to focus on what and consciously understanding my ability to take on work on my plate. So it's important to say no I cannot take on more than this."

(Female, Interview 3, India, Statement 46)

"In the family and at work, I never said no to any job, any task and any role; which was the mindset that actually helped in balancing work and life."

(Female, Interview 4, India, Statement 74)

Discussion

Consistent with the strategies used by the sample in this two-country study are the strategies reported by American female managers. The female managers mentioned 'knowing their boundaries' and 'clear communication' as useful strategies (Peus & Traut-Mattausch, 2008). Another American study on care clinicians also confirmed strategies such as 'time shifting' and 'goal setting' being important for work-life balance (Chittenden & Ritchie, 2011). A very recent study reports on how professionals deal with the time constraints in their high status jobs confirming that time-management strategies such as time-shifting, time-prioritizing

as work-friendly strategies (Moen et al., 2013). Another study on work-life balance reports time management and purposeful decision making in use of time; which can be interpreted as planning; which helps to gain a balance between work and family for the purpose of current study as effective strategies (Schultz et al., 2012). Overall, the strategies used by German and Indian managers were similar except for one strategy that was used by Indian managers that is taking up every job/role that is offered to them. It is a cultural aspect that it is quite difficult for Indians to say no. This has also been reported by many Indian managers in the current study. Some Indian managers also explained that they have learnt to say no to things that are beyond their capacities. But this strategy has been expressed in a positive way by Indian managers. One reason could be that because the Indian managers hesitate to say no, they are considered quite favourable by colleagues/supervisors and also by family members which motivated them to use this strategy. Thus, the strategy 'taking up every job/role' is a contribution of this doctoral research. According to the researcher's knowledge, no other Indian study has mentioned this strategy of work-life balance before. Hence, the RQ5 (Which strategies do German and Indian managers use to achieve work-life balance?) has been answered.

The results in this section show that work-life balance was conceived quite clearly by both the groups of managers. Almost all the managers thought that work-life balance is quite an important issue of their lives and that they are already taking efforts to manage both the domains and are quite successful in doing that on a personal level. Extremely interesting finding regarding the conception of work-life balance is that "life" is seen more closely associated with "family". This finding infers that most managers referred to work-family balance when asked about work-life balance. One plausible explanation would be that 78% of German & Indian managers were married and 16% of German managers were partnered. Thus, a major portion of sample having a spouse/partner may have viewed work-life more as work-family because managing work and life may be more challenging to married couples than singles, as married couples have to cater to higher domestic or family responsibilities. These responsibilities involve housework, childcare, emotion work and voluntary participation as conceptualized by Pedersen et al., (2011). For a married/partnered manager, it is vital to cater to

family roles and work roles and such managers also view family differently than single/unmarried individuals. As Casper et al. (2007, p. 479) pointed out that usually the definition of “family includes a spouse or a cohabiting partner”, single status is defined as ‘single adults without dependent children’; which is the exact case for this current study.

The results also show that 3 kinds of perceptions regarding work-life balance emerged where some managers see work and life as a combination or integration which is also suggested by Lewis & Cooper (2005) and it implies that two spheres must be merged. This is also called as integration strategy, where an overlap is experienced in a role by an individual (Nippert-Eng, 1995). Second perception is that some managers think of these domains as two separate entities also called as segmentation (Nippert-Eng, 1995). This perspective is also confirmed by Burke (2004) in her successful attempt to study the issue of work-family integration along with Gregory & Milner (2009) where they propose that balance implies a trade-off between two spheres. Some Indian managers (25%) put family life even before work. For two Indian male managers and one Indian female manager family comes first. For some Indian women, family is prioritized over work; which is also supported by a study on employed parents (Ayree et al., 2005). It was an interesting finding that even Indian male managers prioritize family over work explaining that they consider work to be just a mean to fulfil the expectations of the family. Some glimpses of this finding have been noted in another Indian study on dual-earner couples. Indian males who chose family over their work were the ones, who chose working wives as their partners and seemed to have imbibed values that shape their decision of putting family first (Rajadyaksha & Bhatnagar, 2000).

Additionally, there has been a research on fading of gender differences (Baruch-Feldman et al., 2002); which means that the social roles of men and women have overlaps. Men’s increased involvement in household responsibilities and child rearing and its relation to work-family conflict has been documented (Thomas & Ganster, 1995). As a result of equality in gender being encouraged; men have become more open to exercise feminine values (Konrad & Harris, 2002). This may be a reason why some Indian male managers attached more importance to family than work. The German managers mentioned positive and

negative statements describing the work-life balance situation in Germany; whereas the Indian managers mentioned more negative statements referring to work-life balance in India. In the German context, the European Union has encouraged greater work time flexibility and a five week annual paid leave (Berg et al. 2004); which has been considered positive by managers from the current study as well. A reason for some negative statements regarding work-life balance in Germany can be explained through a study by Beham and Drobnič (2010) that includes evidences that dual-earner German couples may face more challenges in balancing work and family as the family policies in Germany have encouraged parents to stay away from the job market rather than providing support to manage work and family.

In the case of the Indian managers mentioning more negative comments about work-life balance, the reason could be that the Indian companies may not be offering suitable work-life balance benefits and programs (WLBP). This is also a finding by Baral & Bhargava (2011), in their research article they discussed about the challenges the HR departments in various Indian organizations have to face implementing the WLBP. They also mention that the WLBP vary across organizations and that the organizations need to create a more family friendly culture in the Indian context. Overall, the statements mentioned in this section give an excellent picture of the work-life balance in Germany and India thus answering the research question RQ3 (How is work-life balance conceived in Germany and India?).

v) *Work-life balance = career advancement:* There were a total of 41 statements mentioned; which revealed the managers' perspectives of how work-life balance is important to advance in career. Career advancement was expressed using synonyms of advancement such as 'growth' and 'progress' also. All the managers expressed ideas that coincide with the prediction that work-life balance plays a role in career advancement. Some example statements are as follows:

“Yes, work-life balance is important as the two main things in my life are in some way in harmony with each other, so that I do not have a bad conscience,

when I am at work and when I am at home. You get more work out of me if I am happy. This can certainly lead to progress in career.”

(Female, Interview 4, Germany, Statement 42)

“Without this balance I don’t think I can function efficiently or effectively at work. And therefore without work-life balance there would be no career advancement.”

(Female, Interview 9, Germany, Statement 32)

“Well I would say that certain amount of balance is important because if you don’t have that and it means that you are working too much you will burn-out or become physically ill and that is obviously a hindrance to your career because you cannot be at work after that. This affects the career growth as well because you cannot produce what is expected out of you from your employer.”

(Male, Interview 11, Germany, Statement 34)

“Otherwise you would not be happy. If there is no balance then you will be over-burdened with so many anxieties, that you will not be able to progress.”

(Female, Interview 5, India, Statement 46)

“The balance is the key, that makes you happy and if you are happy only then you can think of growth!”

(Male, Interview 6, India, Statement 51)

Work-life balance = career satisfaction: This relationship emerged after a detailed analysis of qualitative data. There was no direct question addressed to examine this relationship, but it was predicted that when managers express their ideas about career advancement, they would also include this aspect because career advancement and career satisfaction may be related to each other. It is evident that objective success seen through income and promotions is the basis of subjective success that is career satisfaction or job satisfaction (Ng et al., 2005; Judge et al., 1995). Career satisfaction was mentioned by managers as work satisfaction and sometimes as work contentment. The managers used satisfaction and contentment interchangeably to express their understanding regarding career

satisfaction. It was observed that this relation was reflected in only Indian managers. The sample statements are:

“I think in personal life, money is as important as your energy and time. So if money, time and energy are the three resources used at both fronts, you need to distribute them properly. I also think satisfaction at work level and satisfaction at personal level are contributory to your growth in career as well. And all this ultimately contributes to your contented life and a balanced life.”

(Female, Interview 4, India, Statement 44)

“I believe that an individual has to be satisfied and content in whatever he/she is doing. So if a person is torn between work and family, then stress levels go up and this shows on both the sides and the contentment factor is no longer there. So from this perspective it is important to prioritize what a person needs and accordingly divide time or share time.”

(Female, Interview 3, India, Statement 27)

“You know what will happen if I do not have a balance, somewhere I will start feeling frustrated. If I have a personal issue, I would attribute it to my career; which is just not right! But if I spare enough time for my personal life, then I will have a motivation to do things differently. So it is very important to be mentally satisfied with my career and also personal life.”

(Male, Interview 1, India, Statement 52)

The above statements very well explain the remaining part of RQ3 (How is the relationship between work-life balance & career success?). The qualitative data analysis also reveals that the German and the Indian managers have experienced a relevant positive connection between work-life balance and career advancement. Some glimpses of the relation between work-life balance and career satisfaction were also observed; although this relation reflected only in the Indian sample. Thus, RQ3 is fully addressed as there is evidence that work-life balance and career advancement relationship was seen in Germany and India but work-life balance and career satisfaction relationship was seen only in India and not in Germany.

Discussion

The statements evidently show that managers from both the countries regarded work-life balance as an important factor for career advancement. As reflected from the responses of managers, having a balance between work and life results in positive mood and mental and physical health and this helps them to transfer this positive mood at work or being healthy gives them enough energy at work; which eventually increases the chances of growth and progress at work. The managers also notably confirmed that having a balance between work and family can lead to advancement, growth or progress in career thus answering the RQ4 (Do managers in Germany and India who have a work-life balance advance in their careers?). Therefore, it can be inferred that there is a clear tendency for managers who have work-life balance to advance in their careers. This is consistent with the findings of Lyness & Judiesch (2008); where in work-life balance and career advancement potential was studied. They found out that employees who were rated higher in work-life balance were rated higher in career advancement potential. Another German study that also has similar results to the current study is that of Peus & Traut-Mattausch (2008). They conducted qualitative interviews with German female employees and found that work-family balance was an important factor for women's career advancement. Also consistent with these findings are the findings from an Indian study on success factors for female and male managers by (Shah, 2010); where in work-life balance was found to be one of the four most important success factors for career advancement in the Indian context.

The Indian managers perceived that balance between personal and professional domains was an important factor for satisfaction and contentment at work. Other researchers have also established this relation in their studies (Wayne et al. 2004; van Steenbergen et al. 2007 and Hanson et al. 2006). Another American study in its effort to find out if work-family balance is anything more than conflict and enrichment; concluded that a positive association between work-family balance and job satisfaction exists (Carlson et al., 2009). Consistent with the results from the current study is that of Aryee et al. (2005), who were also successful in establishing a relationship between work-family facilitation and job satisfaction. The Indian managers from the current study perceive satisfaction with

professional life as an integral part of the career advancement, as they mentioned this when they were actually asked, if work-life balance is important to grow in career. It may be the case that according to the Indian managers, satisfaction with work is essential to advance in career. In case of German managers, when asked the same question they did not mention the satisfaction and work-life balance connection as they probably perceive career satisfaction and work-life balance to be loosely linked. This probability is being considered as the German managers did talk about career satisfaction in the other section of the interview; where they were encouraged to talk about their career success.

vi) Barriers in work-life balance: In the effort of studying the work-life balance phenomena in Germany and India, it is inevitable to consider the barriers that the managers came across while balancing their professional and personal lives. The interview guideline included a clear question to the managers regarding the obstacles or barriers they perceived. This sub-code 'barriers in work-life balance' has 52 statements which reflect difficult situations, hurdles, challenges and obstacles the managers had to overcome. Five types of barriers resulted after the analysis of data namely 'personal', 'work-related', 'social', 'technological' and 'infrastructural'. Statements for each type are presented and discussed in the section below:

a) Personal barriers – The German as well as Indian managers perceived personal barriers. The Indian managers mentioned personal barriers more often than the German managers. Statements in this type of barrier reflect personal limitations or personal factors that affected the work-life balance.

“Sometimes I had the feeling that I have to do all the things alone. I have to fight alone; I have no one who stands behind me. For me this was an obstacle, as it caused a lot of effort.”

(Female, Interview 8, Germany, Statement 50)

“When I think of failure, I analyse why I got pulled, why I could not do that and I get an answer. It was my thought, lack of preparation or lack of clarity about the situation. This affected my performance at work and also at home.”

(Male, Interview 10, India, Statement 91)

b) Work-related barriers – The German and the Indian managers mentioned about work-related barriers. But German managers mentioned this aspect more than Indian managers. Statements in this type of barrier reflect work related factors that may influence managers’ work-life balance.

“Mostly expectations from other employees created obstacles especially managers, who are loving their work so much that they cannot understand that somebody can love two things in the same way.”

(Female, Interview 4, Germany, Statement 64)

“Part-time work was not known much and not visible much. There has been a perception in the past that, people who work part-time are not able to deliver like the full-timers. I had to fight that!”

(Female, Interview 3, India, Statement 53)

c) Social Barriers – Only Indian female managers mentioned this type of barrier. Statements in this type of barrier reflect the social situation in the Indian society and its influence on work-life balance of female managers.

“The social aspect I feel is a barrier. It is difficult to enjoy work and family at the same time due to the fixed ideas about man’s and woman’s role.”

(Female, Interview 8, India, Statement 106)

“To start with, I got married, it was an arranged marriage. I was also working and I got married into a joint-family. So getting to know and stay with unknown people was quite a challenge and this influenced the balance between job and family.”

(Female, Interview 11, India, Statement 106)

d) Technological barriers – Only German managers mentioned this type of barrier. Statements in this type of barrier include the influence of modern technology on work-life balance of German managers.

“I feel the electronic devices we keep using are quite a barrier in smooth functioning at work and at home. I have two mobile phones, one of them is blackberry, and I use them constantly until I go to bed at night. It not good to take those problems to bed!”

(Male, Interview 2, Germany, Statement 62)

“Especially for a person like me who is a global head, who needs to connect with people all around the world, my phone beeps all the 24 hours and it does affect my work-life balance negatively.”

(Male, Interview 1, Germany, Statement 56)

e) Infrastructural barriers – This aspect was mentioned only by Indian managers. Statements show how lack of good infrastructure in Pune city influences work-life balance on Indian managers.

“In Pune travel facilities are quite dissatisfactory. We have a very bad public transport system and because of which we have to suffer a lot. To counter that, we drive with our own cars to work and spend a lot of precious time in traffic, which we can spend doing something for our family.”

(Female, Interview 5, Indian, Statement 96)

“Where I work is an off-site, I do not have a proper constructed cement road to reach my office. Yet I manage to work there and reach in time. But time spent in such things is a waste and I am sure it can be utilized for personal things.”

(Male, Interview 2, India, Statement 118)

Discussion

The barriers mentioned by the German and the Indian managers had a few similarities and more differences. The analysis showed that the Indian managers mentioned more personal barriers than the German managers. Work-related

barriers were mentioned by German managers more as compared to Indian managers. Social and infrastructural barriers were mentioned only by Indian managers and technological barriers were mentioned only by German managers.

Regarding personal barriers it has to be understood that these are very personal expressions of both German and Indian managers and a comparison of personal barriers is not appropriate as these individuals belong to two different cultures and may belong to different life phases as well. One reason could be that Indian managers may have expressed freely about their personal life and German managers may not have expressed freely. There is also no external literature found that supports a comparison of personal barriers for work-life balance. This is definitely an area which needs further exploration.

It was an interesting finding that technological barriers were mentioned only by German managers. A detailed analysis of technological barriers of work-life balance in the Indian context calls for attention and should be explored in the future. An explanation of Indian managers not mentioning this as a barrier probably has its roots in the fact, that most Indian employees have the concept of “ideal worker”; who works long hours without questioning and strives hard to meet all the expectations of the client (Rao & Indla, 2010). It means that being available to the clients 24x7 may be an integral part of the Indian work-culture and may not be perceived as a barrier; moreover it may be seen as a necessity to match the concept of “ideal worker”. Technology plays quite a salient role in today’s modern world and working with computers or other technological devices such as laptops and smart phones have become a necessity. Communication through modern technology can result in constant touch with team mates, supervisors and the negative affective components that result from the pressure created by technology can spillover in the family life (Scholarios & Marks, 2004). Harris, Marett & Harris (2011) also investigated the relationship between technology inducing stress and work-family conflict. They have identified a few disadvantages of technology related pressure and recommend that efforts must be taken to reduce the effect of this pressure by having guidelines about when and how frequently, should the employees check their emails and having no work on weekends and vacations.

The work-related barriers are specific to the work environment in German and Indian organizations. Work-related barriers have been reported by female managers mainly. Female managers with young children mentioned that going out of station for work assignments on a short notice is nearly impossible. It has been observed in the interviews that expectations from seniors that the female managers should allot more time at work and failing to understand that work and family is both an equal priority, can be a work-related barrier which affects female managers' work-life balance. Such a situation may lead to negative career consequences for using work-family benefit programs in a company (Thompson et al., 1999). Another aspect of work-related barrier is part-time work being viewed as less valuable than full-time work. A European study on part-time work shows that working for less number of hours affected satisfaction with work-life balance negatively. Part-time employees were less satisfied with their work-life balance (Beham et al., 2012). Working for reduced number of hours and flexitime (long hours work culture) have also been reported as obstacles for senior management employees (Drew & Murtagh, 2005).

It was quite expected that the Indian managers come across the social barriers and the infrastructural barriers. The social barriers are mainly mentioned by the Indian female managers and this is a result of traditional gender role expectations. This implies that women shoulder dual responsibility for work and home; which leads to stress and strain. An Indian study reported that marriages in India are most often arranged by elderly in the family (Rajadhyaksha & Velgach, 2009). A barrier in balancing work and home could be getting married into a family that is still unknown to the bride and getting accustomed to the new environment after marriage along with working. Attitudes of the Indian society towards women show that women have a higher commitment to the family role than men (Bhatnagar & Rajadhyaksha, 2001). Thus, performing the family role efficiently is quite important for the Indian female managers and as they are professionals they also have to perform well at work. But Indian female managers have to overcome the barriers that arise from the social environment they function in.

Regarding infrastructural barriers Indian managers have expressed the situation of road conditions and transport facilities in Pune city and how this can affect their work-life balance. Unfortunately, there is no literature to support this

finding. There is a need for a detailed study about the infrastructure situation in Pune city and its impact on work-life balance.

Summary

The goals of this cross-cultural study were to explore the concepts of work-life balance in Germany and India and also to delve into specific ideas that may be expressed by respective managers. The specific responses from managers revealed that clear definitions emerged from the analysis of German and Indian managers. The only difference that can be noted between German and Indian managers is the perception of work-life balance (see 2.i.). Some remarkable statements were mentioned by both groups of managers. These statements mirrored how actually work-life balance functions in Germany and India and also revealed that the German managers were more positive about work-life balance situation in Germany; whereas the Indian managers were less positive about the work-life balance situation in India. Three kinds of benefits of work-life balance were mentioned by German and Indian managers (see 2.ii.) along with signs of work-life imbalance (see 2.iii.); which resulted in four kinds of signs or ill-effects. The German and the Indian managers mentioned six types of strategies that help them to strike a balance between work and life. The strategies (see 2.iv.) used were quite similar in Germany and India. Five types barriers (see 2.vi.) in balancing work and life were mentioned in both the countries. There are more differences than similarities in the barriers encountered by managers.

Regarding work-life balance and its importance in career advancement and career satisfaction (see 2.v.) the respective statements revealed that work-life balance was considered important. The German as well as the Indian managers confirmed that work-life balance was important for growing in their careers. In case of career satisfaction, only Indian managers found that work-life balance was important for being content with their work or job. The German managers did not mention about work-life balance and its relation to being satisfied in careers.

3. Work-life balance & Family Dynamics

Family dynamics includes eight sub-codes. Family aspects that can be closely related to work-life balance were selected. Total statements for family dynamics were 318.

Goals: To find out how aspects regarding family are defined by the German and the Indian managers. Second goal was to find out if Indian managers receive more family support than German managers.

The family related factors were purposefully asked in the interviews to understand how a family was conceived and how managers thought their families help them in balancing work and life. Family factors are presented in the following section and its relation to work-life balance is also discussed.

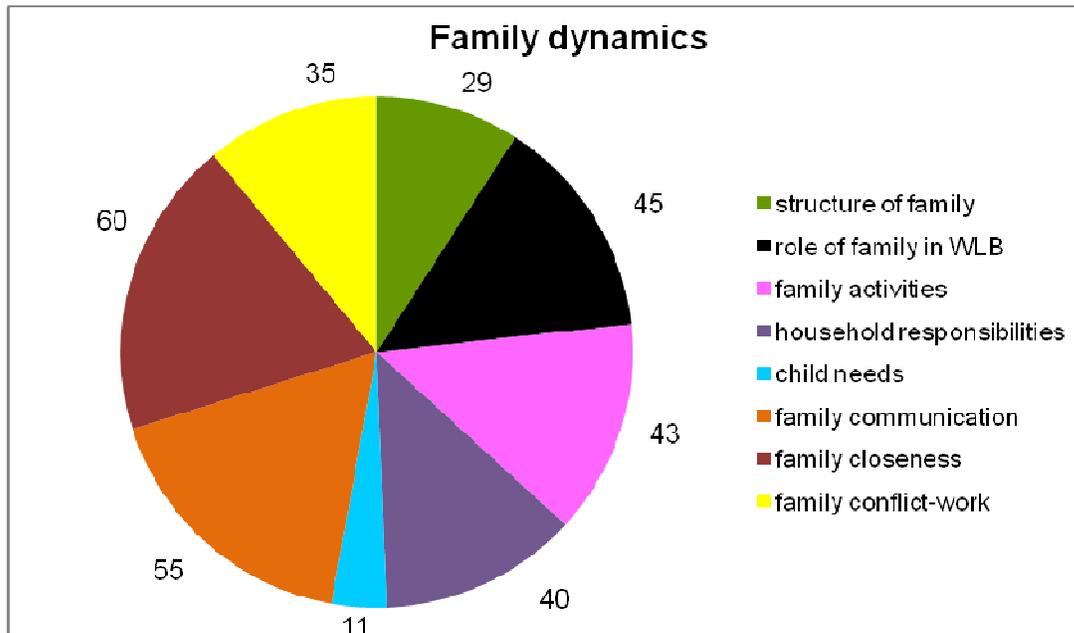


Figure 13. Sub-codes for family dynamics & the statements allocated to each sub-code.

i) Family structure – Family structure includes statements about how many members were included in the family and who all were considered as a part of the family. The German and Indian managers mentioned about *immediate family* and *extended family*. For the German managers an immediate family included their spouse/partner and children. For a few German managers it included parents and siblings; whereas for some German managers parents, siblings and friends were

included in an extended family. For most of the Indian managers an immediate family included spouse, children, parents, parents-in law and siblings and an extended family included relatives, friends and neighbours.

The concept of immediate and extended family was reported by German and Indian managers; which were interpreted as a similarity between two groups. The difference was that some German managers mentioned only immediate family and did not mention extended family; whereas all Indian managers mentioned about immediate family and a huge extended family. Example statements:

“My close family is my husband and two children and the extended family is four siblings and parents.”

(Female, Interview 6, Germany, Statement 55)

“My immediate family: I stay with 6 including me, my in-laws, then it would be my parents, and extended family would be the relatives, neighbours and all my friends.”

(Female, Interview 7, India, Statement 70)

ii) Household responsibilities – It was important to include this factor as the distribution of house related tasks within the family members may be helpful for managers to strike a balance and this would also reflect the role played by their partners and other family members in the managers’ work-life balance. Most of the German and Indian managers mentioned that the household responsibilities were shared meaning that the managers and their partners were equally involved in the household work. Some German and Indian managers mentioned that they had domestic help along with equal sharing of house work. But a few cases of classical distribution of housework (cooking, child rearing is done by women and fixing or repairing things is done by men) were also observed. Only in India, help from in-laws and parents in household was mentioned. Example statements:

“We share the household responsibilities. We don’t have a schedule, but there is equal sharing, we support each other. Sometimes I am more active, sometimes my partner is more active.”

(Male, Interview 11, Germany, Statement 66)

“I have a big help from my father-in-law for grocery shopping, my mother-in-law supervises the maid-servant. We have good domestic help. ”

(Female, Interview 11, India, Statement 126)

“The household work was classical initially but then my husband shared the responsibility. I said to my husband that you have to be active at home too, I do not have more time and we have to organize this housework!”

(Female, Interview 6, Germany, Statement 64)

iii) Child care – Child care responsibility is quite an important issue when work-life balance comes into picture. Many decisions regarding how career is shaped and how time is spent at work and at home are influenced by children. So it was essential to know who takes care of the children most of the times. The analysis showed that it was a shared responsibility between the managers and their spouses in Germany and in India. It was also found that the Indian managers mentioned more often than the German managers, that other family members such as in-laws; parents etc. also help in taking care of the children’s needs. Supporting statements:

“We take equal care of the child so there is no more ‘papa’ or more ‘mama’.”

(Female, Interview 3, Germany, Statement 70)

“Taking care of the child involves me, my husband, sometimes my parents and parents in-law. So it is everybody’s responsibility.”

(Female, Interview 7, India, Statement 76)

iv) Quality time with family – It was clearly asked in the interviews about how the manager’s family spends quality time with each other. Considering the cultural

differences in Germany and India, it would be interesting to see what German and Indian families do in order to spend quality time with each other. It was assumed that having a work-life balance allowed managers to have enough time to engage in non-work activities that led to higher chances of spending quality time with family. Many similar activities were found in both the cultures like having a talk during meals, going on vacations with family and friends, attending concerts, drama, movies etc. The German families spent more time than the Indian families in sport activities and wellness activities. As expected, the Indian families have more family oriented activities as compared to the German families such as family get-togethers, family celebrations, and family outings. Example statements:

“The special thing about my wife is that we have 90% of interests that match. We do road biking, mountain biking, cross country skiing, mountain climbing to spend good time with each other.”

(Male, Interview 2, Germany, Statement 70)

“We spend quite often good time with cousins, my grandparents, uncles, aunties also. We also celebrate all birthdays of family members. Also we plan family outings regularly.”

(Female, Interview 8, India, Statement 116)

v) Family communication – It was an attempt to find out if managers have enough time to communicate with family members and also to see how they communicate with them in Germany and India. Most of the managers in this study agreed that they have enough time for their family members meaning that they communicate enough with them. Similar channels of communication in the modern days are used by both the groups of managers such as emails, telephone, mobile phones, Skype etc. The only difference is that some German managers mentioned more often than Indian managers that they do not communicate enough with family members. In case of these German managers their partners/wives were living in another city which was not the case for any Indian manager. Example statements:

“Most often communication is through phone; I usually am on a call with my mother everyday and also with my mother-in law. I catch up with friends, siblings

and such people once a week. And with my children it is, when I am dropping them to one of their activities.”

(Female, Interview 3, India, Statement 70)

“No I don't have enough talk with my partner as she lives in another city and I live here in Munich. I don't see her during the week. We don't communicate enough especially for certain topics. We must improve there!”

(Male, Interview 2, Germany, Statement 76)

vi) Family closeness – To find more about the closeness experienced by the managers in their families, they were asked with whom they share a problem in the family and why. This would show who the managers consider very close in the family to discuss their most important issues and how important managers feel their family is for them. Most of the German and the Indian managers mentioned that they share work related and other personal problems with their partners or spouses. It shows that spouse support is considered quite important by German as well as Indian managers. Some German and Indian managers also mentioned discussing issues with other members of the family like sister, daughter, parents and even friends. Example statements:

“I know that I can rely on my family, I can trust them, I can share all problems with them. Firstly, I discuss a problem with my husband as he is the best one, who can give me an objective opinion. Then I would also talk to my sisters.”

(Female, Interview 8, Germany, Statement 72)

“I would discuss about the problem first with my daughter as we are very close and secondly, if relevant with other family members. But I have always communicated every feeling and thought with my family members. We are a great support to each other.”

(Female, Interview 4, India, Statement 96)

vii) Work-family conflict – As balancing work and family is quite a challenge, it was important to know whether managers face conflict in the family because of work. Most of the managers (67%) mentioned that there were no conflicts in the

family because of work. Some managers (33%) mentioned that in the past there were specific difficult situations not exactly conflicts in their family lives mainly because of their work timings. Example statements:

“Towards my parents it was a difficult situation. They are quite old and expect me to take care of them. But I cannot stop working just for that. I spend time with them on weekends and they have someone taking care of them!”

(Female, Interview 10, Germany, Statement 110)

“My wife feels that I have lost so much of my personal time because of the extended working hours. She also feels neglected at times. I try to make her understand and also try to spend time with her and children.”

(Male, Interview 1, Germany, Statement 158)

viii) Role of family in work-life balance – The managers were asked directly about how their families help them to achieve work-life balance. In general, there was a similarity in how families help managers to balance their work-life. The managers thought that their families give them happiness, affection and peace of mind; which help them to focus on work and perform well at work. Other aspects such as families being understanding towards managers and accepting their work styles or work schedules were also mentioned. The German and Indian managers mentioned about the freedom and flexibility they experience in their families to be quite important for balancing work and life. Family support was thought to be very important in balancing work and life. The Indian managers pointed out that the role of family members other than spouses such as in-laws, parents are equally important in achieving the balance. German managers mentioned only spouse/partner’s role to be important in managing personal and professional lives. Example statements:

“If you have someone who loves you, who supports you then, that gives you self-confidence and energy, this has a great impact on your work-life balance. My wife support makes me relaxed, non-aggressive.”

(Male, Interview 2, Germany, Statement 66)

“My in-laws, parents they support a lot. And that gives me mental peace to work.”

(Female, Interview 11, India, Statement 86)

All the different aspects of family life in Germany and India that were presented in this section show how managers conceive family and how family helps them to balance the work and life, thus, answering RQ8 (How are family related factors conceived in Germany and India? Do they relate to the work-life balance in both countries?). Overall, it seems that Indian managers mentioned many family aspects revealing that they receive more help from family members. The size of Indian families is bigger than German families and there are more number of options for help like parents and in-laws in India; whereas in Germany the help managers get is mainly from spouses. Hence, it implies that family related assistance is seen more in India than Germany.

Discussion

Family dynamics in Germany and India show some similarities that emerged from the analysis regarding the concept of family, where immediate family and extended family were mentioned by both the groups of managers. Regarding household responsibilities and child care needs most of the German as well as the Indian managers agreed that these are shared responsibilities and that the sharing is equal. Both the groups of managers were quite satisfied with the quality time they spend with the family and some activities they engage in were quite similar. Family support was considered important by both the groups.

There were some differences also found in the family dynamics. The main difference was seen in the definition and size of family in Germany and India. Most German managers consider spouse and children as close family and parents/siblings/in-laws/friends as extended family. According to Indian managers, immediate family includes spouse/children/parents/siblings/in-laws and extended family is all relatives, friends and neighbours. This would mean that the role of family in work-life balance of German managers is mainly restricted to spouse's help. And Indian managers have more possibilities of getting help to balance work

and life as other family members such as parents, siblings etc. can be considered as possibilities for help.

In case of household help and child care needs, Indian managers mentioned about help from parents and in-laws more often than German managers. This is consistent with the fact that instrumental support from family in Indian context means household help and child care support from elderly family members (Rajadhyaksha & Bhatnagar, 2000). Rajadhyaksha (2004) in her study about work-life balance in India also confirms that family's support to balance work and life includes non-institutional ways namely parents, in-laws, paid help and support from the spouse. Family support was mentioned as a personal success factor more often by Indian managers than German managers (refer to Section II. 6). The work-family facilitation theory will be a good base to understand the role of family in work-life balance. Grzywacz et al. (2007) define work-family facilitation as "the extent to which an individual's engagement in one social system (e.g. work or family) contributes to growth in another social system (e.g. family or work)" (p. 562). When a transfer occurs from one domain to the other, in this case family support helping to balance work and life; the results that occur due to engagement in one domain turn into catalysts for change in another receiving domain. A catalyst is defined as "an event or circumstance that produces deviation in a system" (Aldwin & Stokols, 1988). To be more specific the role of family members can be seen as an individual catalyst (Grzywacz et al., 2007) in facilitating the process of work-life balance.

The result from the current study is also confirmed through another Indian study by Srivastava et al. (2009) in their attempt to explore family to work facilitation in Indian context; where they found that family support was the most important factor in the family life which influences work life positively. In a German-American study Peus & Traut-Mattausch (2008) found that only a minority of female German managers received spouse support to balance work and family, implying that in the German context a "family" mainly includes husband and not other members, unlike in India. Their study also shows that German female managers depend more on paid help to balance family and work rather than family members. In general, it may be concluded that the Indian managers receive more family related support as compared to the German managers.

Summary

Family aspects in Germany and India were presented along with the similarities and differences. All the eight sub-codes contribute to the role the managers’ families play in their work-life balance. The differences in the family aspects help to understand how especially family structure, practical help from family members in household and child care affects the support received by managers. It was found that due to the bigger size of family and help from parents/in-laws in India, Indian managers received more family support than German managers.

4. Organizational Interventions for Work-life Balance

This main code consists of 274 statements in total which describe the initiatives the organizations have taken in order to promote work-life balance for the respective managers.

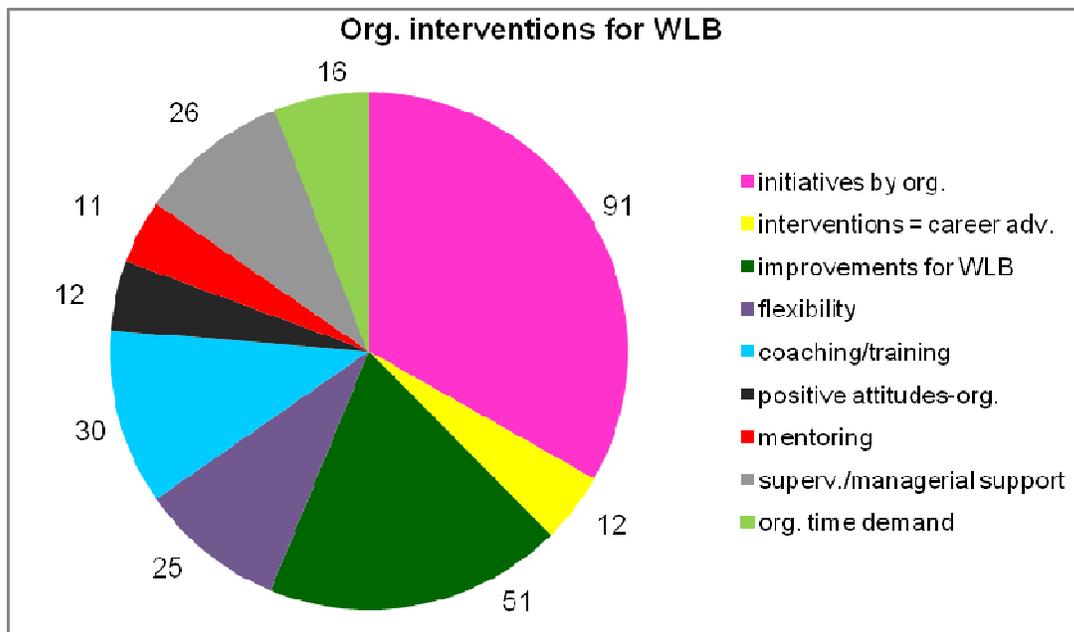


Figure 14. Sub-codes for organizational interventions for work-life balance and allocated statements.

Goals: The goal was to find out what kinds of organizational interventions are available in German and Indian companies that participated in this research and also to find out if these initiatives have any role to play in the managers’ career advancement. The second goal was to see how organizational work-family culture

is related to the work-life balance of managers in Germany and India. The third goal was to consider the improvements suggested to the organizations by managers regarding work-life balance and find out opinions if training related to work-family enrichment would work for German and Indian managers.

The data analysis showed that the German companies had a variety of initiatives for their employees that encouraged a balance between their work and life. Different types of initiatives were mentioned by the German managers. Almost all the German companies provided these initiatives. The Indian companies also have some initiatives but they are not offered by all the companies. Similar types of initiatives were offered in Indian companies and German companies. But quite a few differences were also observed. The types of initiatives and supporting statements along with the differences will be presented in the following section.

i) Women oriented programs – The German and the Indian managers mentioned that their companies encourage female employees to work efficiently.

“We have a program for very talented and qualified women, they get a mentor, who helps them taking into consideration their specific needs especially related to family.”

(Female, Interview 8, Germany, Statement 12)

“The atmosphere is to encourage women working over here!”

(Female, Interview 5, India, Statement 22)

ii) Work from home facility – Almost all German managers availed this facility and agreed that it helped them to manage their work and lives. Indian managers did mention this facility but these managers belong to the IT companies, where this facility is quite common. Therefore, not all companies in this study offer this facility in India. Example statements:

“I can work from home. I have the key equipment to work from home, so I think this is the major advantage of the organization.”

(Female, Interview 10, Germany, Statement 20)

“There are facilities like work from home but people hesitate to opt for it!”

(Male, Interview 12, India, Statement 34)

iii) Flexitime – All the German managers mentioned very positive comments about this facility and also mentioned this facility more often than Indian managers. In India only managers working in IT and an Engineering company, which is a counter part of a German company mentioned about flexi-time and its advantages. But most of the Indian companies seem to not have this option of time flexibility. Example statements:

“So having the flexibility given by the company was something I always appreciated and that is work-life balance for me.”

(Female, Interview 5, Germany, Statement 21)

“Flexi-time is the default feature given by the IT Company. I think that is the reason why I am not leaving this company.”

(Female, Interview 11, India, Statement 30)

iv) Child care facility at work – Some German companies in this study did have satisfactory child care facilities at work. Child care places were located within the company or there were arrangements made by the company with the local child care or Kindergarten. None of the Indian managers mentioned about such a facility in their companies.

“The company now has its own Kindergarten; which is very important for young families.”

(Male, Interview 7, Germany, Statement 24)

“We have a Kindergarten program for parents with young children since 4-5 years. And we also have some contracts with Kindergartens and play schools here in Munich and other large cities wherever we are located.”

(Male, Interview 1, Germany, Statement 20)

“I would say for mothers there should be a child care facility available and also a crèche; which is very important I feel.”

(Female, Interview 7, India, Statement 26)

v) Sabbatical – A few German managers mentioned that there was a possibility to go on a sabbatical and that it can benefit them personally. Only one Indian manager mentioned about this facility as she belonged to a company that is a counter-part of a German company. In Indian companies it is still not a very common facility.

“There are possibilities for sabbaticals in case of family emergencies and things like that, but I wouldn’t say that there is a strong emphasis on that from the company’s side.”

(Male, Interview 11, Germany, Statement 22)

“The company offers you sabbaticals if you have to take care of your children or older people for some time.”

(Female, Interview 3, India, Statement 16)

vi) Vacation/Leaves – This aspect was mentioned equally by German and Indian managers. Both the groups mentioned about vacation facilities offered by company. Both the groups mentioned about casual leaves and sick leaves. Germany has a five-day working week. In India it is a six-day working week. But two Indian companies in the current study mentioned that they have a Saturday off and they mentioned that as an advantage. Maternity leaves were also mentioned by managers. German managers mentioned that maternity leave can be availed for as long as one year or even for a longer duration; on the contrary, the Indian managers mentioned that the maternity leave is basically 3 months and can be extended for another 3 months. Paternity leave was seen quite common in Germany. Only one Indian female manager mentioned about paternity leave facility in her company, which is a counter part of German company.

“When we had our first baby, my wife had a paid leave for a year. Well, she can take more. I took two months paid leave. I believe that is a huge help as it helps to balance work and family.”

(Male, Interview 12, Germany, Statement 22)

“I feel it is good to have those days of vacations and casual leaves. I like that!”

(Male, Interview 12, Germany, Statement 30)

“The female colleagues do have this maternity leave. I think they get it twice during their service. But our company does not offer paternity leave.”

(Male, Interview 1, India, Statement 28)

“We have ample leaves. There are 12 casual leaves, medical leaves and we can also claim LTA (Leave & Transport Allowance) from the company once a year as a reimbursement of vacation costs.”

(Female, Interview 4, India, Statement 26)

“We have a five day working. I don't think there are many companies in core engineering who offer a five-day working!”

(Male, Interview 6, India, Statement 29)

vii) Sport facilities – All German managers mentioned about a variety of sports facilities in their companies. Only 2-3 Indian managers mentioned about it, which seems not very common.

“There is a history of many years where our company supported certain sports activities for employees. To name a few we have a tennis court at the head quarters, we have a gym in the basement. There is a so called ‘family run’ every year and also a ‘company run’ here in Munich.”

(Male, Interview 1, Germany, Statement 20)

“One thing we have in the company and that is a gym. That is it!”

(Male, Interview 2, India, Statement 44)

viii) Other facilities - Other facilities include interventions such as job protection in Germany and employee benefits in Indian companies.

“Of course the job is kept for the women employees. This is not typical for our company but the German law. The woman employee can return to her job after the maternity leave. May be same job is not available but there are different ways for handling it.”

(Male, Interview 1, Germany, Statement 22)

“Some facilities for women employees are there. But job protection is not there. I feel this should be made available to women employees. It leads to insecurity as this is a service industry. ”

(Female, Interview 8, India, Statement 32)

“As far as employee benefits are concerned, we have loan facilities like car loan, home loan. We also have family medical insurance and many more welfare schemes for purchasing gadgets etc.”

(Male, Interview 9, India, Statement 40)

It was thought to be important to find out if the interventions offered by organizations helped the employees somehow to advance in their careers. Some German as well as Indian managers agreed to this prediction that facilities offered by their companies helped them in career advancement. Example statements are mentioned below:

“Well, I am happy that I can bring the child to the day care facility associated with my company. And this of course helps me to focus on work. And this may lead to some kind of growth in the recent future.”

(Female, Interview 4, Germany, Statement 38)

“Yeah, flexible timings where you were given a choice to decide your work timings, so of course it has been greatly beneficial for career advancement.”

(Female, Interview 7, India, Statement 32)

The types of initiatives provided by the German and the Indian organizations listed above give quite an apparent picture of how employees in these organizations receive support to manage their professional and personal lives. Less similarity and more differences between German and Indian organizations were observed in this aspect. The German managers seem to have a variety of initiatives at their disposal to ease the process of balancing work and life. Overall, the German managers perceived the organizational interventions quite positively. On the contrary, the Indian managers seem less positive about the initiatives offered by the companies. There were some good initiatives offered in the Indian companies but they were not up to the mark according to the managers. The overall situation in Indian companies suggests that still lot has to be done in this area. A few German and Indian managers thought that the organizational interventions helped them personally to grow in career. This leads to a satisfactory answer to the RQ7 (Which work-life balance intervention programs are available in German & Indian companies? Do they help in career advancement of respective managers?).

Discussion

The women oriented program was offered in both the countries; that encouraged women employees to work. Another similarity was seen for vacations and leaves offered in both the countries. The maternity leave was offered by all the German and the Indian companies. The analysis showed that the paternity leave is quite common in the German companies, as contrary to the Indian companies; which do not have this as a common practice. The differences were in the variety of facilities and also the frequency of facilities (if the facility was offered by all the organizations in respective countries). The facilities such as work from home, flexitime and sports activities were offered at all German companies but only IT and one Engineering company in India offered these facilities. It is not very obvious in the Indian companies to offer these facilities. Child care facilities and sabbaticals were offered in most of the German companies or some arrangements were made by the company to support parents with children. None of the Indian companies in this research offer such a facility. Some unique initiatives were also seen in both the countries e.g. job protection for women in Germany and loan facility for car or home offered by many Indian companies.

The ecological systems theory advocates a person-environment fit; which has its roots in the ecological theory, (Barnett, 1996 and Bronfenbrenner, 1986). Work-family experience is a result of a combination of process, person, context and time characteristics (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 1986, 1999; Bronfenbrenner & Ceci, 1994; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998). The ecological systems theory also proposes that an individual's work-family experience is affected by every characteristic in an additive or probably interactive way. The environment in the current context is the organizational environment; although the theorists originally do not limit the concept of environment only to organization. If the needs of the managers do not match the resources of the organizational environment; a misfit is inevitable. If the organizational initiatives such as work-family benefit policies or the other facilities offered are not matching the demands of managers, then such an organizational culture may be perceived less positively and that can affect the work-life balance of managers. A research on German office workers shows that the German employees have a good control over their work conditions and higher job security. This is a result of stronger labour unions and the role played by common agreements in Germany (Beham & Drobnič, 2010). The EU Directive 1993 on time allotted to work promoted greater flexibility with work timings in Europe and improved the criteria for yearly paid leaves and weekly work hours (Berg et al., 2004). This contributes quite a lot to the work-life balance of the German employees. Germany has many laws protecting the interests of working parents. These laws address the issues e.g. financial benefits, rights of working parents and maternity protection (Peus & Traut-Mattausch, 2008).

In the case of India between 1995 and 2000, the IT sector boomed and the organizations in this sector adopted the family related facilities as they are offered in the West (Devi, 2002). There have been efforts taken to address the work-family challenges faced on the individual level but there have been fewer interventions on the organizational level. In India there have been established laws that focus on work conditions for working men and women but laws that could have a direct influence on work-life balance are few and mainly focus on the organized sectors. Poor implementation of work-family policies is a reality in India (Rajadyaksha, 2012). Another research commenting on the current status of HR interventions in the Indian organizations (Baral & Bhargava, 2011) reveals that

family friendliness of employers can be observed through welfare provisions; which was a matter of concern since industrialization took place in India. It has been observed that these welfare provisions have become more person and family oriented and furthermore, such policies are seen to be more prominent in new economy organizations like software and service oriented organizations. It has been concluded in this research that a more supportive work-family culture needs to be created for employees in India.

5. Work-life Balance & Organizational Work-family Culture

The sub-codes of organizational work-family culture fell under the main code organizational interventions for work-life balance. It was a combination of sub-codes such as ‘organizational time demand’, ‘managerial support’, ‘positive attitudes towards organization’, ‘flexibility’ and ‘mentors’. So the total number of statements for organizational work-family culture comes to 90.

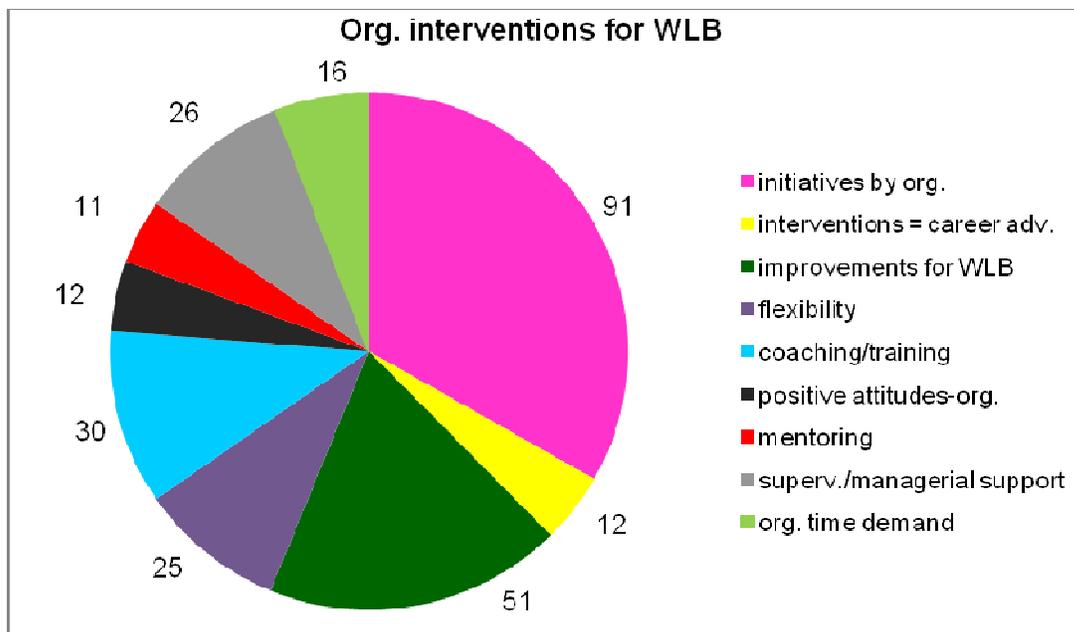


Figure 14. Sub-codes for organizational interventions for work-life balance and allocated statements.

After the organizational initiatives another important factor that may have an impact on work-life balance of managers is the work-family culture within the organizations. Work-family culture has been defined as “shared assumptions, beliefs, values regarding the extent to which an organization supports and values

the employees' integration of work-family" (Thompson et al., 1999, p. 394). In the current study it was important to consider this factor as it would lead to a clear understanding about how organizations promote and ease out the process of balancing work and life in Germany and in India. The earlier section introduced the different interventions provided by the companies to the employees. Such interventions are a part of the work-family culture a company functions in. This aspect was not directly measured as one factor in the qualitative part of research but data analysis resulted in many sub-codes that can shed light on the work-family culture of the organizations involved in this study. Sub-codes such as organizational time demand, managerial support, positive attitudes towards organization, flexibility and mentors contribute to the organizational culture that supports German & Indian managers to integrate work and family lives.

i) Organizational time demand - This sub-code included statements that reflected how the work-timings were perceived by managers. The German managers mentioned positive statements about the working hours, therefore the organizational time demand seems satisfactory. On the contrary, the Indian managers mentioned more negative comments about the working hours; which shows that the organizational time demand was higher. Example statements:

"It is very good here. The culture is that you are working at normal ranges from 8 to 5. It is good for me as the big bosses are also working maximum 10 hours."

(Female, Interview 6, Germany, Statement 14)

"Although we have specified working hours, it is like a habit for the employees or the culture we have developed to work more than the specified time. The working hours are between 9 and 6; it is not always followed strictly."

(Male, Interview 1, Indian, Statement 38)

ii) Managerial support – Managerial support includes help from the supervisors. This aspect was mentioned equally by the German as well as the Indian managers. Both the groups of managers were quite satisfied with the kind of support they received from the management. Example statements:

“I really put a lot of credit to the boss one has. Your boss or ex-boss can recommend you or push you. I can continue working from home for example and that always worked with my boss. ”

(Female, Interview 5, Germany, Statement 19)

“I talked to my boss regarding working part-time and I was thrilled that my manager looked at it positively and he kind of gave me those roles or one of those processes, which did not need a full-time commitment.”

(Female, Interview 3, India, Statement 22)

iii) Flexibility – The flexibility aspect was related to time and place of work, way of structuring work/schedule and flexibility in decision making. Statements that reflected similar concepts like freedom, independence, and openness were also analysed together under the broad category of flexibility. Flexibility on the part of family was also mentioned. The German managers seem to have a greater flexibility regarding work times, place of work (work from home) and also decision making. Flexibility was mentioned more often by the German managers (11 out of 12) as compared to Indian managers. Indian managers (4 out of 12) experience less flexibility in their work. Example statements:

“For me it is most beneficial to have freedom and to be able to structure my life and say here are my limits; this much I am willing to do for my work, my career. When I cannot come home early, my family understands”.

(Female, Interview 5, Germany, Statement 26)

“My family puts no pressure on me. This freedom given by my family is important”.

(Female, Interview 8, Germany, Statement 36)

“Being flexible in work, I am able to cope with work-life.”

(Female, Interview 8, India, Statement 8)

iv) Mentors – The German and the Indian managers mentioned the importance of having a mentor or a coach. It was mentioned more often by German managers than Indian managers. The Indian companies who provide mentoring facilities

belong to the IT sector and engineering sector and are multi-national companies. Example statements:

“I have a good coach. My boss is a good coach, also a family man. And that helps a lot. He understands my situation much better.”

(Male, Interview 7, Germany, Statement 59)

“I have seen people, who have got good mentors and the mentors can really understand their problems in work. These mentors can also transfer you to good teams where you can enjoy work. That is a very healthy relationship I feel. I mean such ideas should be there in every organization.”

(Female, Interview 8, India, Statement 98)

v) Positive attitudes towards organization – The German and the Indian managers found their organizational culture was quite favourable. Many of them also mentioned that the organization has improved in the last few years. Example statements:

“My fun is very closely related to the company. Managing work-life here is better than many other companies.”

(Female, Interview 6, Germany, Statement 14)

“It has been a lot better since many years ago and I am happy that many initiatives for employees are being talked about these days and also promoted in our company.”

(Female, Interview 3, India, Statement 18)

The above group of sub-codes when interpreted together reflect a few aspects of work-family culture in the German and the Indian organizations. Work-family culture has a positive relation with work-life balance of managers. Overall, the German and the Indian managers believe that a favourable environment in the organization helps them to integrate work and life. Various criteria of favourable work-family culture were mentioned in the interviews which have been explained in the above section. In general, the statements imply that favourable work-family

culture in organizations is positively related to work-life balance. More favourable the work-family culture better is the work-life balance of managers.

Discussion

In this section of organizations' role in work-life balance of managers, it can be seen that a variety of initiatives were taken in the German and the Indian companies. The organizational initiatives created a favourable picture about the work-family culture of an organization. The work-family enrichment theory postulates five types of resources that can be generated in role A (work) as organizational work-family culture is being analysed; which can improve quality of life in role B (family). The organizational work-family culture, according to the interviewees, includes managerial support, flexibility, perspectives or positive attitudes towards organization. The work-family enrichment theory also sees these components of work-family culture as resources generated; which can promote higher quality in another role. A resource is conceived as "an asset that be utilized when a problem needs to be solved or used to cope with a challenging situation" (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 80). A fundamental part in enrichment process is resource generation (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Grzywacz, 2002). Thus, the theory helps to understand why work-family culture can be instrumental in work-family enrichment process.

Some additional factors of positive work-family culture that emerged from the current study show that, the German as well as the Indian managers perceive their companies to be encouraging them to balance work and life. After a closer analysis it was found that the Indian managers agree to this fact but there are also negative statements mentioned. The Indian managers experienced higher time demand at work, less flexibility as compared to the German managers and demanded more support such as facilities like mentoring. The favourable criteria for work-family culture according to managers in this study were helpful in striking a balance between work and life. This relation is quite important as employees in any company, if they feel that work culture is supportive to their needs, they are willing to avail the work-life related initiatives or programs that are available in their companies. This relation has been supported by Thompson et al. (1999), in their study on 276 managers and professionals and found out that perceptions of a

supportive work-family culture were related to employees' use of work-family benefits. A supportive and favourable work-family culture creates emotional attachment as the employees feel their needs are heard and that they are accepted at work; which leads to positive affect toward work. When a positive transfer from work to family occurs, employees' performance in their family is also improved (Wayne et al. 2006).

An Indian study on work-life balance matches with the finding from the current study. Chandra (2012) has confirmed that in the Western countries the organizational culture is more sensitive towards the employees and rank higher as compared to the Indian companies in catering to the needs of employees regarding work-life balance. Furthermore, when Indian work culture was compared to the western work culture by Rao and Indla (2010), they report that in the Indian work culture people who work long hours, meet clients' demands at any costs, opt for work on weekends, answer work related emails from home, take fewer leaves, shorter vacations are considered as the ideal workers and this encourages them to prioritize work over family; which are actually barriers of work-life balance. In the western culture such interference is observed to a lesser extent. Thus, the Indian managers from this current study may perceive the work-family culture as not up to the mark as compared to the German managers.

Improvements for work-life balance & need for work-family enrichment training

Earlier in this section, it was presented how organizations take efforts to create a favourable environment for the managers to ease the process of balancing work and life. It was also presented that favourable organizational work-family culture leads to positive work-life balance of managers. In spite of these results, the managers in Germany and India have suggested some improvements regarding work-life facilities at their workplaces. Considering these suggestions is essential, as these can be regarded as guidelines for the organizations, which are open to change and which believe in amelioration of their employees. In general, it was observed while analysing this section, that the German managers have less suggestions than the Indian managers. The Indian managers from the IT sector had specific suggestions involving smart allocation of work roles as they have to

work according to the time zones that are quite different than the Indian time zone. Secondly, the Indian managers expect better communication with the HR department. The Indian managers from other companies suggested child care facilities, more training facilities, work-family initiatives involving families (e.g. family get-togethers for all employees), promoting work-life balance and promoting women employees; in general, making the employee benefits more visible so that employees are aware of the facilities. The German managers would like to have more opportunities of sabbatical, more places for child care and develop better models for smoother retirement.

One of the most important applications of this cross-country research is to find out, if training related to bi-directional work-family enrichment would help the managers. The content analysis shows that almost all Indian managers believed that a training related to bi-directional work-family enrichment would help them and that they were ready to learn from an expert. On the contrary, most German managers believed that enrichment related training would be most suitable for younger managers. This analysis answers RQ9 (What improvements related to organizational work-life balance initiatives are suggested by German and Indian managers? Would training help managers to go on a work-family enrichment path?).

Discussion

The difference in the suggestions for improvements can be explained as the Indian managers were more vocal about their needs than the German managers and also that the Indian managers received less work-life balance related support from organizations as discussed in SECTION I. 4. The analysis of interviews also showed that the German managers were quite satisfied about how organizations are helping them to strike a balance. Therefore, their suggestions were not too many as they basically had facilities like sports, child care but suggested that there should be a higher amount of these facilities. But in case of India, only some managers were satisfied with the efforts taken by the organizations as seen in SECTION I. 4. Therefore, the Indian managers had many suggestions for improvements and also the interviews showed that the facilities

such as child care, job protection for female employees etc. were not present in the Indian organizations.

Regarding the bi-directional work-family enrichment training, most German managers believed that they did not require the training at their position, but they recommended it at the beginning of the career. This recommendation is acceptable because for individuals at the start of their career, if they have family responsibilities especially small children, it could be quite a challenge to integrate work and family. This life stage is also full of challenges and individuals may lack experience and knowledge about how they can integrate work and family positively. Another reason for the German managers not agreeing to go for enrichment training is that training and coaching were also more common in German companies than in Indian companies as per the current study. Therefore, the German managers at some point in their careers may have had the opportunity to discuss the work-life issues with their coaches. And some German managers also thought that they already know how to balance, so training would not help them. The Indian managers were quite willing to undergo training for work-family enrichment as they consider being flexible and being eager to learn as important success factors; which can be inferred from the sub-code 'learning attitude' in SECTION II. 7. The Indian managers seem to have the learning attitude more than the German managers. Therefore, the Indian managers seemed ready to go for work-family enrichment training.

Summary

The goal of this section was to elaborate on the aspects of the organization; which create a positive environment within the company, so that the employees can efficiently manage their work and life. A description of various organizational initiatives was presented followed by the aspects of work-family culture in the companies. In case of organizational initiatives, as expected the German companies are quite ahead of the Indian companies. It was found out that German managers receive more work-life balance related support from companies as compared to the Indian managers. Another goal of establishing a positive relation between work-life balance and organizational work-family culture was also achieved. The managers perceive that the work-family culture in their companies

was quite favourable for balancing work-life but differences regarding time demand, flexibility and mentoring facilities should be noted. And finally, improvements for better work-life balance at work suggested by managers were explained along with the differences in Germany and India. It was also found that Indian managers would be willing to undergo work-family enrichment training and German managers would rather recommend such training to junior employees.

SECTION II

Secondary results

The secondary results include those qualitative results that are not directly related to the research questions. The results presented in this section are also important but can be understood and interpreted along with main results explained in the earlier section of results and discussion. Two main codes along with their sub-codes presented in the Table 33 are considered supportive to the research questions.

Table 33.

Supportive main codes and sub-codes for German & Indian managers.

Main code	Sub-code	Statements
6. Career success	Career success	42
	Personal factors	72
	Organizational factors	50
	Career development	109
	Career advancement	71
	Career satisfaction	20
	Managing team	14
	Peers support	5
7. Self development	Self development	15
	Learning attitude	46
	Performance	10
	Work experience	8
	Leadership	5

6. Career Success

According to Seibert and Kraimer (2001) accumulated positive work and psychological outcomes that result from an individual's work experiences lead to

career success. Inclusion of this umbrella term 'career success' is quite appropriate in this research because the goal was to establish positive relations between work-life balance and two career aspects of managers. Exploring how managers understand the concept of career success and what determinants of success in career are mentioned by them gave an insight into the relationship of work-life balance and career success. Career success for this research includes career advancement and career satisfaction.

The managers during the interview were encouraged to define career success and also express which factors are important for success in career. Career success according to the German and the Indian managers was recognition of their work by seniors and colleagues, monetary gains, higher responsibility in the work profile, enjoying work, and learning involved in the work profile. This is also consistent with a study on career success related personal concepts of managers at different ages (Sturges, 1999). The German managers had additional success factors such as networking and creativity. Having professional and personal networks or contacts helped managers. Networking is a success factor which is also confirmed by Kirchmeyer (1998); von Véver (2009) and (Gaskill, 1991) and getting to create something new at work; which is seen as a success factor in research conducted by Sturges (1999). The Indian managers too had additional success factors such as satisfaction with job and contributing to the organization through their work consistent with results from another career success study (Sturges, 1999). The interviewees were asked about the organizational and the personal determinants for career success. The most important organizational success factors mentioned by both groups were opportunities given by organization to perform (also confirmed by Gaskill, 1991 and von Véver, 2009); supervisor support (also confirmed by Kirchmeyer, 1998), peers support (also confirmed by Kirchmeyer, 1998), organizational culture (also confirmed by Aycan, 2004; von Véver, 2009; Shah, 2010). Mentoring as a success factor (also confirmed by Kirchmeyer, 1998; von Véver, 2009; Gaskill, 1991) was mentioned only by the German managers.

The most important personal success factors mentioned by both groups were job relevant skills such as communication skills (also confirmed by von Véver, 2009; Shah, 2010), technical or job related skills (also confirmed by Gaskill,

1991), social skills and family support (also confirmed by Kirchmeyer 1998; Aycan, 2004). Family support (described by Kirchmeyer (1998) as a family determinant of managerial success) was mentioned more often by the Indian managers than the German managers. The German managers also mentioned standing up for what one wants is very important personal quality that leads to success.

6.1. Career development, career advancement and career satisfaction.

Career development sub-code consists of descriptions of the managers' career story. They expressed how the journey of career from their first job to their latest job occurred. This sub-code helped to interpret the respective managers' opinions or beliefs (statements), therefore this sub-code was not considered as results. In the research of career success, there is evidence that career success is operationalized as objective (Gutteridge, 1973) and subjective career success (Judge et al., 1995). The variables that measure objective success are namely salary and number of promotions; which are evaluated by others (Judge et al., 1995) and the variables for subjective success are namely job or career satisfaction; which are a person's subjective judgements (Judge et al., 1999). When asked if managers think they have advanced in their careers the German as well as the Indian managers responded instantly that they had advanced in their careers and seemed fulfilled with this facet of their career. They also expressed their ideas of what advancement meant to them. Career advancement for the German and the Indian managers meant more monetary gains referred to as salary by Thorndike (1934), greater responsibility, broadening of knowledge related to work, being promoted to a higher post; these components of career advancement are consistent with Thorndike (1963).

The managers' ideas about career satisfaction were not direct questions. Career satisfaction basically meant enjoying the work related tasks. They expressed their satisfaction for career in the flow of talking about career success as a whole. The Indian managers mentioned career satisfaction to be important for career advancement more often than the German managers. The reason could be that the Indian managers see a close positive link between career advancement and career satisfaction. It is evident from a study on individualism/collectivism and its relationship with job satisfaction, that the collectivist employees

show higher job satisfaction as compared to the individualist employees (Hui et al., 1995; Hui & Yee, 1999). Considering the fact, that India is a collectivist country and Germany being individualist country, the above mentioned study supports the relationship between career satisfaction and career advancement. Thus, higher level of job satisfaction can be linked with career advancement and this linkage is seen to be experienced by the Indian managers more than the German managers.

6.2 Managing team and peers support.

The success factors and sub-codes 'managing team' and 'peers support' were among the least relevant sub-codes. They were mentioned by the managers because they had a small role to play in managers' careers. 'Managing a team' was seen as a learning experience by the managers and success of the team somehow led to a feeling of accomplishment. Success of the team meant success of the managers themselves. 'Peers support' was also mentioned, as it contributes to a favourable culture in the team or in the department managers worked. Consistent with this result is the research by Kirchmeyer (1998) who confirms 'peers support' as organizational determinant of managerial success. Another meta-analysis reveals that co-worker support leads to favourable work attitudes also showing that co-worker support is one of the facets of workplace support (Ng & Sorensen, 2008).

7. Self Development

The main code self development is comprised of sub-codes such as self development, learning attitude, performance, work experiences and leadership. These sub-codes reflect aspects of personal development that some German and Indian managers mentioned as important in career success. Self development included statements that showed how development of skills, developing knowledge related to work is quite important. Improvements in self that contributed to career success namely keeping oneself updated about the work, growing through negative experiences, and retrospection of oneself were mentioned by the German and Indian managers. Self development aspect was mentioned by the Indian managers more than the German managers. Learning attitude was reflected through eagerness for further education to succeed in career or learning languages for better prospects in career. Learning attitude seemed very important

for managers but Indian managers were more eager to learn newer skills or seemed more open to learning associated with their work. This finding is consistent with a Turkish study on success factors for women (Aycan, 2004) and with an Indian study (Shah, 2010). Other sub-codes such as work experience (also confirmed by Shah, 2010), leadership (also confirmed by von Véver, 2009) and performance (also confirmed by von Véver (2009), Shah, 2010) were considered as success factors; which helped managers in both the countries to grow in their careers.

Summary

Career success definitions were quite similar for German and Indian managers and various success factors were mentioned by both the group of managers that contributed to their success in career. Some differences were seen in the organizational and personal success factors of German and Indian managers. Many success factors that were found in the current study have been supported by other research studies except for social skills, standing up for one's opinions and managing team. These three success factors are contributory to the career success research. Many aspects of self development were mentioned by the German and the Indian managers. The differences between success factors for the German and the Indian managers were presented.

SECTION III

8. General observations in qualitative analysis.

8.1. Gender differences.

All the details that are explained in the following section are to be considered as a tendency; which was observed while analysing the qualitative data. Due to the small sample size (N = 13 female managers; N = 11 male managers), it would be inappropriate to consider these as concrete findings.

i) Work-family enrichment – Enrichment from work to family i.e. skills, emotions, knowledge gained at work are transferred positively and improve the role

performance in family, was seen slightly higher for female managers (100%) than male managers (83%) both in Germany and in India.

ii) Family-work enrichment – Enrichment from family to work i.e. skills, knowledge, mood gained in the family are transferred positively to the work domain and this makes the individual a better worker, was seen much higher in female managers (100%) than male managers (58%) both in Germany and in India.

iii) Work-life balance & career advancement – The importance of work-life balance in career advancement was higher for female managers (100%) as compared to male managers (83%) in Germany as well as in India.

iv) Barriers encountered balancing work and life – As expected a tendency of gender related differences was observed in Germany and in India. It was predicted that in both the countries the female managers would encounter more obstacles than the male managers. The analysis revealed that the female managers (100%) had more barriers balancing work and life than the male managers (50%). The German female managers expressed more work-related obstacles than German male managers such as less flexibility with work timings, issues regarding part-time work and negative attitudes towards part-time work and balancing work life along with children seems quite difficult too. The Indian female managers mentioned social barriers in balancing work and life, which were not mentioned at all by the Indian male managers. These social barriers were mainly related to gender role norms. A deeper investigation of gender differences must be carried out in the future.

v) Career success: career advancement and career satisfaction - Regarding career satisfaction 83% of the female managers as opposed to 67% of the male managers were satisfied with their careers. Regarding career advancement, interviews showed that the male and the female managers advanced equally. Any further explanation of these differences is beyond the scope of this research as the sample size is unfortunately too small to lead to any reliable conclusion. A bigger sample size would probably give a deeper insight into the gender differences for career success, career advancement and career satisfaction. Thus, the related question cannot be answered based only on a general tendency

cannot be answered based only on a general tendency (Will there be gender differences in career success: career advancement and career satisfaction? Will gender difference play a role also in the work-life balance related barriers encountered by managers in Germany and India?).

Summary of the Chapter

The results and discussion section of qualitative method presented the findings from the qualitative content analysis; which was carried out following the approach and techniques of Mayring (2000). The three sections within the chapter 5b were presented according to the importance of results. SECTION I presented most relevant and most important results that supported the relevant research questions. SECTION II presented secondary results that were supportive to research questions in the quantitative section. SECTION III presented a mere tendency observed regarding gender differences. All the finding in the SECTIONS I & II were discussed using empirical inputs from studies conducted in various cultures along with studies conducted in German and Indian cultures.

CHAPTER 6

6. Integrating Quantitative and Qualitative Results

Goals of the chapter: To use the mixed methods approach in integrating the findings from two methods. Secondly, the goal is to interpret the matching results from quantitative and qualitative methods. Thirdly, to interpret and give plausible explanations for the conflicting results those emerging from the two methods.

Research combining qualitative and quantitative methods is gaining much popularity in the recent years (Bryman, 2006). Such methodology is also called as mixed methods (Creswell, 2003). The discussion about integration of methods has resulted in typologies of the mixed methods. Creswell (2003) has pointed out the usefulness of these typologies; where such typologies depict the thoroughness of the research being conducted and also clarify the researcher's objective to others. Some aspects of mixed methods mentioned by Bryman (2006) are also applicable to the current two-country study. For an integrated understanding of the results from the quantitative and the qualitative methods of this study, it is essential to mention here some mixed method related aspects. The purpose of mixing qualitative and quantitative method is done for the current study through complementarity approach (Greene, 1987; Greene & McClintock, 1985).

As Greene, Caracelli & Graham (1989) have pointed out "in a complementarity mixed-method study the qualitative and the quantitative methods are used to measure overlapping but also different facets of a phenomenon, yielding an enriched, elaborated understanding of that phenomenon." (p. 258). When quantitative and qualitative results are seen together, it can be inferred that some relationships that are being studied have been supported by both the methods but each method has also supported different aspects of the relationships in question. For the data analysis, in general, the complementarity purpose of mixing methods is considered appropriate, if the objective of the researcher is to increase the meaningfulness and interpretability (Greene et al., 1989) of the results. This approach is suitable for the current two-country study as the first method (quantitative) was used to establish and quantify the relationships.

The second method (qualitative) was used to explore and elaborate on the relationships that were quantitatively established and also explore the ones that did not gain any statistical significance. The second method (qualitative) also clarified up to some extent the results from first method (quantitative) (Greene et al., 1989). Johnson & Turner (2003) have proposed a 'fundamental principle of mixed methods'; wherein the function of mixed methods is to combine methods that have corresponding strengths and non-related weakness.

A framework for enhancing the interpretation of the significant results of quantitative-based research has been recommended by (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004). They suggest how qualitative data can assist in interpreting quantitative data results. Sequential mixed analysis is one of the recommended ways of enhancing the interpretative power of quantitative results with the support of qualitative data. A sequential mixed analysis is conceived as "multiple approaches to data collection, analysis, and inference are employed in a sequence of phases" (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, p. 149-150). One of the features of such an analysis is that data analysis often begins prior to the completion of the data collection (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004). When quantitative data analysis is followed by qualitative data analysis it is called as a 'sequential quantitative-qualitative analysis' (Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie, 2003).

In case of this Indo-German study, the data was collected sequentially i.e. quantitative data through an online survey was collected in the first phase. This was followed by the basic statistical analysis such as independent t-test and correlation; which gave a preliminary idea of how the relationships in quantitative data looked like. This basic analysis helped to conceive the direction of qualitative semi-structured interviews. The relationships that were established in the quantitative part could be understood in a greater detail through a qualitative exploration. The relationships that were not established in quantitative part; were addressed through the open-ended interview questions and the qualitative data analysis was expected to reveal if these relationships receive some support from the responses of the interviewees.

As explained earlier in this section, the qualitative data analysis i.e. findings from qualitative semi-structured interviews support the understanding and the

interpretation of the quantitative findings. As this study can be placed in the category of 'sequential quantitative-qualitative analysis', findings from four different statistical methods are interpreted together with the content analysis.

6.1. Matching findings in the mixed method approach.

6.1.1. Work-family enrichment and family-work enrichment.

The findings from the quantitative statistical analysis for the bi-directional enrichment dimensions revealed that enrichment from work to family and family to work was experienced by German and Indian managers (see Quantitative section 1.3.). Furthermore, statistical analysis revealed that work-family enrichment and family-work enrichment were significantly correlated (see Quantitative section 2.1.). The qualitative content analysis reveals how exactly the German and the Indian managers experienced enrichment in both directions. The interviewees provide concrete examples of enrichment in both directions (see Qualitative section 1.1.iii. and 1.2.iii.).

The understanding of enrichment experiences was deepened through qualitative exploration as positive and negative impact of work on family and family on work was expressed in the interviews. The enrichment is further divided into sub-dimensions such as affect, development, capital and efficiency in the original psychological test (Carlson et al., 2006). The qualitative content analysis helps to understand how exactly the enrichment process functions for the German and the Indian managers. For example specific statements were mentioned by the interviewees about how skills, perspectives, knowledge gained at work helped them become a better family member (work-family development) (see Qualitative section 1.1.1. and 1.2.). Therefore, work-family and family-work enrichment has received support from the mixed method approach; which attempts to give a whole picture of the enrichment process and moreover it implies that work experiences have improved the quality of family life for German & Indian managers and vice versa (Carlson et al., 2006; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Wayne et al., 2006; Ayree et al., 2005 and Baral & Bhargava, 2010). The quantitative findings show that work-family enrichment was experienced more by the female managers as compared to the male managers (see Quantitative section 1.4.2.). The qualitative content analysis weakly supports this finding as it revealed that work-family

enrichment was seen slightly higher for female managers (100%) than male managers (83%) both in Germany and in India (see Qualitative section III.i.). This support has to be considered weak as this is only a tendency observed in qualitative interpretation because the female sample is quite small for any inferences.

6.1.2. Organizational work-family culture.

Organizational work-family culture comprised of managerial support, organizational time demand and negative career consequences (Thompson et al., 1999).

6.1.2.1. Managerial support - The quantitative analysis showed that there was no significant difference in the managerial support German and Indian managers received (see Quantitative section 1.2.). Therefore, it could be assumed that there may be a similarity in both the groups, meaning that German and Indian managers received managerial support equally in their organizations. The qualitative content analysis (see Qualitative section I.5.ii.) also shows that 'managerial support' was mentioned equally by both the German and the Indian managers, also showing that they were very satisfied with the support they got from supervisors and management. The mixed method approach is applicable to this aspect of work-family culture as the finding from the qualitative analysis confirms the finding from the quantitative statistical analysis implying that German and Indian managers perceived that the management was supportive to their work-family needs.

6.1.2.2. Organizational time demand - The second component of work-family culture is the organizational time demand. The quantitative statistical analysis significantly showed that organizational time demand was higher for the Indian managers than the German managers (see Quantitative section 1.2.). This result is in line with the qualitative results of the current study (see Qualitative section I.5.i.). The Indian managers mentioned a higher time demand meaning that they worked more than the specified time. As compared to the Indian managers, German managers mentioned positive statements regarding time demand, showing that the time demand was suitable for them. Thus, the mixed method approach is suitable to this component of work-family culture implying that the Indian managers have the habit of working for more number of hours than

expected and the German managers seem to consider the time demand appropriate.

6.1.2.3. Organizational career consequences - The third component is negative career consequences. The quantitative findings showed that there was no significant difference in Germany and India (see Quantitative section 1.2.). It can be assumed that the negative effects of utilizing the benefits could be quite similar for German and Indian managers. There were no statements regarding negative career consequences mentioned by managers in the qualitative interviews. One reason could be that, in general, both the group of managers perceived their organizational work-family culture quite positively; although the German managers perceived it more positively than Indian managers (see Qualitative section I.5. 'Discussion part'). It may imply that there is a similarity in the consequences (negative effect on size of salary, negative performance ratings, negative effect on promotions etc. Judiesch & Lyness, 1999) faced by German and Indian managers for using the work-family benefits. The mixed method approach helps to understand this phenomenon better as the qualitative interviews confirm that negative career consequences for utilizing work-family benefits are seen to be similar in Germany and India.

6.1.2.4. Organizational work-family culture & career advancement - The negative yet significant relationship between organizational work-family culture and career advancement has been established through quantitative investigation (see Quantitative section 2.7.) only for the Indian managers. It means that career advances, in spite of unfavourable work-family culture in the Indian organizations. To support this statistical finding, the qualitative interviews revealed the situation of work-family culture in the Indian organizations. As compared to the work-family culture in German organizations, the work-family culture in Indian organizations is perceived not up to the mark by the Indian managers as they experienced higher organizational time demand, less flexibility with work-time and work-place and demanded more mentoring facilities (Qualitative section I. 5.). Interviews confirm that Indian managers have advanced in their careers (Qualitative section II. 6.1.). The mixed method approach has attempted to confirm the quantitative results with the help of the qualitative results. This relationship implies that the Indian

managers can overcome the barrier of unfavourable work-family environment and advance in their career.

The three components of work-family culture presented above were investigated through the quantitative research. The qualitative content analysis revealed some more facets of the organizational work-family culture. The additional facets of the work-family culture in German and Indian organizations such as initiatives taken by the organizations for facilitating the work-life balance process, positive attitudes towards organization and improvements regarding work-life balance facilities were explored in the interviews. The statistical analyses and the qualitative exploration showed differences and similarities in work-family culture of German and Indian companies. Thus, a mixed method approach enhanced the understanding of the organizational work-family culture.

6.1.3. Career success.

In the current study, career success is operationalized through objective measures (career advancement) and subjective measures (career satisfaction).

6.1.3.1. Career advancement - Career advancement was measured quantitatively through a three item scale developed by Tharenou (1999); which consisted of three predictors namely salary, hierarchical level and number of promotions. The qualitative exploration of this aspect was done through direct questions addressing the definition of career success; the personal and the organizational factors for career success; and finally the perception of managers about their career advancement; which are some additional facets of career success. Thus, the mixed method approach served the purpose of elaborating on the concept of career advancement by shedding light on similarities and differences in career advancement of German and Indian managers. The quantitative analysis showed that German and Indian managers did not differ significantly on this aspect (see Quantitative section 1.1.). There is a possibility of assuming that the careers of the German and the Indian managers advanced similarly. The content analysis also confirms that managers from both the countries believed that they have advanced in their careers and were quite content with the career advancement (see Qualitative section II.6.1.). The mixed method approach thus adds meaning to the aspect of career advancement.

6.1.3.2. Career satisfaction – Career satisfaction is measured quantitatively through a five item scale developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990). The qualitative exploration revealed that job satisfaction, work satisfaction and career satisfaction were used synonymously by the interviewees and also indirectly revealed that managers expressed the importance of job satisfaction or work satisfaction in the flow of talking about career success. For the managers career satisfaction basically meant enjoying the work related tasks. The qualitative analysis supports the findings from quantitative analysis, as satisfaction was seen to play an important role in career success. The quantitative statistical analysis revealed that the German managers were more satisfied with their careers as compared to the Indian managers (see Quantitative section 1.1.). The qualitative interviews give a deeper meaning to this fact as some aspects of organizational culture namely freedom at work (can also be interpreted as autonomy), opportunities provided by supervisors and getting to do interesting work seemed important for the German managers to be satisfied in their work. On the other hand, the Indian managers in the interviews mentioned about having less flexibility with work as compared to the German managers; which may affect the Indian managers' satisfaction level of work (see Qualitative section I.5.iii.). Thus, the mixed method approach enhanced the interpretation of the findings because the qualitative analysis confirms the findings of quantitative analysis.

6.2. Conflicting findings in the mixed method approach.

The integration of findings from the two methods employed in one study may not turn out to be problem-free. The issue of consistency has been very well addressed in the literature (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2008). Bryman (2007) also reported that integrating results from different methods is rather difficult and the researcher may come across several hurdles. Slonim-Nevo & Nevo (2008) in their effort of dealing with the conflicting findings have also highlighted the issue of inconsistencies. They have reported that “inconsistent findings constitute an unsurpassable challenge for researchers only insofar as the inconsistency in question is logical, not otherwise” (p. 110). Their distinction between contradictory findings and conflicting findings is very helpful in shaping the integration and interpretation of findings from two methods used in the current study. They explain

that “contradictions are logically impossible and are logical inconsistencies” (p.110) meaning that results cannot be positive or negative at the same time. “Conflicts are very much possible and are basically discrepancies” (p.110). Thus, applying this logic to the current Indo-German study, the results seem to be conflicting rather than contradictory. The complementary approach for inconsistent findings is applicable to the current study; which specifies that conflicts are not to be interpreted as contradictions but conflicting results can be made sense of (Erzberger & Kelle, 2003; Lancy, 1993; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2008).

The occurrence of conflicting findings while combining two methods should not be viewed as a shortcoming; rather it should be viewed as valuable information; which would have been lost otherwise. Such conflicting results may lead to newer perspectives of the phenomenon being studied (Greene, 2007; Lancy, 1993; Richardson, 2000; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2008). In social research, complementary approach postulates that conflicting results can be integrated consistently (Slonim-Nevo & Nevo, 2008). Similarly, for the current two-country study there were a few conflicting findings. The actual conflicting findings and the plausible explanations are presented below.

6.2.1. Bi-directional enrichment & career success - The quantitative statistical analysis showed that there was a non-significant relationship between work-family enrichment and career advancement; and between family-work enrichment and career advancement. There was also a non-significant relationship between work-family enrichment and career satisfaction; and between family-work enrichment and career satisfaction (see Quantitative section 2.5.). Interestingly, the qualitative interviews confirm a positive relationship between bi-directional enrichment and career advancement. The German and Indian managers experienced that what they learn at work does help them to become better family members and this helps their career growth (see Qualitative section I.1.1.iv.). Furthermore, interviews confirm that managers experienced family-work enrichment and this helped them to advance in career (see Qualitative section I.1.2.iv.). This discrepancy in the findings can be attributed to the type of sampling that was carried out for quantitative and qualitative sections. The managers who participated in the online survey were not the same as the ones who were interviewed. The online survey was sent to a large number of prospective

participants and due to the confidentiality rule; it was not possible to keep a track of who all participated in the quantitative survey. Therefore, potential interviewees were selected from the researcher's personal network. Thus, the discrepancy in the findings seems quite obvious in this context.

Another explanation is that, when participants filled out the online survey, they based their responses on a 5-point and 7-point Likert scale of agreement-disagreement. But when they were asked about their opinions or experiences they were elaborate and expressed themselves freely; which may point out other aspects of the phenomena being studied, as compared to their survey responses, which cannot be directly compared with survey results. Due to this basic difference in the methods, the findings are likely to not match while attempting to integrate them. Such a problem has also been described and confirmed by (Slonim-Nevo & Nevo, 2008).

So what should one get out of this explanation? How should one interpret these conflicting results? An extreme caution is recommended while interpreting such conflicting results. There could be two plausible ways of interpreting the conflicting results. A plausible supposition is that there is no positive relation between work-family/family-work enrichment and career success because of non-significant findings in the quantitative analysis. A solution is that the relation between these dimensions must be quantitatively and qualitatively reanalysed (as this study is a sequential quantitative-qualitative analysis). Based on the results derived from the reanalysis of quantitative part, a new qualitative investigation should be designed and then the findings from this new mixed study must be integrated. Another supposition would be that work-family enrichment and family-work enrichment are positively related with career advancement as the qualitative analysis shows; a further quantitative speculation is needed. This could be done, firstly, by using a different set of psychological scales to measure these constructs and secondly, by improving the sampling process in the future, that is qualitative interviews should be conducted by randomly selecting participants from the quantitative survey.

6.2.2. Career advancement & career satisfaction – It is quite interesting to see how this relationship is articulated in the German and the Indian sample. In case of the German sample, career advancement and career satisfaction were positively significantly correlated (see Quantitative section 2.4.). But this relationship was not observed for the German managers in the qualitative interviews. On the other hand, in case of the Indian sample career advancement and career satisfaction there was a positive yet non-significant relation in the quantitative analysis (see Quantitative section 2.6.). Surprisingly, the Indian managers expressed in the interviews that career satisfaction is important to advance in their careers; which could be interpreted as a positive relation (see Qualitative section II.6.1.). One probable reason for these non-matching findings could be found in the cultural dimension of individualism-collectivism. Research on individualism and collectivism reports that collectivist cultures especially Indians highly express their positive and negative emotions and feelings as compared to individualist cultures (Laungani, 1995).

If this reason has to be applied to the current study, it implies that in interviews, the Indian managers may have been more vocal about their feelings and perceptions of career success than the German managers. However, for the German managers, this relation reflected in quantitative investigation. The difference in sampling and the differences in the two distinct approaches i.e. quantitative and qualitative methods as discussed in earlier section are also applicable here. The conflicting results regarding the positive relation between career advancement and career satisfaction in Germany and in India could be interpreted as the relation is visible in both countries; nevertheless through contrasting methods. A closer investigation of this phenomenon is recommended in both countries; which as discussed before could be done e.g. through using different psychological scales measuring the two constructs, and improving the sampling method.

6.2.3. Gender difference: career advancement - The quantitative statistical analysis showed that career advancement for male and female managers differed significantly. The male managers seemed to advance more than female managers (see Quantitative section 1.4.1.). In the qualitative interviews, when asked, if the managers think they have advanced in their careers the German as well as the

Indian managers responded instantly that they had advanced in their careers and seemed fulfilled with this facet of their career (see Qualitative section II. 6.1.). It is worth mentioning here that the gender difference seen in qualitative analysis has to be considered as a tendency observed because the sample size of the female managers is quite small (only 20%). This conflicting result could be attributed to the difference in the two methods employed and how they measure the construct career advancement.

The objective measure of career advancement (as measured in quantitative section) shows that there is a gender difference and the subjective ideas (explored through interviews) show that the male and female managers perceived themselves as advancing well in their careers. It implies that subjective experiences of career advancement make the female managers feel that they have advanced in their careers because their conception of career advancement may go beyond the three objective predictors of career advancement (salary, hierarchical level, number of promotions) used to measure in the current study. For the female managers, career advancement may not be just restricted to increase in salary, hierarchical level and being promoted; but it may encompass other predictors like increased responsibility of work or getting to work in another area other than their expertise. Therefore, qualitatively it can be inferred that they perceived themselves to have advanced in their career. But if only the objective measure of career advancement would have been considered, then it would lead to an inaccurate conclusion that the female managers did not advance in their careers as compared to the male managers. The objective criteria of career advancement are believed to be deficient as they do not address to all the aspects of success; meaning that attaining salary or promotions are not the only indicators of success (Campbell et al., 1970).

Thus, the mixed method approach proves extremely helpful in this aspect of career advancement, as the integrated interpretation reflects that male and female managers advanced in their careers but following different paths. It also means that the qualitative exploration allowed the reflection of conceptions of career advancement. Conclusively, restricting the research only to the objective measures may not prove to be beneficial when investigating career related advancement, especially, when gender differences are to be studied.

Summary of the Chapter

This chapter describes in detail the mixed method approach and how it applies to this Indo-German study. At the beginning of the chapter the exact purpose and category of the mixed methods approach is outlined. The next part of the chapter discusses about integrating the matching findings from quantitative and qualitative methods in the direction that qualitative results support the quantitative results. The last part of the chapter discusses the issue of conflicting findings and their integrated interpretation.

7. Conclusions & Remarkable Results

Goals of the chapter: To present the conclusions of the qualitative as well as the quantitative methods. The conclusions are presented for Germany and India together as this would facilitate a comparative interpretation of the findings. Furthermore, wherever applicable some remarkable results are also separately presented.

The aim of the doctoral research was to explore the various factors related to work-life balance, work-family enrichment and career success of German and Indian managers. This aim was achieved through a comparative quantitative research using an online survey consisting of a compilation of four psychological tests along with a comparative qualitative research consisting of semi-structured personal interviews in this sequence. Secondly, the exploration also included analysing the career success of managers and the organizational work-family cultures in specific German and Indian companies. Thirdly, the aim was also to discover if there is any relationship between work-life balance and career success and also between work-family enrichment and career success. Furthermore, the research aimed to uncover the similarities and differences that lie within the two countries; which can give an insight into the enriching experiences related to work-family, career success and work-life balance related aspects of the German and the Indian managers. Finally, this research aimed to find out if work-family enrichment based training would help managers to balance the two important domains i.e. work and life.

7.1. Work-life balance in Germany and in India.

i. Aspects of work-life balance.

Work-life balance and related aspects were explored only through qualitative interviews; which helped to uncover and understand various aspects in depth such as conceptions of work-life balance, benefits of balancing work-life, signs of work-life imbalance, strategies used for balancing work-life and lastly barriers encountered while balancing work-life. A single psychological test or a combination of tests would not have sufficed this exploration. The specific responses from the German & Indian managers revealed that clear definitions of

work-life balance emerged from the content analysis. The only difference that can be noted between German and Indian managers is the perception of work-life balance (see Qualitative section I.2.i.). Three kinds of benefits of work-life balance namely 'company-related benefits', 'family-related benefits' and 'personal benefits' were mentioned by the German and the Indian managers (see Qualitative section I.2.ii.). Four kinds of signs of work-life imbalance (see Qualitative section I.2.iii.) were mentioned by the managers; which were perceived as ill-effects on the organization, family, emotion/behaviour and health. The German and Indian managers also mentioned six work-life strategies namely 'prioritizing', 'time management', 'planning', 'goal setting', 'knowing one's boundaries' and 'communication' that helped them to strike a balance between work and life. The strategies used were quite similar in Germany and in India (see Qualitative section I.2.iv.). Five types of barriers in balancing work-life namely 'personal', 'work-related', 'social', 'technological' and 'infrastructural' were mentioned by both the groups of managers (see Qualitative section I.2.vi.). Only the Indian managers mentioned about social and infrastructural barriers; whereas technological barriers were mentioned only by the German managers. Overall, the interviews revealed that the German managers were more positive about work-life balance situation in Germany; whereas the Indian managers were less positive about the work-life balance situation in India and demanded improvements.

ii. Work-life balance and career success.

The importance of work-life balance in career advancement and career satisfaction (see Qualitative section I.2.v.) got some support from managers. The German as well as the Indian managers confirmed that work-life balance was important for growing in their careers implying that there is a tendency for (work-life) balanced managers to advance in careers. In case of career satisfaction, only the Indian managers found that work-life balance was important for being content with their work or job. The German managers did not mention about work-life balance and its relation to being satisfied in careers.

iii. Work-life balance and family dynamics.

The family dynamics of German and Indian managers (see Qualitative section I.3.) show some similarities that emerged from the content analysis

regarding the concept of family that is 'immediate family' and 'extended family'. Regarding household responsibilities and child care needs most of the German as well as the Indian managers agreed that these were shared responsibilities and that the sharing was equal. Both the groups of managers were quite satisfied with the quality time they spent with their families and some free-time activities the managers' families engaged in were quite similar in Germany and India. Family support was considered important by both the groups. Some differences between Germany and India were reflected in the role of family in work-life balance. For the German managers family support was mainly restricted to spouse's help; while for the Indian managers, along with the spouse, family members such as parents, siblings, in-laws etc. were considered as possibilities for help. This implies that as compared to German managers, the Indian managers have a variety of help available and a higher possibility of receiving family support to balance work-life.

iv. Organizational interventions for work-life balance.

The qualitative analysis revealed eight types of organizational initiatives (see Qualitative section I.4.) that facilitate the process of work-life balance for the German and the Indian managers. Less similarity and more differences between the German and the Indian organizations were observed. The German managers seemed to have a variety of initiatives at their disposal to ease the process of balancing work-life. By and large, the German managers perceived the organizational interventions quite positively. On the contrary, the Indian managers perceived the initiatives offered by the Indian companies less positively. According to the Indian managers, some good initiatives were offered in the Indian companies but they were not up to the mark. The overall situation in Indian companies suggested that still a lot has to be done in this area. A few German and Indian managers thought that the available organizational interventions helped them personally to grow in career. About the enrichment training opportunity, the German managers suggested that work-family enrichment training would be more suitable for younger German managers; while the Indian managers were willing to take up such training if made available to them.

Remarkable results: In the area of work-life balance some remarkable statements were expressed by the German and Indian managers describing the actualities of

the respective work-life balance cultures. These expressions of the German and the Indian managers clearly depict the positive and negative sides of work-life balance. Some Indian managers (25%) put family life even before work. For two male managers and one female manager family comes first! For some Indian managers, the strategy 'taking up every job/role' was seen to be useful in balancing work-life; which has not been reported by any other study yet; thus the current study contributes to the work-life balance research.

7.2. Work-family/family-work enrichment in Germany and in India.

Work-family enrichment and family-work enrichment was experienced by German and Indian managers (see Quantitative section 1.3.). Furthermore, statistical analysis revealed that work-family enrichment and family-work enrichment were significantly correlated (see Quantitative section 2.1.) and that family work-enrichment significantly predicted work-family enrichment (see Quantitative section 3.). The qualitative content analysis revealed how exactly German and Indian managers experienced the enrichment in both directions. The interviewees provided concrete examples of enrichment in both directions (see Qualitative section 1.1.iii. and 1.2.iii.). Overall, it can be concluded that the Indian managers experienced bi-directional enrichment on a higher level as compared to the German managers (see Quantitative section 1.3.).

i. Bidirectional enrichment and career success.

The quantitative statistical analysis showed that there was a non-significant relationship between work-family/family-work enrichment and career success (career satisfaction and career advancement) (see Quantitative section 2.5.). Interestingly, the qualitative interviews confirm a positive relationship between work-family/family-work enrichment and career advancement. The German and Indian managers experienced that what they learn at work does help them to become better family members and this helps their career growth (see Qualitative section I.1.1.iv.). Furthermore, the interviews confirm that the managers experienced family-work enrichment and this helped them to advance in career (see Qualitative section I.1.2.iv.). The relationship between work-family/family-work and career satisfaction was not established through the qualitative interviews.

ii. Work-life balance, work-family enrichment and work-family culture.

A positive association was established between work-family balance and organizational work-family culture (managerial support, organizational time demand and career consequences). This implies that the German and the Indian managers perceived that the work-family cultures in their respective organizations encourage them to strike a balance between work and life. The German managers seemed to perceive this association more positively as compared to the Indian managers. The findings show that as compared to the German managers, the Indian managers experienced higher time demand at work, less flexibility with work timings and work place and demanded more support from facilities like mentoring. Conclusively, in comparison to the German managers, the Indian managers from the current study perceived the work-family culture in Indian organizations was not up to the mark.

Likewise, a positive association between work-family enrichment and work-family culture was established. This implies that for the German and the Indian managers a favourable work-family culture in their organizations played a role in the positive transfer from work to family and increased the quality of their family life. After a detailed statistical analysis it was found that work-family enrichment and only one component of work-family culture i.e. managerial support were significantly correlated. This relation of work-family enrichment and managerial support was further analyzed for the whole sample by including family-work enrichment and by controlling the demographic variables viz. age, marital status, presence or absence of children and gender. It can be inferred that for the German as well as the Indian managers, family-work enrichment and managerial support significantly predicted work-family enrichment for age groups 20-35 years and 36-50 years; for the married managers; for the managers with dependent children and moreover for the male managers.

There were a few differences between Germany and India with regard to the work-family/family-work enrichment and managerial support when country specific data was analysed. In case of the German managers, family-work enrichment and managerial support significantly predicted work-family enrichment for the age group 36-50; for the married managers; for the managers with

dependent children. In case of the Indian managers, surprisingly, managerial support along with family-work enrichment did not significantly predict work-family enrichment for all the three variables viz. age, marital status and presence of children. A gender controlled analysis was not possible for Germany and India as the number of female managers (only 20%) was comparatively small for statistical analysis.

Remarkable results: German and Indian managers perceived that work-family enrichment and family-work enrichment had a positive role to play in their career advancement. Due to the lack of empirical findings to support the results of the current two-country study; the statements mentioned by respective managers are the sole evidence; thus, contributing to the work-family enrichment research.

7.3. Organizational work-family culture and career success in Germany & in India.

The relationship between organizational work-family culture and career advancement was not significant for German managers. On the contrary, for Indian managers, a negative significant correlation between career advancement and work-family culture was found. This unique finding means that even if Indian managers experienced an unfavourable work-family culture in their organization they still advanced in their careers. The association between work-family culture and career satisfaction cannot be established in Germany as well as in India as there is a non-significant correlation.

Remarkable results: In case of India, the managers advanced in their careers in spite of the unfavourable organizational work-family culture. It should be noted that there is no other study to support these results. This two-country study is the sole evidence of this significant negative relation.

7.4. Career success in Germany and in India.

Career success was measured through career satisfaction and career advancement. German and Indian managers differed in the level of career satisfaction showing that the German managers were more satisfied with their careers than the Indian managers (see Quantitative section 1.1.). The Qualitative interviews also showed that satisfaction with career meant enjoying work for the

German as well as the Indian managers (see Qualitative section II.6.1.). Career advancement did not differ significantly for German and Indian managers (see Quantitative section 1.1.). Career advancement was measured quantitatively through three predictors namely salary, hierarchical level and number of promotions. The qualitative exploration of career advancement was done through direct questions addressing the definition of career success; the personal and the organizational factors for career success; and finally the perception of managers about their career advancement. The positive association between career advancement and career satisfaction was found only for the German managers in the quantitative part (see Quantitative section 2.6.). In case of the Indian managers, this association was found only in the qualitative part (see Qualitative section II.6.1.). These conflicting findings in both countries could be interpreted as the positive association between career advancement and career satisfaction is evident in both countries; nevertheless through contrasting methods. A closer investigation of this phenomenon in both the countries is recommended.

7.5. Gender differences.

The statistical examination of the gender differences was carried out by combining the data for both the countries. The country-wise gender differences could not be analysed as the sample for female managers (only 20%) was comparatively small for any statistical investigation. It was found that the male and the female managers differed significantly in career advancement in both countries, showing that the male managers advanced more than the female managers (see Quantitative section 1.4.1.). Surprisingly, the interviews revealed that men and women advanced similarly (see Qualitative section II.6.1.). The integrated interpretation of career advancement related findings reflected that male and female managers advanced in their careers but following different paths (see Chapter 6, Point 2.3.). A gender difference was reported for work-family enrichment in both countries; where the female managers experienced enrichment from work to family on a higher level than the male managers.

The gender differences found in the interviews should be considered as general observations. The interviews showed a tendency of gender difference for career satisfaction, reporting that female managers (83%) were more satisfied

than male managers (67%) (see Qualitative section III.v.). The female managers showed a higher tendency of experiencing family-work enrichment than male managers as observed in interviews (see Qualitative section III.ii.). No significant gender difference was found for work-family culture (see Quantitative section 1.4.3). The qualitative interviews show a tendency that all female managers (100%) perceived that work-life balance was important for career advancement as compared to (83%) male managers. The qualitative analysis revealed in both the countries that all female managers (100%) had more barriers balancing work and life than (50%) male managers. Lastly, gender did not significantly moderate the relationships between work-family enrichment and (i) family-work enrichment, (ii.) managerial support, (iii) work-family culture; furthermore the relationship between career advancement and career satisfaction was also not significantly moderated by gender.

8. Contributions of the Research

The doctoral research contributes to the knowledge base of work-life balance and career success in many ways. Firstly, it explores work-life balance in depth and examines its relationship with career success. The current study provides some support for the positive association of work-life balance and career advancement in Germany and in India. The positive side of work-family interface that is work-family enrichment and its relation to career success is thoroughly investigated. These relationships are examined by considering the organizational work-family culture. Appropriate explanations for the findings are provided using the empirical studies and the researcher's knowledge about the cultural context wherever applicable. Secondly, this is a comparative study and according to the researcher's knowledge the first study to compare Germany and India. This Indo-German study contributes to the research base in Germany and India; where specifically work-family enrichment has not received much attention; thus, confirming work to family and family to work related enriching experiences of the German and the Indian managers. This research is the only one that provides some support for the positive association of work-family enrichment and career advancement.

This two-country study further contributes to the literature of work-life balance by providing empirical evidence for the work-family enrichment in Germany as well as in India. It also reveals various country specific aspects. Thirdly, the sample chosen for this study represents a broad range of participants. The data was collected in the industrial and the service sector consisting of diverse companies. The managerial levels ranged from assistant manager level up to the CEO level. The managers were male and female; were either married/partnered or single; had children/were childless; and belonged to the age range of 20 to 65 years. Lastly, this Indo-German study contributes by providing empirical facts grounded in the quantitative as well as the qualitative methods. As discussed earlier in the section for mixed methods approach (see Chapter 6), such a mixed method approach is particularly valuable as these two different methods lead to two different aspects of the same phenomenon.

9. Limitations & Future Directions of the Research

In spite of the notable findings and contributions, this two-country research has some weaknesses. First, self reporting was used as a base for the quantitative analysis. In the future, it may be worth basing the analysis on multisource data. The following propositions may be considered. In the context of family-work enrichment, may be spouses/partners of managers can be interviewed to understand the specific work-life issues, rather than relying only on the managers' perceptions and responses. In the case of objective career advancement, supervisors of managers can be involved. Furthermore, to understand the work-family culture better, the person in charge of work-life related issues in the human resources department of the organization can be interviewed. Second, the moderation analysis of gender was conducted; although gender had no significant moderation effect. It is recommended that other moderators for example marital status, presence of children, number of hours worked etc. can be considered as they may have some effect on work-life balance of managers.

Third, the cities chosen for the data collection are Pune in India and Munich in Germany. Germany and India display diversity in sub-culture, language, and customs; moreover, specifically for India the differences in religious beliefs may influence how individuals perceive family and work; therefore may be less

appropriate to consider the results to be representative of India and Germany as a whole. For the future investigation of this topic a larger sample including representative geographical parts of Germany and India should be considered. Fourth, in the future, more female managers should be included in the research as the female managers in the present study comprised only 20% of the whole sample.

The Indo-German research also revealed some findings that were not according to the expectations; which require a re-examination. In the quantitative section, the differences in career advancement for India and Germany should be retested. Regarding gender differences for career satisfaction, work-family culture and family-work enrichment a deeper investigation is recommended. The relationship between bi-directional enrichment and career success needs to be assessed again in the future. The reinvestigation of the above mentioned constructs can be achieved by using different parameters of subjective and objective career success and different psychological tests measuring enrichment and career success. In the qualitative section, barriers regarding work-life balance may serve as a research topic in itself; this should be investigated in greater detail in Germany and in India. The gender differences depicted in the qualitative section through 24 interviews (13 females and 11 males) could be considered only as a tendency; which could be retested using a higher amount of interviews.

The conflicting results displayed while integrating findings from quantitative and qualitative methods can be dealt with, either by changing the psychological tests used for the online survey, or by changing the sampling method used for interviews. The interviewees were not the ones, who had participated in the online survey. This may cause a conflict while interpreting findings from two different methods. In the future, if the same design of research is followed, then the interviews should be conducted with participants who have filled out the online survey. Lastly, the focus of the research was mainly on work-life domains of managers; wherein managers themselves perceived work-life balance as work-family balance. Rather than concentrating on work-family enrichment; it would be worth considering work-life enrichment in the future as it would involve enriching experiences between work and other domains of life apart from family life.

10. Practical Implications

The insights gained from this Indo-German study can help individuals to reflect on the current status of their work-life interface. On a personal level, this study can educate individuals how apparently the distinct domains i.e. work and life/family can be effectively managed. The study also revealed that the bi-directional enrichment is an efficient way of dealing with the work-life issues. The country-wise findings may help employees to understand how this issue is dealt with and which strategies can be used to integrate work and life positively. The findings from this study can serve as a strong base for personal trainings and personal coaching related to work-life balance. Furthermore, the bidirectional enriching experiences will enlighten everyone, who believes that balancing work-life or work-family inevitably leads to conflict.

On an organizational level, the findings from this two-country study may be of great importance. The current study confirms some gender differences. To fight against the social barriers and stereotypes against working men and women, the organizations should have policies and a legal framework that make the organizational culture more gender neutral. The current study tries to shed light on the situation of work-life balance related initiatives and interventions in some of the German and Indian organizations. The participants of this study have suggested some improvements regarding the work-family culture in Germany, where managers expect more options of day care for their children and more opportunities for sabbaticals; which will facilitate the process of work-life balance. The Indian managers expect child care facilities, more possibilities of flexible working hours and more training possibilities regarding work-life balance. These suggestions from managers are the issues that organizations should aim at improving.

A company-level training related to work-family enrichment that is teaching the employees to integrate work and life in a positive way should be the immediate practical implication. As various aspects of work-life balance were discovered through this study, it could serve as a good basis for designing such training. Such trainings will be beneficial for employees but also for the organization as the growth and success of an organization is dependent on the efficiency and physical

as well as mental health of its employees. Having a work-life balance means higher chances of career growth and career satisfaction and if employees are satisfied with their work, then their efficiency increases, ultimately leading to the organization's growth.

11. References

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12. Appendices

Appendix A – Interview Guideline

I. Career Success

1) Career development

- i. How did your career develop?
 - Please discuss your career development path and the changes that might have happened. Were these changes helpful in career advancement?

2) Career advancement

- ii. How would you define career success?
 - What are the important contributors for your career success?
- iii. Do you think you have advanced in your career? Can you mention some reasons for this advancement?
 - Which personal factors had an influence on your career advancement?
 - Which organizational factors had an influence on your career advancement?

3) Organizational interventions to balance work with family

- i. What kinds of efforts are being taken by your company/organization to promote work-life balance?
 - What kinds of initiatives are available in your organisation e.g. maternity and parental leaves and benefits, and job protection?
 - What would you wish to be different in your organisation to balance work and family?

- Have these interventions had an influence of your career advancement? How?

II. Work-Life Balance

1) Attitudes towards work-life balance

- i. How would you personally define work-life balance?
- ii. Why is work-life balance important for the career advancement according to you?
 - What benefits are involved with balancing work and life? What are the signs of imbalance?

2) Work to Family Enrichment

- i. Does your work have an impact on your family?
 - How does it have an impact?
 - How do you expect work to positively influence your family environment?
- ii. Can you give an example of an experience where work improved your performance in your family? Which factors were really important?
- iii. Have these positive experiences from work to family helped you advance in your career? How?

3) Family to Work Enrichment

- i. Does your family have an impact on your work?
 - How does it have an impact?
 - How do you expect family to positively influence your work environment?
- ii. Can you give an example of an experience in your life where family improved your performance at work? Which factors were really important?
- iii. Have these positive experiences from family to work helped you advance in your career? How?

4) Strategies used to Balance Work with Life

- i. What strategies help you in balancing work and life?
 - How have these strategies helped you progress in your career?
 - Would you wish to get help to develop skills related to work-life balance? E.g. coaching or training?
 What obstacles/barriers do you come across while balancing work and life?

III. Family related Cross-cultural Aspects in India and Germany

1) Family Dynamics

- i. How would you define your family?
 - How does your family help you to strike a balance between work and life?

- ii. How are household responsibilities planned? Who is the one who takes care of the needs of the child (if applicable) most of the times?
- iii. What does your family do in order to spend quality time with each other?

2) Family Values

- i. Cohesion: If you have a problem who do you share your problem with in your family? Why so?
- ii. Communication: Do you think you have enough time to communicate with other family members? How do you communicate with them?
- iii. Conflict: Has work created conflicts in the family? If yes, how does the family cope with the conflict? Please explain further with examples!

Appendix B - Demographic Details

Interview no:

Interviewee code:

I assure you that your responses will be treated confidentially and analyzed anonymously.

- 1) Number of employees who report to you as a manager: _____
- 2) Total number of employees of your organization (worldwide): _____
- 3) Number of employees of your organization in Germany/India: _____
- 4) Number of years of work experience (total): _____
- 5) Number of years of work experience as a manager: _____
- 6) How many levels of hierarchy are there in your organization: _____
What hierarchical level are you on: _____
- 7) For what division/area of work are you responsible as a manager:

- 8) Job title: _____
- 9) Age: _____ Gender: _____
- 10) Marital status:

<input type="checkbox"/> Married	<input type="checkbox"/> Living with partner
<input type="checkbox"/> Divorced	<input type="checkbox"/> Single

- 11) Ages of your children, if you have any: _____ please circle the ones who are living with the interviewee.
- 12) How many family members are currently living with you? _____
- 13) Please specify the type of employment of your spouse/partner (if applicable) _____.
- 14) Educational background
- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Doctorate | <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor's Degree |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Master/Magister | <input type="checkbox"/> Vocational Course/Training |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Diplom University | <input type="checkbox"/> _____ |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Diplom Fachhochschule | |
-

Appendix C- Letter of Confidentiality

Role of Work-Family Enrichment in Work-Life Balance & Career Success of German and Indian Managers.

Goals of the doctoral study: Work-life balance is normally seen as a conflict but I am focusing on the POSITIVE aspects of it. The general aim is to analyse the bi-directional work-family relationship and find out how work factors have enriching (positive) effects on family and family factors on work. Furthermore, the aim is to explore and compare the family and work related positive experiences of middle or upper level managers employed in selected Indian and German companies. The ultimate goal will be to find out if training for work-family enrichment will be useful for managers. **For this purpose, I am looking for female and male managers to participate in an online survey, which will take approximately 15-20 minutes.**

Participation criteria: As this doctoral study is highly structured and will be carried out on a cross-cultural level, criteria have been set to compare the target cultures (India and Germany) therefore the managers who fulfill the following criteria can be the potential participants. Managers (both female and male) should:

- 1) be working at one of the company locations in Germany or India.
- 2) belong to the middle- and upper managerial level.
- 3) have at least 4-5 years of managerial experience.
- 4) have at least 2-3 sub-ordinates working under their supervision.

Benefits to participants and their organizations: The results of the doctoral study will be made available to you (and your organization if desired). The benefits are:

- 1) **Self-reflection** on factors involved in work-life balance and career advancement: what works for you, what needs to be worked on, what strategies enhance your performance, how others deal with this issue etc.
- 2) **Measures** for positive work-life interface and career advancement based on empirical data.

- 3) **Interventions** for well-structured training of managers in organizations.
- 4) **Reliable Tool** to find out the work-family enrichment related training needs of managers.

All the responses from the participants will be treated anonymously and confidentially. May I request you to grant me the permission to administer the online survey in your company and kindly provide me the contact details of the potential participants (managers) in your company? If you wish for a certain way of contacting them, I am of course open to your suggestions.

I appreciate your time and look forward to a positive response!

Shalaka Shah

Appendix D – Online Survey

Dear participants,

First of all, I highly appreciate your time and agreement to participate in the survey.

The survey will take approximately 20 minutes. To respond to the statements that follow, please indicate your agreement or disagreement with the entire statement using the multiple options given.

For every statement please mark the option that fits you the best. Please be honest and kindly note that there are no right or wrong answers! In order to have valid and reliable results, I request you sincerely to respond to all the statements.

Your responses will be treated confidentially and anonymously.

Thank you very much

Shalaka Shah

Doctoral Researcher
General Pedagogy & Education Research
Ludwig-Maximilians-University
Munich, Germany

Response scale: (1: strongly agree, 2: disagree, 3: undecided, 4: agree and 5: strongly agree).

1. My involvement in my work helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member.
2. My involvement in my work helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better family member.
3. My involvement in my work helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member.
4. My involvement in my work puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better family member.
5. My involvement in my work makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member.

6. My involvement in my work makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better family member.
7. My involvement in my work helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member.
8. My involvement in my work provides me with a sense of accomplishment and this helps me be a better family member.
9. My involvement in my work provides me with a sense of success and this helps me be a better family member.
10. My involvement in my family helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better worker.
11. My involvement in my family helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker.
12. My involvement in my family helps me expand my knowledge of new things and this helps me be a better worker.
13. My involvement in my family puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better worker.
14. My involvement in my family makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better worker.
15. My involvement in my family makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better worker.
16. My involvement in my family requires me to avoid wasting time at work and this helps me be a better worker.
17. My involvement in my family encourages me to use my work time in a focused manner and this helps me be a better worker.
18. My involvement in my family causes me to be more focused at work and this helps me be a better worker.

Response scale: (1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: disagree somewhat, 4: undecided, 5: agree somewhat, 6: agree and 7: strongly agree).

19. In this organization employees can easily balance their work and family lives.
20. In the event of a conflict, managers understand when employees have to put their family first.
21. In this organization it is generally okay to talk about one's family at work.
22. Employees are often expected to take work home at night and/or on weekends.
23. Higher management in this organization encourages supervisors to be sensitive to employees' family and personal concerns.
24. Employees are regularly expected to put their jobs before their families.
25. To turn down a promotion or transfer for family-related reasons will seriously hurt one's career progress in this organization.
26. In general, managers in this organization are quite accommodating of family-related needs.
27. Many employees are resentful when women in this organization take extended leaves to care for newborn or adopted children.
28. To get ahead at this organization, employees are expected to work more than 50 hours a week, whether at the workplace or at home.
29. To be viewed favourably by top management, employees in this organization must constantly put their jobs ahead of their families or personal lives.
30. In this organization employees who participate in available work-family programs (e.g., job sharing, part-time work) are viewed as less serious about their careers than those who do not participate in these programs.
31. Many employees are resentful when men in this organization take extended leaves to care for newborn or adopted children.

32. In this organization it is very hard to leave during the workday to take care of personal or family matters.
33. This organization encourages employees to set limits on where work stops and home life begins.
34. Middle managers and executives in this organization are sympathetic toward employees' child care responsibilities.
35. This organization is supportive of employees who want to switch to less demanding jobs for family reasons.
36. Middle managers and executives in this organization are sympathetic toward employees' elder care responsibilities.
37. In this organization employees who use flextime are less likely to advance their careers than those who do not use flextime.
38. In this organization employees are encouraged to strike a balance between their work and family lives.

Response scale: (1: strongly agree, 2: disagree, 3: undecided, 4: agree and 5: strongly agree).

39. I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.
40. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals.
41. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income.
42. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement.
43. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills.
44. Please specify your managerial level.
 - € Assistant Manager/Junior Manager
 - € Senior Assistant Manager/Local Manager/Branch Manager
 - € Area Manager
 - € General/Regional/Divisional Manager
 - € Senior Manager/Vice President
 - € Executive Manager/ Chief Officer/Head/Board Member
45. Please specify your total salary per annum (before tax, without bonus) in the currency applicable to you.

Rs. less than 4,99,999	€ less than 49,999
Rs. 5,00,000-7,99,999	€ 50,000-74,999
Rs. 8,00,000-15,99,999	€ 75,000-99,999
Rs. 16,00,000-35,99,999	€ 100,000-199,999
Rs. 36,00,000-59,99,999	€ 200,000-499,999
Rs. more than 60,00,000	€ more than 500,000

46. Please specify your managerial promotions till date.
 - € none
 - € 1-2
 - € 3-4
 - € 5-6
 - € 7-8
 - € 9

47. Please specify your gender.
- € Female
 - € Male
48. Please specify your age.
49. Please specify your country of origin.
- € India
 - € Germany
50. Please specify your marital status.
- € Married
 - € Living with partner
 - € Single/unmarried
51. Please specify your educational degree.
- € 10 years completed
 - € 12 years completed
 - € Bachelor Degree/Graduation
 - € Graduate Diploma
 - € Master Degree/Post-graduation
 - € Post-graduate Diploma
 - € Technical College Course
 - € Doctorate
52. Please specify the number and age of your children. How many of these children are currently living with you?
53. Please specify the number of family members currently living with you.
54. Please specify the type of employment of your spouse/partner.
- € Part-time employment
 - € Full-time employment
 - € Self employed (part-time)
 - € Self employed (full-time)
55. Please specify the number of employees who report to you, as a manager.
56. Please specify the department you are currently working in, as a manager.
57. Please specify your total work experience in years.
58. Please specify your managerial work experience in years.
59. Please specify your job title.
60. Please specify the name of your company.

---- End of survey ---

Curriculum Vitae

Shalaka Sharad Shah

E-mail: ss.worklifebalance@gmail.com

Nationality: Indian

Date of birth: 01.02.1984



Educational Qualifications

- 08/2010 – 01/2014** **Ludwig-Maximilians-University, Munich, Germany**
Work-Life Balance & Career Success
Degree: PhD, Magna Cum Laude
- 10/2008 – 07/2010** **Ludwig-Maximilians-University, Munich, Germany**
Psychology of Excellence in Business & Education
Degree: Master of Arts, Grade 1,24 (very good)
- 06/2005 – 07/2007** **S.N.D.T. Women's University, Pune, India**
Counseling Psychology
Degree: Master of Arts, Grade A (very good)

Work Experience

- 06/2007 – 08/2008** **Counseling Psychologist (Freelancer), Pune, India**
- Counseling adolescents, adults and old age clients with personal, emotional, social adjustment problems.
- 06/2000 – 09/2008** **New Horizon Academy, Pune, India**
German Language Faculty
- Delivering lectures on basic German curriculum to grades 8 to 12.
 - Planning and conducting preparatory sessions for students appearing for A1-B1 level German language examinations at Goethe Institute.
- 10/ 2004 – 04/2005** **Zubair Travels & Service Bureau LLC, Muscat, Oman**
German speaking Company Representative
- Explaining and selling tours to German speaking clients.
 - Planning client outings.
 - Guiding city tours.
 - In charge of client's stay at the specific hotels.

Practicum/Internships

02/2010 – 07/2010

Eurocopter Deutschland GmbH

Donauwörth, Germany

Training, Competencies & Change

- Preparation, optimization and feedback of In-house trainings
- Supporting other HR operations

06/2006 – 04/2007

Shree Vijay Vallabh High-School, Pune, India

Trainee Counseling Psychologist

- Counseling adolescents with emotional, social and adjustment problems.

Awards

10/2008 – 03/2013

Scholarship from Konrad Adenauer Stiftung, Germany.

06/2007

Awarded 3rd rank for Advanced Diploma in German language, University of Pune, India.

Scientific Memberships

Member of Work and Family Researchers Network

Skills

Communication

English: Fluent, German: Fluent

Hindi, Marathi, Gujarati (Native Languages)

Interpersonal

Punctual, reliable, works well in a team, co-operates and functions well in social environment

Technical

Experienced in MS Word, Outlook, PowerPoint, Excel, SPSS software and internet based research

18.02.2014

Shalaka Sharad Shah